THE INTELLIGENT PARENTS' MANUAL

A Practical Guide to the Problems of Childhood and Adolescence

by

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and

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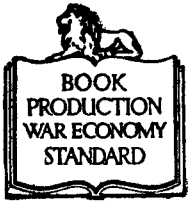

THIS BOOK IS PRODUCED IN COMPLETE CONFORMITY WITH THE AUTHORISED ECONOMY STANDARDS

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We found ourselves in agreement on the basic principles and from there have attempted to give a non-technical background of knowledge of growth in the emotional, social, and intellectual spheres, with the application of this knowledge to everyday situations.

It is a pleasure to express our appreciation of the contributions and help given by the experiences of our friends and patients and for the criticisms and suggestions of those who read the manuscript, Mrs. Gerard Lake, Mr. Thomas Woodhouse, Mrs. John Farrar, and Dr. Joseph Brennerman.

F. B. P.
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Dr. Powdermaker is Associate in Psychiatry of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York, and Mrs. Grimes is a Graduate of the Co-operative School for Student Teachers.

We are much indebted to Dr. Maurice Newfield for his kindness in preparing the English edition for press, and contributing an Introduction. The former task involved complete anglicization of the original text with modifications to adapt it to English conditions.

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INTRODUCTION TO THE ENGLISH EDITION

A GLANCE at the contents pages will give a fair idea of the scope of this work; but a few words may be added about the manner in which the authors approach their subject.

The first thing that should be said—and it is much to the authors' credit—is that they scrupulously refrain from laying down hard and fast rules for dealing with each and every problem that may arise in the development of the child from birth to adolescence. Simply but without shirking difficulties, scientifically but without technical jargon or the obtrusion of psychological doctrine, they discuss the successive phases of this development, physical, mental and spiritual, setting out standards by which parents can judge whether or not their children are progressing at a normal pace and, most important of all, indicating how wide is the range within which the "normal" lies: but their guidance, as the title of the book implies, is for *intelligent* parents, in other words for those who, while demanding information, expect demands on their own understanding.

Such parents would rightly reject general-purposes solutions to their problems. They want to know what it means, and what action if any they should take, if the child has tantrums; sucks his thumbs; wets his bed; can't or won't control his bowel movements; refuses or becomes faddy about food; sleeps badly; seems late in learning to talk, walk or fend for himself; has nightmares or irrational terrors; is given to day dreaming; is backward at school; is destructive, unsociable or even anti-social. What shall they tell him, and when and how, about the facts of birth and death? What of his religious and moral training, his adolescent difficulties, his choice of a vocation? What are their responsibilities if he seems advanced for his years or displays special talents or skills? How in fact can they help him to make the best of his natural endowments and become a well-adjusted human being, healthy, happy, efficient and self reliant.

This book, both by statements of fundamental principles and by well chosen examples of their application in practice, shows parents how to solve these and like problems, not merely in general terms, but as they arise in their own children within the special circumstances of their own family life. For every problem in the relation between parents and children, however much it may appear to belong to a particular class, is in fact unique and calls for a unique solution. All that can be imparted is the way

in which it should be examined and the established facts that are among its elements : all the rest must be left in the parents' hands.

It is worth adding just this. Parents, however gifted, well-informed, and conscientious, are bound to make many mistakes. They will not always strike the right balance between discipline and freedom ; they will often be confronted by behaviour that leaves them completely at a loss ; they will sometimes be over-indulgent, sometimes over-harsh and bad-tempered, all too often exactly like parents who have never given a thought to problems of child training in their lives. But it is not claimed by the authors that knowledge can turn intelligent men and women into saints or sages. It can safeguard them against their worst errors and usually ensure that any they make will not be irretrievable ones ; it can add immensely to the pleasure of the relationship between them and their children ; it can enrich their understanding and equip them the better to fulfil their parental responsibilities ; it can teach them when and in general terms how to act, and when to leave well or ill alone. More than that it cannot do : with anything less no parent should be content.

MAURICE NEWFIELD

PART I

INFANCY

CHAPTER I

THE NEW BABY

A BABY is born into a society, not into a vacuum. To the newborn child and to those of us interested in his training, this is a most important fact. When he is born, he immediately becomes one of a group of people, and the kind of relationship he establishes with them in his early years will strongly determine not only his attitudes and satisfactions in his association with his fellow beings for the rest of his life, but also his success or failure with them in work or play.

Parents looking at the newborn child lying in his cradle have every right to be optimistic about his future. Whatever his future role may be in society, the potentialities of this small person are more than anyone can foresee. He may not be a genius, but we do know that he, like all of us, has within him greater capacities for development than he will ever be aware of or will use in later life. It is the parents' opportunity to allow him the chance to discover and realize these capacities.

The excitement with which parents view their own new baby is of course partly an expression of their love for him; but it also shows their awareness, conscious or unconscious, that the future of this small, helpless individual depends on their wisdom as well as on his own endowment.

In this book, therefore, we propose to discuss the things that happen every day to a child, to consider his health, his wishes, his needs, his routine, from birth through adolescence. And no less, the parents' needs and routine and attitudes in regard to him. In doing this, we hope to show how he can best be helped to develop and can develop himself into a healthy adult.

We suggest that parents who turn to these pages for the solution of some particular problem should read the whole book in order to understand the general pattern of a child's growth. Even if your own child is past infancy, it is very helpful to have a perspective on his early years when considering his present needs and problems.

There is much in the pattern of child development that is still

quite unknown to science. Particularly in social, intellectual, and emotional growth we know little, in contrast with our more exact knowledge of physical growth.

Nevertheless, we have far more information on these subjects than was available a generation ago. We have tried in the following pages to interpret such knowledge in terms of a child's training and experience, rather than to discuss the theories of any school or system of psychology. Schools of psychology are sometimes apt to regard the child, the father, and the mother as laboratory guinea pigs, forgetting that they are persons like themselves with a thousand and one prejudices, habits, and peculiarities arising from their own particular background and environment. With this fact in mind, advice or any pattern of treatment should not be followed blindly, but our suggestions should be considered only when they apply to the child and his own particular problems.

We have chosen to think of life from the moment of birth as a steady process of education, during which every experience teaches the child something and leaves an impression which either helps or hinders him. These impressions, good or bad, are not necessarily indelible or unchangeable. Children as well as many adults are susceptible to change if understandingly approached. This flexibility is a sign of a kind of youthfulness that is independent of age.

In bringing up a child, our wish is naturally to see his capacities developed and used to the utmost, but we must be careful not to let our ambition destroy our sense of perspective. There are bound to be many occasions when a parent blames himself for having said or done the wrong thing, or for having been a failure in this or that situation. Doubtless he has failed, for mistakes are inevitable. But the very fact that his parents are human and likely to err is early recognized and appreciated by the child and provides him with a source of encouragement in meeting his own problems. Few things are of greater importance or save more heartbreak for both parent and child than the lesson well learned that mistakes can be remedied in some way and a fresh start made. If one bears in mind these two things: first, that one is not infallible, and secondly, that one's child neither expects nor wants one to be, then the chances of developing his capacities (and incidentally one's own) will be greatly increased.

It is to give parents a view of the possible development of their child's potentialities, to indicate what they may expect him to go through in the various years and stages of his life, that we have written this book. We take it for granted that their hope is not merely for the child's success in school or in his career, but for his

growing up into a well-adjusted person and a good citizen. Such a truly mature person is equipped to face the realities of life and can find ways of meeting them within the limits of his abilities. He will also, without undue emotional difficulty, accept the responsibilities, the failures, and the frustrations which must be met by everyone.

Perhaps this seems an overwhelming task, but if the ultimate aim for the child is a wise one and one's affection for him is sound, then the little everyday mistakes of judgment will not matter. Our principal concern should be to recognize them and use them for future profit.

There is no great mystery in child training. In its basic principles it is simple, even though life, and therefore the application of these principles, is manifold and complicated. To bring up a child fairly happily and without undue tension is not an impossible task; it can be accomplished with pleasure and satisfaction.

Much of the necessary training is of course slow and results cannot be expected overnight. In an unhurried, easy way the baby should be given the chance to accept—that is, to learn—one thing at a time as he progresses from infancy to childhood.

In the early days of his life, a baby has only a few instinctive responses. When he feels cramplike pains of hunger he can cry. When a pin sticks into him he can yell. He is born also with two fears: a fear of loud noises and a fear of falling. It seems miraculous that a creature with so few reactions will in a few years develop into a human being with a wealth of feelings and hundreds of ways of responding to them. But we are now beginning to understand some of the natural laws governing the development of the emotions, and we know that this very fact of a baby's being able to respond to what happens to him is what makes education possible. The more effectively he is able to respond to the outside world (a capacity which he shares to a greater or lesser degree with all forms of life), the more effective will his physical, mental, emotional, and social development be.

One of the simplest natural laws on which a great deal of our child training is based is well known to anyone who has had anything to do with infants or animals. A baby, or an animal, will repeat any action that brings him comfort or pleasure; he will avoid or be afraid of any that brings him discomfort or pain. Supposing, for instance, a baby is mildly hungry before his regular feeding time and his mother does not immediately feed him. He cries, and this makes him still more uncomfortable. Within a very short time, however, he learns not to cry until just before his feeding time, if at all. This is his first lesson in accepting a tempo-

rary discomfort. He has learned two things : first, that it does him no good not to accept it, and secondly, that by not accepting it he becomes even more uncomfortable. If the infant is actually underfed, he will continue to cry as an instinctive reaction.

It is impossible to educate a baby without exposing him to a certain amount of disappointment. Instinctively a child grabs or cries for what he wants ; failing to reach it, or not being allowed to have it, he becomes angry or frightened. Anger and fear are profoundly disturbing, but we still continue to be angry or frightened when we have not learned either to accept inevitable difficulties or denials, or to tackle them and find a way out. Disappointment or frustration calls for constructive, coolheaded thinking. We have an example of this in a child who sees a lollipop on a shelf just out of reach. One child, perhaps, will work himself into a temper making futile jumps to reach it and finally break out into howls of rage. Another child of the same age will size up the situation, drag a heavy chair across the room, place it under the shelf, climb up and help himself. The same energy that the first child uses in angry and useless activity, the second diverts into thinking out a way of successfully overcoming the obstacle. The earlier a child learns to try to solve a problem instead of considering it as only a means of frustration, the better it is for him.

It is pathetic to see a spoiled child up against his first hard knocks and unequipped to deal with them. But just as the baby learns to forego crying when he is sure that the pleasures of feeding will be his at the proper time, so the older child learns to forego other pleasures when he sees that this is calmly expected of him. He will be even more ready to do this if he has achieved by experience a reasonable assurance that other satisfactions will take their place—either as a matter of course or by being worked for. This is not quickly or easily learned, for satisfactions will not always immediately follow deprivations. A small boy who is saving up his pocket money to buy a train must deny himself many other things before he has his reward.

If we can see to it that a child feels the world about him to be a friendly one, that if he is hurt it is usually unintentionally, he will in turn develop a friendly and generous attitude toward the world. Then he will be free to take a great deal for granted in his relationships. He will not be unnecessarily on guard against or afraid of people and he will develop judgment when he needs it. While he will naturally expect satisfaction and happiness, he will at the same time be able to accept current situations that are not always as rewarding as he expected. Having accepted this, he will be free to branch out in other directions and find enjoyment in some other

phase of study, work or creative effort. His gratification from these sources will help him to achieve a well-rounded existence and the confidence to cope with its problems as they arise.

In considering the education of a child, we have to take into account his instinctive wishes, and it is in regard to these that we come up against one of the simple principles of child training we have mentioned. Not all of a child's wishes, in their primitive form, are desirable either for him or for his family. They must be modified and adapted to civilized living, and at the same time his energies must be directed into fields which society permits and which the child himself will enjoy. If he cannot always play in the mud, we can give him clay and sand and paints to play with. This is a simple illustration of the way we can direct but not repress the energies that are the source of power for all his activities. The amount of energy varies greatly in different children and at different times. It is the purpose of education to transform the energy of the primitive impulses into activities which satisfy the child himself and are acceptable to others.

If parents love a child, it is of the very nature of that love that they will want him to have lasting satisfactions, rather than immediate gratifications. Their love will find a free expression in seeing that as many as possible of the child's wishes and needs are fulfilled and that he suffers only the absolutely necessary deprivations. When parents are confident and consistent in their training methods, the problems can never be so hard that they cannot be solved by knowledge plus imagination, especially when these are controlled by observation of the child and are free from superstition, prejudice, and set ideas. It is well for a parent to ask himself "Why?" every time he thinks his child "must" do something, and then go on to answer his own question intelligently, rather than in terms of habit or because other people do it. As soon as a child senses this attitude in his mother and father, he will acquire an increased respect for them.

Learning is a slow process and it is advisable not to force the child beyond his own pace. When he has learned that mistakes are inevitable and that something can usually be done about them, he will be encouraged to do something constructive about his own failures. This is a lesson that can be learned early in life. As he begins to walk and suddenly falls after taking a step, he will regard the accident as a matter of course; picking himself up, he will have another try, feeling sure that the next step, or the next or the next, will be successful. If he is encouraged and not helped too much, he will persevere until he masters his problem.

As soon as a child has the feeling that learning is an unhurried

gradual process, with accomplishments and failures all along the way, he will be eager for more and more of life. He will also look forward to his further adventures in education because they bring him the attention and appreciation of others and the deep satisfaction of achievement within himself. The process is the same no matter what is being learned. Gradual adaptation to life as it is lived by those around him involves the same procedure whether the child is born in an African jungle or a great city.

We must be careful, however, not to make this adaptation too rigid, for we must leave room for individuality in the child. A person may be regarded as mature when he can strike a just balance between the claims and needs of society on the one hand and those of his own individuality on the other.

The claims of society and those of the individual are seldom identical. A conflict therefore arises between what the child is and what he wants to do, and what his parents and society expect of him. It is because of this conflict, and more especially the way in which he meets it, that his personality develops. If we expect too much of him for his native ability or his age, he may lose courage and give up trying; and if we still force him to keep on, he may become unhappy and bitter, ending up in complete failure or rebellion. But if, on the other hand, each step we expect of him approximately fits his ability to live up to our expectation, and if he derives satisfaction from having lived up to it, then there is real happiness for him in trying and in the feeling that he is growing up. He knows that his efforts will bring the reward of self-accomplishment and he willingly exerts them.

This side of the child's education requires imagination and a patient willingness on the part of the parents to observe and understand, so that they will know just how much he can be expected to do at any one time. This close but unobtrusive observation will help the parents not to hold back their child unduly, and will enable them to give him proper help as soon as he becomes ready for it.

It is of the utmost importance for parents to love their child for what he is, rather than for what he does, as they guide his activities. We are apt to place so much emphasis on doing and success that a child may get the idea that he is loved only because he gets good marks at school, is useful about the house, is well behaved, or conforms with anything else the parents may happen to emphasize. To give him a real sense of being a person, he needs to feel that his parents love him because he is their child and because he is himself.

So far what has been written has dealt largely with the point of view of the child, and little has been said of his part in the family

life. When a baby is born, as we said at the start, he enters into an already established group consisting of two or more people who have certain habits of living, a more or less settled relationship to each other, and a more or less settled way of life. No matter how welcome the baby is, adjustments are inevitable, and it is likely that new stresses and strains will arise in the household. These may be emotional, social or financial, or possibly all three.

The problem of making these adjustments will be much easier if parents frankly recognize the situation and do not blanket it with the traditional sentiments that surround a baby's birth. It seems natural to feel that since the newborn baby is so tiny and his needs so simple, his presence in the family will not cause any great change. Later on, the parents think, it may be different, but in the early months they have only to see that he is kept well and clean and that he is properly fed at regular intervals. On the other hand, some parents may be as naturally inclined to place too much importance on the presence of the new baby. He immediately becomes the centre of interest and the life of the entire family is reorganized to meet what they believe to be the needs of the child. Outside pleasures and all family arrangements are thought of only in terms of the new baby, his feeding times and his sleeping hours. If the mother or father or one of the other children thinks of his own comfort or pleasure or needs he is considered selfish.

Neither of these attitudes towards the newcomer is good for him or for anyone else. Actually the baby is a member of the family like all the other members. Each possesses and is entitled to his own special needs and interests and desires. It will be some time before the baby understands this, but it is only when the parents recognize this fact that social living for the baby begins. With such a point of view, the danger of the r spoiling him does not arise.

What changes in the family life are necessary for the baby's comfort and health, and how can these changes be made with the least possible inconvenience for everyone else ? The question is simplified if we take stock of the bare facts of the situation. There are so many rooms in the house and so many people to fit into them ; the parents and other members of the family have a certain need for quiet and recreation and possess a certain income, and the housekeeping involves so much washing, cleaning, and cooking. How can this housework, this room space, and this income be fairly divided so that the baby's needs will be satisfied and each member of the family cared for as well as possible ?

The relative importance of these things to the baby and to other members of the family has to be given due consideration. Needless

sacrifices never make for happiness to anyone. If father likes to have his supper at six o'clock, then the baby's four-hour schedule can be arranged so that he is fed at some other time. The baby will come to no harm from this change in routine, provided the interval between feedings is the same. The child must not feel that he is the centre of the small universe of the family and can expect anything to be changed merely because he wants it or because he is there. He needs a loving relationship with those about him and a kind introduction to living, but it is no kindness to give him a view of his place in life which cannot possibly be maintained in after years.

The chief reason why parents of a wanted baby are likely to exaggerate his importance and later find themselves with a spoiled child on their hands lies in their anxiety to do the right thing and in their ignorance of how to do it. Too often they are confused by an avalanche of contradictory advice from well-meaning doctors, books, and friends, and try desperately to adhere to some particular method of training without thinking of its applicability to their own infant and household. If instead they take the pains to study the child, as well as themselves in relation to him, the adjustment of the child to his own family can be based on the mutual needs and comfort of both. In this way an unstrained, reasonable family relationship can be established.

Since no child develops exactly according to any given standard, it is essential that the parents should continue their observation throughout the training of their child. The fact that a particular schedule is used by their friends or seems to work well with someone else's child is no reason in itself why they should apply it to their own. Parents should think of the schedule, school, clothes, vocation, and all the manifold situations of life in terms of what the child actually is, what his needs are, and what it is reasonable for the family to provide.

If a parent, as a result of his own background, has some special ideal or notion of perfection, he is doomed at the start to disappointment. Since life is never static but is in constant change, the character of the relationships within a family is bound to vary. The relationship between parents and their children will have its advances and setbacks, but one need never think that a momentary setback is a serious thing. Each stage in a child's development has its own particular satisfactions and pleasures and problems. Any notion of attaining perfection is untenable, because when a thing or a person seems perfect (assuming that this were possible) it is finished and there can be no further development. This ambition does not take into account the reality that life is never

still. Perfection is like the pot of gold at the foot of the rainbow, which may be there but can never be attained.

Many mothers unfortunately fall into the habit of thinking that the period when their child was a baby was the happiest of all. Such parents may not keep up with the child's growth and they, as well as the child, may seem to suffer from a kind of arrested development. We have all seen a mother acting toward a fourteen-year-old boy as if he were still four, and have watched a father treat his sixteen-year-old daughter as if she were incompetent to cross the street by herself. They are quite unaware that they are denying the child the opportunity to mature. But the fact remains that neither of them has kept pace with the child's progress. There are far too many parents of this kind who remain stationary in the infant-parent relationship, refusing to see that the child has moved, or should have moved along. The child is a steadily developing personality, going through the various steps of infancy, childhood, and adolescence to adulthood, and his parents can enjoy advancing with him, forearmed with a knowledge of the changes to come.

We all know that a child may be born into many kinds of home situations. If parents who are eager to have a baby must adapt themselves to his arrival, it is obvious that in a more complicated situation, such as one in which the father or the mother or other relative has to assume the role of both parents, the adjustments are much more difficult. The single parent or other relative then has the problem of making the child happy and of bringing him up in such a way that he will have adequate substitutes for the mother-and-father relationship.

We have purposely limited our discussion in this book to the environment because the problem of inheritance in man, as contrasted to some animals, is exceedingly complicated. What little is known has little application to the average normal family. The old problem of which is more important, heredity or environment, can have no definite or final answer because the part that each plays depends on such complicated circumstances. Families of high and low intellectual capacity are found throughout all occupational groups in the population. Whether such capacity as exists is brought to its fullest development depends on the surroundings. Differences that exist in different classes or between various racial groups are apparently due to differences in the environment as well as in the heredity.

Parents and children tend to have similar intelligence, but as a rule they usually also have had similar surroundings. It must also be remembered that environment includes much more than the material setting, the amount of money, the kind of schools, the

social life, and so forth. It also includes the ideals, ideas, and prejudices of the family or group, the intelligence that is brought to bear upon problems, the emotional " tempo " and quality, and the whole subtle interplay between individuals.

It cannot be said too strongly that the most important thing for any child is a feeling of security during the difficult business of growing up. He can acquire this only when he knows that he is loved by his parents or foster parents, not just by fits and starts but continuously. Armed with this assurance, he will have the confidence and courage to venture out into the world and he will meet new experiences and new people with interest, eagerness, and faith. A parent will see him make a thousand mistakes along the difficult road; but if he bears with these patiently and lets the child feel that his aim is not to pounce on him for his mistakes but rather to give him a friendly hand when the going gets too hard, the child will find the happiness, the friendships, and the rewarding achievements in life that the parent wishes for him.

CHAPTER II

FEEDING THE INFANT

The Mother's Attitude—Nursing—Feeding Habits—Weaning.

The Mother's Attitude

A BABY is born. The parents, other children, the grandparents, the uncles, aunts, and cousins who make up the family circle are all variously affected by the event. Before having a child the mother and father themselves seldom realize in what ways and to what extent the arrival of the baby will change their lives, or what readjustments they will have to make in their habits, their thoughts, and their feelings. But even though they have no exact knowledge of how the baby's arrival is going to affect them, they do usually feel at its approach an increased sense of responsibility: the mother to protect and care for the new baby well, the father to earn a sufficient livelihood to meet the additional bills.

The mother is naturally the person who is the most immediately affected. The first thing she wants after the birth of her baby is to satisfy nine months' curiosity by finding out what it is really like. "Is it alive and well? Is it normal? Is it a boy or a girl?"

While carrying a baby, particularly a first child, a woman is certain to have doubts and misgivings. "Shall I really be able to produce a normal, healthy child?"

When she has successfully given birth to her baby and her first sight of him has reassured her on this point, the new mother often finds herself set upon by fresh fears. Her baby looks so frail and tiny and helpless. "Shall I know how to take proper care of him and protect him from illness? How shall I know the right thing to do on every occasion?"

If, as is common today, a mother has gone to a hospital or a nursing home to have her baby, these misgivings are often increased. In her weakened condition she is likely to be overawed by the deftness, efficiency, and experience of the nurses; and on returning to her family and finding herself alone with her baby, she is fearful that her own lack of knowledge and experience will prevent her from taking care of him in the right way.

Whether her baby has been born at the hospital or at home, a woman ought not to let herself be frightened by the expertness of those around her, but should have confidence in her own ability

to acquire judgment and common sense in carrying out her new task. When a mother has this self-confidence she may rely on her normal instincts, feelings, and intuition to guide her in caring for her child. For instance, if her baby is purple in the face from crying and his next feed is not due for another half hour, she wonders if it would be all right to pick him up and soothe him or whether she had not better stick to the schedule and let him cry it out. If the mother is unfrightened and can bring herself to view the crisis calmly, she will realize that for some reason her baby is unusually hungry, and her common sense will tell her that such hard crying cannot be good for him. Confidence in her own judgment will teach her that schedules are laid down for her baby's health and comfort, and that when these two requirements are endangered by too strict adherence to the letter of the law, the "law's an ass" and may be changed to fit the emergency.

She will find, as the weeks and months pass and as she develops a greater understanding of her baby's individuality and characteristics, that her judgment of what he needs or of what ails him is more likely to be right than the advice of others, the doctor excepted. This growing confidence in herself will impart to everything she does a touch of sureness, and this in turn will benefit her baby by giving him a feeling of security. Which one of us does not feel safer and more comfortable if the person at the wheel or the helm is confident and self-assured of his control?

This does not mean that the mother has nothing to learn from outside. Doctors, nurses, other parents, books—all these can contribute to her knowledge and understanding. But what she must not forget is that babies, from the moment of their birth, differ constitutionally from one another, sometimes to a marked degree. This is especially noticeable in a hospital nursery among a large group of babies all less than two weeks old, the differences showing not only in their physical appearance and in their behaviour, but in the way and the amount they eat, sleep, and cry.

Whatever advice, therefore, a mother receives from other people and books with regard to the training of her own baby, she will be wise to remember that because of her intimacy and closeness to him she is the best person to look after his training and to interpret his special needs. With this fact in mind, she may accept, modify or decline the advice as she thinks best.

The training of her baby begins, just as his growth begins, in the first few days of life. The mother has to watch not only over her child's health, but also over the formation and development of his character. Her way of feeding or caring for her baby in these early days may seem of little importance to his future development;

but in reality she is teaching her baby something every time she does anything for him or to him. Much that he feels and experiences in infancy has an effect on his later life. It is for this reason that the routine matters of the earliest days are so important and are so thoroughly discussed in the following chapters.

Nursing

PHYSICAL ADVANTAGES OF A MOTHER'S MILK. The first important decision a mother has to make after the birth of her baby is whether or not to nurse him. Most thoughtful women will have considered this question seriously during the months of their pregnancy. The natural thing is for the mother to nurse her infant, and in the old days it was almost essential to the baby's survival. Today, with the perfecting of modern methods of artificial feeding, many women prefer not to nurse their babies.

Mother's milk is especially adapted to the human infant, as it contains food constituents in proportions much more suitable to the child than cow's milk. Also, for the first two or three days before the supply of real milk begins, the mother's breasts give forth a substance called colostrum, which is a predigested food closely akin to the blood serum from which the baby was fed before he was born. Colostrum makes no tax on the digestive organs, it has a laxative value for the child, and it also contains immune bodies which give him power to resist infection in his early months.

Despite the advantages of mother's milk, most babies nowadays do perfectly well on artificial feeding. Occasionally, however, an infant with whom nothing seems to be organically or functionally wrong will not thrive on a formula made up of diluted cow's milk, but seems to require mother's milk. All children's doctors have experienced in some cases the remarkable results obtained by giving mother's milk to sick babies whose own mothers cannot nurse them.

ADVANTAGES TO MOTHER. In addition to the pleasure of knowing that she herself is the source of the child's nourishment, a mother receives other real rewards from breast feeding. It is common knowledge that nursing hastens the contraction of the uterus to its normal size. The mother is spared the time-consuming labour of cleaning and sterilizing bottles, of making up mixtures, of warming the bottle and keeping it warm, and of seeing that the nipple does not clog or run too fast. She can give her whole attention to the feel and understanding of this small new person who nuzzles at her breast, and this adds to the close, loving intimacy between mother and child. The woman who has a sufficient milk supply and who is able to gratify her natural desire to feed her baby

at the breast is most fortunate, since without this experience she would not have known the full pleasures of maternity. Most women enjoy nursing their infants, and show proof of this by wishing to nurse later arrivals.

Unfortunately the milk supply of many modern women does not seem to last, and they often begin to run dry shortly after they return home from the hospital. This deficiency is usually attributed to the swift pace of modern life which makes for nervousness, disquiet, and over-activity. The more essential and fundamental characteristics of womanhood, the capacity for serenity and repose which are all too seldom cultivated nowadays, are those which are conducive to successful nursing. If a mother makes a point of leading a quiet life, if she keeps to the right diet, and if she does not attempt to do too many things outside the home, she is much more likely to nurse her baby successfully, and thus enjoy the relationship this brings about. Even if she knows that she cannot continue to nurse for very long, or even if, from the start, she has to supplement her own nursing with a bottle a day, it is still worth while for her to nurse her baby for a time.

The experience of a young woman in her late twenties makes clear the importance of this. This woman nursed her first baby for seven months but did not nurse her second at all on account of a part-time job which interfered with her baby's feeding hours. She looked back on her first child's infancy with great pleasure, intensified by her memory of those moments when her baby was at the breast, and deeply regretted the fact that she had been unable to share the same intimacy with her second child. Her relationship to him seemed, in consequence, much less close than the one to her first during the initial year; partly because her job had taken her away from him for half the day, but chiefly because she had been unable to nurse him herself.

ADVANTAGES TO THE INFANT. The baby, quite naturally, also takes pleasure in nursing. At first, the only way he can receive food is by sucking, and his very existence, therefore, depends on his ability to do this successfully. It is in and by the mouth that he lives and derives his keenest pleasures and at the same time gratifies his instinct to survive.

He is also sensitive to the touch and feel of things, and it is by means of this tactile sense that he learns most in his first year of life. The feel of things in the mouth, the bodily sensations of wet and dry, warm and cold, and of being picked up, held, and fondled, these are his initiations to the experience of living; and it is natural that the warm, close nuzzling of a baby to his mother's breast must contribute largely to his experience and pleasure. The

bottle-fed baby can and should get practically the same satisfactions if he is sufficiently loved and cuddled during and after the feeding period. Unfortunately he is apt to be fed more hastily. Often the busy mother, having made the mixture, warmed the bottle, and chosen the nipple, feels that her time is short and props the bottle up in his crib instead of holding him, or else hands him over to a nurse or maid. This either cuts short her time with him, or deprives him of the pleasure of being fondled by her.

That this pleasure is of importance not only to the baby's happiness but also to his health is shown by the practice in a certain baby's hospital. The nurses were told to fondle and carry around the babies who had entirely convalesced from their illness but shown no gain in weight. When bottle time came, the babies were to be picked up and held, instead of being propped up in their prams. In almost every case the effect of this personal attention was a gain in weight.

Either because it is more pleasurable or because it is a more instinctive way of eating, the breast-fed baby shows an awareness of what is expected of him at feeding times almost a month sooner than the bottle-fed baby, by making a search for the breast with sucking movements of the mouth as soon as he is put in a feeding position.

Whether she gives her baby the breast or the bottle, a mother should be serene and leisurely about the feeding, first making sure that he is in a comfortable position and in a quiet room, and then avoiding active conversation with others, as certain babies are easily distracted by noise and movement.

A word of warning should be given here. Just as an excess of any good thing may become harmful, so may an over-indulgence in the nursing relationship become unhealthy for the baby. Too many caresses, too much emotion lavished, may accustom a child to so much pleasure in being touched and handled that all future relationships may seem cold and unsatisfactory by comparison. A mother who over-indulges her child in this way is usually a woman whose emotional life is unsatisfactory.

The harmful effect of over-indulgence was noticeable in a family of five children in which all but the eldest were well-adjusted happy youngsters. The eldest had been conceived shortly after the marriage of her parents, when the mother who was of an affectionate nature found intimate relations with her husband exceedingly repulsive. In compensation she gave all her attention to the new-born daughter, and for the first twelve months lavished upon her all the love and caresses that ordinarily would have been shared with her husband. This excessive pampering stopped completely around

the end of the first year with the development of the mother's understanding and appreciation of her husband's love and the improvement in their intimate relationship.

The year-old baby, feeling herself much neglected (although actually she was now receiving the normal loving attention a child may expect from a mother), strove to gain her mother's attention by making inordinate demands upon her, and either sulking or giving way to a temper tantrum when these were not fulfilled. Later, when these methods failed to get her what she wanted and she had the added resentment of new sisters and brothers (whom she blamed for the lack of her mother's attention), she became too good, assuming a self-righteous attitude and telling tales about them. In adolescence she developed severe headaches.

The mother's relationship with the four other children, who arrived after the marital difficulties with her husband had been adjusted, was a normal, wholesome one, with the result that these children were happy in the family circle. Only the eldest, because of her mother's over-indulgence during that first year, showed an inability to take her place in the circle on a friendly, happy footing. This might have been prevented if the mother had understood that the cause of the baby's temper tantrums was her own abrupt change of treatment. She should have diminished gradually the amount of attention she gave her little girl, meanwhile helping her to develop other satisfactions as she acquired the capacity for new interests in people and objects.

Reasons for Not Nursing. If a mother has to supplement her own milk supply by more than one bottle a day, it is not wise for her to continue nursing her child. If she has a sufficient quantity but the nursing makes her feel continually tired and dragged down, it is wise for her to stop, as the infant will react badly to the nervousness and irritability her fatigue is apt to produce.

A woman may also find that the demands on her time and vitality made by her nursing her child are a privation and irritation to her husband. He may not have desired the baby quite as much or as soon as she, and he may have found the long prenatal period rather hard to bear. But her time and energy continue to be much taken by the nursing periods, if she has to be up early every morning and home by ten or eleven every evening. This places the husband under a further strain which is bound to be sensed by his wife and may create a tension in her which the child will feel. In such cases it is sensible for the mother to get her baby on a satisfactory mixture in the early weeks or months of life.

Women who take no pleasure in breast feeding and consider it a distasteful and disagreeable experience are advised to discontinue

nursing, as in such cases the baby is likely to derive more harm than good from it.

A woman who is worried about her husband's job or some other family problem, or is grieving over the death of some friend or relative, inevitably subjects her child to her overwrought state of mind, no matter how much she may try to conceal her feelings. It often happens that a baby whose mother has been nervously upset by bad news develops a stomach-ache. For this reason it is particularly important for a woman to control herself, keep from worrying, and try to achieve a real serenity of spirit during these nursing months. If she cannot succeed in this it is better for her to stop nursing entirely, though a temporary upset will do no real harm and is no reason for discontinuing nursing.

When a baby does better on a mixture than on breast feeding, it is usually attributed to the poor quality or insufficient quantity of the mother's milk. But this is not always the true reason. One young mother felt so strongly that it was her duty to nurse her baby, that when the doctor suggested that her child was not gaining as well as he might and that she had better wean him, she had her milk measured and analysed. The test showed that her milk was plentiful and good. Still the baby did not gain weight properly, did a lot of fussing, seemed nervous, and had colic frequently. The mother finally admitted to the doctor that she was extremely worried over a certain family situation, which made her nervous and irritable, and that she was always impatient and preoccupied while she nursed the baby. Her own mother, however, had told her that a really good mother would never consider putting a child on a mixture unless she were physically unable to nurse it. The doctor, finding no immediate cure for her worries, persuaded her to lay aside her principles and to wean her child to the bottle. Within a week he was quieter, was sleeping more, and gaining weight faster.

Feeding Habits

FREQUENCY OF FEEDS. In the old days a nursing mother usually put her infant to the breast whenever he cried, and let him nurse as long as he wished. In the last thirty years, much more attention has been given to proper feeding, and great emphasis has been put on regularity. It is more and more customary to start the normal baby on six feeds a day, at four-hour intervals, and, for the convenience of the mother, to reduce this to five feeds by the end of the second week, omitting the bottle given in the middle of the night.

There are many strong, lusty infants who can support these intervals without too much difficulty, but there are also those for

whom they cause real suffering and privation. A mother should consider the great differences between babies before adhering too strictly to any one schedule. Some infants seem able to consume much larger quantities of milk at a time than others. Some assimilate a greater proportion of the nutriment taken. One baby will sleep more soundly and for longer periods, while another will spit up frequently, so that the quantity of milk left to carry him over the interval has been diminished. Another, through no fault of his own, but because of the quality of his mother's milk, is not able to wait comfortably until his regular feeding time.

Lastly, there are some infants who, from birth, take a much greater pleasure than others in sucking and are impatient not so much because they are hungry, but because they want the satisfaction of the nipple in their mouths. Michael and Louis, twins of the same weight at birth, showed a marked contrast in their attitude toward sucking. Michael at ten days would turn his head at the least noise and let the nipple drop out of his mouth. But nothing could distract Louis, who kept a grip on the nipple like a suction pump. In a short time he had far outstripped Michael's weight on the same mixture and time table, although both continued to be healthy and happy.

HARM FROM LONG HUNGER CRYING. It is not surprising, in view of the fact that feeding is the earliest and most important satisfaction in a baby's life, that recent studies of both children and adults show that, when feeding times are both pleasurable and satisfying, they have a direct influence upon a child's emotional stability as well as his physical well-being. Not only should he obtain enough milk to satisfy his needs at each meal, but his meals should come at frequent enough intervals.

It is harmful and unnatural for an infant to cry with hunger for more than a brief period. It is also upsetting for the mother to listen to him cry. She has only to observe the facial expressions and violent bodily contortions an infant goes through during a screaming fit, the red-purple hue of his skin, the gasps and convulsive movements of his breathing, to realize what an exhausting ordeal he is undergoing. When a baby has worked himself up into a real paroxysm of crying, he is no longer responsive to any attempts to quiet him. Even if he receives the longed-for nipple, it is some minutes before he can achieve the rhythm of sucking, and when he does, he tends to choke because of the spasmodic gasping which has been induced. Because of this gasping, he also tends to swallow more air than usual, which adds to his discomfort.

Any mother will realize that a crying spell about which nothing is done makes her baby upset and angry, and so prevents him from

digesting his milk when it is finally offered to him. If she has confidence in her own judgment, she will do the thing her intuition prompts her to do and comfort him before his crying has reached an inconsolable stage. The same advice holds good for those more placid infants who give expression to their hunger by long periods of wakefulness and fussing with only intermittent and not very severe screaming. The privations this type of infant undergoes are no less harmful.

Naturally, it is the doctor who should be the first judge of the newborn baby's feeding intervals. In hospitals, however, if the baby is well, the busy doctor is likely to prescribe the usual routine. This means that the intervals of feeding are left to the hospital nurses who sometimes think more of the mother's future convenience than of the baby's howls of hunger, and try to accustom the baby to feeding intervals that put too great a tax on him. For this reason the mother should insist that her baby be given his night feeding as long as he demands it, even though this means that she will have to continue the nightly repast after she gets him home from the hospital. If she tries too soon to make her child go foodless through the night, she will only succeed in making both herself and her baby miserable. The mother who has to listen to her baby cry hard over a period of time becomes wrought up and anxious, and this affects her equanimity toward him. No matter how young her baby is, a mother should regard him as an individual, and his routine should be made as congenial as possible to him.

A small girl baby who weighed six pounds when she was born was put on the usual four-hourly feeds, but after the twelfth day at the hospital was taken off her 2 a.m. bottle at the mother's request and against the nurses' advice. The mother explained that this was necessary as she had other children and a busy household and it would be very difficult to give her the night bottle at home. Although the little girl seemed perfectly healthy, she had gained little weight at the hospital. She usually left a part of her bottle, and then fussed a good half-hour before the next. She also cried a lot in the early morning hours. As this continued after the baby had been taken home, the mother was finally persuaded to try a three-hour interval and the reintroduction of the night bottle for a short time; whereupon the little girl began to take all her feed, fussed much less, and showed daily improvement in weight. The mother was delighted, and admitted that her baby's wails throughout the night had been far more disturbing to her rest than the twenty minutes she spent feeding her.

IMPORTANCE OF SUFFICIENT SUCKING TIME. As a rule, a baby

takes about twenty minutes at the breast to satisfy his hunger. A bottle-fed baby should spend the same length of time over his bottle so that he may have the opportunity of doing a normal amount of sucking and thus satisfy one of his most fundamental instincts. Apart from giving pleasure, the sucking will help to develop his mouth and jaw. If the holes in the nipple are too large the baby takes his food too rapidly and without much sucking. Some babies are put on three meals a day very early, gain weight, and seem well nourished; but this may nevertheless be a deprivation, for if their sucking time is shortened in the early months, they may make up for it later on by sucking their thumbs, toys or blankets.

An interesting study has been made of finger-sucking habits in babies who were not thumb-suckers to begin with, and who were accustomed to being nursed or to being given a bottle for a period of twenty minutes every four hours. When the nursing or sucking time of these infants was reduced to ten minutes every four hours, it was found that within a day or two of the change the finger-sucking habit would begin. A further study of groups of infants on different time-tables revealed the fact that the percentage of finger-suckers was highest in the group fed every four hours, less in the group fed every three hours, and least in the group held to no time-table at all.

Sucking as an Introduction to the World. During the week following his birth the small infant wishes, above everything else, to suck and receive nourishment. His mother's nipple seem at first to be a part of his very self, and only gradually does he come to realize that the nipple or bottle is outside himself, that it belongs to the mother, and that it is she who produces it when he wants and needs it. This is his first awareness of her as a separate person, and his first gestures are usually directed to her instead of to the bottle or nipple. Soon he learns to associate her with more than just food. She makes and keeps him comfortable and gives him many pleasures. She holds and handles him in a gentle and loving way. She cuddles and fondles him, plays with him, talks to him. He learns to have confidence and trust that she will gratify his hunger before it becomes too sharp, that she will pick him up and help him when he has a pain, that she will reassure him if he is frightened by a loud noise, and that she will not leave him alone too long without love and attention.

Up to the age of three months or so a child no sooner feels a pang of hunger just before his feeding time than he starts to cry. But in another month or two, when he is beginning to feel sure of his mother's love and protection, he learns not to be anxious about

his mother's intentions toward him. Even though he is seized with hunger pangs, he can watch his mother preparing the feed and getting the bottle warmed without crying. This confidence in his mother teaches him to suffer slight delays and to keep his need in suspense for a while; and his new complaisance, in turn, enlarges his capacity to notice what is going on around him and to accept new and unexpected happenings. When slight changes are made in his feeding or other habits, he is likely to show signs of interest, but such changes will not make him afraid or angry, for he is gradually learning to adapt himself to changes in the outside world.

Many children who have been trained in a hospital, or who have been brought up on a strict, inflexible routine in an orphanage, lack these powers of adaptation. So do those who have had no loving and comfortable relationship to any person, or who have habitually been kept waiting too long for the satisfaction of their needs. Such children become dependent upon the particular ritual of feeding they are accustomed to, and any change in the procedure or in the articles used is likely to arouse fear or anger in them which they express by screaming.

FORCED FEEDING. Experts agree that nourishment should not be forced on an infant or child. The wisest course for the mother is to adopt a passive attitude when she offers her baby food and allow him to be the judge of the quantity he needs. Owing to inexperience, anxiety or a too-literal interpretation of the doctor's orders, mothers are nevertheless apt to urge and coax the child to eat. This is particularly true of bottle-fed babies who have a prescribed mixture. Instead of allowing her baby to go at his own pace, the mother tries to make him consume the arbitrary quantity ordered by the doctor.

Sometimes a woman worries because her baby's weight is not increasing as rapidly as the age-weight charts show is average; or maybe she has a friend whose infant of the same age is heavier, and she forgets to take into consideration the fact that her own child is smaller boned. Perhaps she herself was delicate when she was young, and has acquired a habit of being fearful about her own health which she carries over to her baby. If a mother is unhappy and feels worried or restless, she may unconsciously take out her irritation on her baby by being bossy and impatient with him about his food.

Occasionally a baby is disinclined to drink all of his bottle, and his mother, at first from anxiety but soon from irritation, starts insisting that he finish the prescribed quantity of milk. When the baby, who is probably just not hungry, makes it plain that he does

not want it, the mother begins to feel that she is being deliberately thwarted and is about to be defeated unless she can make the baby obey her. Victory in the matter becomes a matter of pride or at least determination. Everyone has heard some mother at this point say between clenched teeth, " I can't let a little tot like that get the better of me." By this time, of course, the question of whether the baby has had enough food or not has given place to a conflict of wills, the mother fighting for the upper hand, the baby violently resisting coercion. Whatever confidence a baby may have felt before in his mother's love for him and in her all-wise judgment is naturally upset by a scene of this sort. Had the mother, in the first place, used her common sense and remained calm, she would have realized that her baby was not refusing to finish his bottle out of sheer cussedness, but simply because he had drunk all he wanted.

If mothers were to realize that coaxing, urging or forcing a child to eat has the very opposite effect upon him to the one they desire, they would be more ready to allow the child to use his own judgment in the matter of foods. This is borne out by a study made at a nursery school of the early feeding history of three children who were particularly poor eaters. In each case the mother, although unwilling at first to admit it, finally confessed that she had insisted on her baby eating whatever she gave him. As a result of this daily conflict over meals the children showed little interest in their food.

The reasons for the mother's insistence were, however, different in each case. One woman had given up her career on the stage in order to have a child, principally on account of her husband's eagerness for one. When her girl was born, the mother centred her whole attention on her, hoping to realize her own ideal of perfection through her child. But trouble appeared when her six-month-old daughter showed signs of rejecting the role of obedience to her mother's plans for her, showing her defiance by refusing the food so painstakingly prepared for her. From then on there was a battle royal at each meal, and by the time she attended nursery school she had become a consistently poor eater.

The second mother had worried because her next-door neighbour's infant was gaining weight more rapidly than her own, and, believing that the family prestige as well as the child's health was at stake, she had tried to stuff him with more food than he could consume. The baby, naturally unaware of the competitive spirit, refused to take any part in this weight-gaining race and showed his disinterest by merely fiddling with the food she offered him.

The third mother had meant well toward her child but had not really thought the matter out. When she herself had been small her mother had forced her to eat everything on her plate, on pain of having the scraps presented to her again at the next meal. She had resented this intensely and it had caused frequent rows with her mother at mealtimes; but somehow or other the theory of it seemed to be right and she decided to follow it in the case of her own child. From the start, therefore, she had insisted that her baby take whatever food was offered him, honestly thinking that in this way she was making it easier for him later on to eat his meals without fuss or comment. This was exactly what did not happen and in a very short while each meal for the child had become a battleground of wills.

Temporary Loss of Appetite. There are many reasons why an infant's appetite may drop off for one feeding period or even for a day or two. Sometimes he gets a bubble of air in his stomach that he cannot get up, and this gives him an uncomfortable feeling of fullness. At other times he may feel tired from a crying spell or from a sleepless period earlier in the day. He may be coming down with a cold or some other ailment, or the heat may have put him off his appetite. When his preliminary stages of teething have begun without the mother realizing it, or when the doctor or mother has been over-estimating the amount of food that the child needs, he may want to eat less. At such times he naturally refuses his customary amount and the parent should not force him.

One anxious mother rang up her doctor because her five-month-old baby showed a complete loss of appetite for three days running. The doctor asked her how her own appetite had stood up under the heat wave and she answered in surprise that she had not been hungry at all. Three days later her baby cut a tooth, making his lack of interest in food even more understandable.

Results of Forcing a Child To Eat. Some children will submit to being stuffed far beyond their needs, but as a result they usually become stodgy and fat, and not only are less active but actually learn to walk later than other children of the same age. Others, when overfed, find it impossible to retain the food and are likely to start vomiting.

One little girl just under a year looked like a grotesque pincushion doll, she was so abnormally fat. The doctor was much puzzled and suggested that she be put under the care of one of his highly trained nurses for observation, instead of the rather old though highly recommended " nanny " who had taken charge of her up to then. The new nurse discovered that the old nurse had been surreptitiously feeding her each day a large amount of gruel

as well as the diet recommended by the doctor. In a few months under the new care the child was down to a normal weight.

More common than these two types are the children who show their resentment at having food forced upon them by raising the flag of rebellion. The greater the mother's determination to make her child eat, the more dogged is the child's obstinacy in refusing. At once there flares up a strong hostility on both sides. In a short while the child begins to balk at his food before he has taken as much as he needs, and the mother in despair tries stronger methods to coerce her child. By this time they have established a fighting relationship which develops in the child a pattern or manner of behaviour that may crop out later in many other situations. Eventually the struggle with the parent becomes more exciting and interesting than eating.

INTRODUCTION OF NEW FOOD. Nowadays foods other than milk are started very early in the baby's life.. If the infant is introduced gradually to these foods, which are new both as to taste and consistency, he does not usually object to them. Before even starting him on new foods, it is helpful to accustom him to the sensation of a spoon by feeding him milk from one. Some babies take a violent dislike to cod-liver oil. If this persists, it is better to change to one of the concentrates which supply the same vitamins but in a far pleasanter form. Orange juice should be given in a bottle, and well diluted with water until the baby has learned to enjoy its flavour. If necessary, cereal and vegetables may at first be diluted with milk.

Although it may take patience to introduce each new food in such a gradual manner, and self-control not to urge the baby beyond his own wishes, one is repaid later on by having a child with good eating habits. On the other hand, if the mother is too insistent with these first solid foods, she arouses the baby's obstinacy, and his rebellion often spreads to include the milk.

Perhaps if the mother more often remembered how only a short while ago babies rarely had any food supplementary to their bottle until weaning time, she would be less apt to worry and fret because her six-month-old baby had refused half of his cereal or part of his egg.

Coercion of any sort in feeding is bad. You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink. But even though you cannot *make* your baby eat, there are ways of persuading him to if you have the patience to try them. One young mother, whose two-year-old boy had given a great deal of trouble over his meals and looked upon any new food in his diet as if it were poisonous, happened to call upon a neighbour just as her ten-month-old baby was sitting

down to a large meal of assorted dishes. After watching him polish off the entire meal with obvious relish, she asked her neighbour if her child had always eaten as well as that. "I offered him spinach every day for three weeks," she replied, "before he was willing to try it. It was the same with other foods, too. I think the reason why he eats so well now is because I never forced even a mouthful on him."

THE URGE TO BITE. A baby's first teeth appear any time after the sixth month. Long before the teeth have come through, most of the things he carries to his mouth so as to get to know them better also get pressed between his gums as well as sucked. Biting, like sucking, becomes one of his pleasures and needs. His jaw demands this new exercise, and the gums, where the incoming teeth make the skin tight and drawn, find relief in the massage that biting affords them. Then, when the new teeth arrive, they need to be tried out and exercised. The baby bites his rattle, his toys, and, in the natural course of events, the nipple. If the nursing mother removes her breast from the baby whenever he bites her, without showing any annoyance or anger, he will slowly learn that she does not permit it, and that he loses the milk by so doing. Meanwhile, she can give him an outlet for his chewing needs by furnishing him with rubber rings and animals, which he will enjoy biting as much.

A baby who is slapped, jerked or spoken to crossly when he bites the nipple is baffled, frightened, and upset because his good mother, on whom he is so utterly dependent, has suddenly treated him roughly. It weakens his confidence and trust in her and hence in the outside world, for which she is his interpreter, guide, and protector.

Weaning

GRADUAL WEANING. Whatever age a baby may be when the weaning takes place, doctors agree that it should be done gradually. A mother, however, often makes the mistake of weaning her baby in a very short space of time because she does not understand the reasons why this may upset her child emotionally.

When a mother realizes that her baby's greatest pleasures and satisfactions as well as his needs for nourishment are centred around nursing, she will understand how disturbed he will be if the nursing suddenly stops. Since the act of nursing and the feeling of being loved are so inseparable in a baby's mind, his mother's abrupt refusal to nurse him becomes tantamount to a withdrawal of her love. Perhaps the most important factor in weaning is to make the child feel that though he is now given a

cup instead of the breast or bottle, he has just as much of his mother's loving attention and time, without which he feels uncertain and often frightened. This fear and uncertainty may, if it continues, colour his later attitudes towards those whom he wants to love. It may tend to make him wary of giving his trust and confidence to anyone for whom he is beginning to care, especially if later he experiences deprivations from his parents which are unexpected and not understood by him.

TIME AND METHOD OF WEANING. Even if a mother has a plentiful supply of milk, it is often wise for her to give her baby one supplementary bottle a day after he is one or two months old. This accustoms him both to the bottle and to cow's milk, and paves the way for a sudden change from breast to bottle in the event of his mother being ill or unavoidably away. This practice not only makes nursing less taxing for the mother, but also allows the baby to get used to drinking small quantities from a bottle or a cup.

Some mothers nurse their babies for the first few months, then gradually exchange breast feeding for a bottle until it is time to wean them. The weaning, whether it is done directly from breast to cup or from bottle to cup, should take place some time in the last quarter of the first year, depending on the condition of the child and on the season. If a baby is healthy and happy and a good eater, he may be ready sooner. If he is slow in developing, if he is a poor feeder, if he has been handicapped by illness, or if he is either an unhappy child or one who seems to crave a great deal of attention, he is probably not ready for it until later. Nor is it considered advisable if it can be avoided to wean a baby in hot weather as he is more likely to be upset then, especially if he is teething.

When doctor and mother judge the child ready to be weaned, the mother should proceed slowly, with patience and gentleness. Each week she may eliminate one breast or bottle feeding, offering the baby his milk in a cup at that feeding. It is helpful during this period to avoid making either a change of nurse or a change of domicile, since the baby is already being taxed by the change in his feeding routine, and a strange nurse or strange surroundings would be something added to get accustomed to.

Sometimes, although the mother handles the weaning situation with patient understanding, the child objects strenuously. This may be taken as a sign that he is not yet ready to be weaned, and the process may be delayed. On the other hand, it may be that the mother has given too much of her attention and emotion to nursing, and has over-indulged him. In that case she should not start correcting her mistakes until well after the weaning period.

Above all, weaning depends on the past and present relationship between mother and baby. If the child has previously learned to feel confidence and trust in his mother, and if he is introduced slowly and gently to these new methods, he will usually be able to adjust himself to the new way of eating without undue anxiety or unhappiness. When he does, he will have successfully taken his first important step in growing up.

When the weaning has been introduced too suddenly or too harshly, the experience may be harmful to the child and seriously affect the later development of his character. At a large Hospital, where a group of problem children was being studied, the mothers were questioned about the methods they had used in weaning their babies. Some of the mothers, whose babies showed a reluctance to be weaned, had told them that the bottle had been lost or broken, hoping in this way to convince them of the necessity of changing over from the bottle to the cup. Others had gone even further and had subjected their babies to the unnecessary and unhappy experience of seeing their bottles deliberately smashed in front of them. When it is recalled that the bottle and the person who provides it are the centre of the baby's universe and stand in his eyes for all that is pleasurable, satisfying, and needful, some idea may be formed of the shock it must be to a baby to see the bottle suddenly destroyed.

Too Prolonged Nursing. Some mothers find the nursing period so convenient and so pleasurable that they continue it as long as eighteen months or two years. Others prolong it in the mistaken belief that they cannot become pregnant again while nursing. Keeping a child at the breast after he is over nine months or at most a year old is bad for him because it keeps him in an emotionally infantile state, and is likely to make him over-dependent on his mother.

Thumb-sucking. Babies vary as to their sucking needs. Some infants become determined thumb-suckers even though they are nursed a long time and are obviously well fed, while others, although neglected and undernourished, do not suck their thumbs.

Since sucking is apparently an instinct, it seems probable that the thumb-sucking baby has an inborn craving for more than average sucking. It seems wise, therefore, to let him indulge this need as much as possible by leaving him on the breast or bottle a little longer.

A baby who sucks his thumb is most likely to do it when he is hungry, tired, idle or unhappy. Obviously, then, he finds comfort and a substitute satisfaction in sucking. Adults who smoke often do so for similar reasons. If the child is given different toys to keep

him busy, if he is not left unheeded too long in his pram or play-pen, and if he is kept well fed and comforted when unhappy, the habit will diminish noticeably.

Measures taken to stop the thumb-sucking habit, even when they accomplish their ends, which they rarely do, are not recommended. If the mother has no emotional reaction to thumb-sucking and pays no attention to it, the habit will gradually disappear. Scolding and the painting of the fingers with bitter-tasting liquids are not advisable. They merely call the child's attention to a habit which before was mainly unconscious, and arouse in him an obstinacy and rebelliousness because one of his strongest instincts has been thwarted by the harsh measures of his mother. He is irritated and he irritates, and his relation to his mother or nurse tends to be a fighting one. Many dentists agree that the habit does little or no harm to the jaw, and since taking repressive measures is no solution anyway, it seems best for the mother to wait patiently for the child to outgrow it.

CHAPTER III

THE INFANT'S TRAINING AND ENVIRONMENT

Bowel Training—Genital and Related Questions—Sleep—Activities—Companionship—Authority—Fears and Anxieties—Family Relations.

Bowel Training

THERE is no doubt that babies subjected to an intensive campaign can usually be trained to be clean at one month and dry almost by their first birthday. Zealous mothers and nurses often take a competitive pride in accomplishing this training as early as possible, not realizing that it is often harmful to the child, and will in the long run save little in time or convenience.

Modern doctors and psychologists agree that both physically and emotionally bowel and bladder training is too much of a strain for a baby in the early months. Having a bowel movement at a given time and place requires of the still weak rectal muscles a too difficult task in control and co-ordination. Control of the bladder muscles is also too difficult. Normally, evacuation of the bowels is a pleasant sensation, as is the voiding of a full bladder. They should remain so. The infant enjoys both the sensation of eliminating and his power of doing so when he feels like it, and he should not be deprived of this satisfaction too young.

If instead of performing when he feels like it, a baby is held on a pot at frequent intervals during the day in a position which is probably uncomfortable for his weak neck and back, and if he is also aroused several times in the night, he will associate evacuation and urination with feelings of discomfort and compulsion. Often he will resent this excessive interference and will become defiant. He may also develop a feeling of anxiety because he lacks the ability to perform on request, and a dread of the mother's disapproval when he has unwittingly soiled himself. Whether the baby is defiant or anxious, a tension is bound to result between mother and child which is bad for both. Moreover, in later years, the child who has been trained very early may have a relapse from the clean ways imposed on him so young, or he may develop other excretory problems, such as constipation or bed-wetting.

AGE FOR TRAINING. It is considered preferable to delay such training until a baby is old enough to begin making his wants known by various signs—such as putting his hands to his genitals,

or grunting, or wriggling, or becoming flushed, or showing a slight tension in the legs. He may begin to indicate his needs as early as his eighth month, although it is probable that he will not do so until twelve to sixteen months have gone by. If a mother wants to start training her baby to be clean, she can do so safely at eight months, for by that time his muscles are strong enough to stand the strain that control requires. As self-control and co-operation on the baby's part normally do not come till after he is over a year old, and as training can be accomplished more quickly and easily then, this is a better time to start, and discussion of the methods of training will be taken up in the next chapter.

THE DIAPER PROBLEM. Dirty diapers are a great bane to mothers, particularly in flats where there is little room for either washing or drying them properly. It is often in an attempt to lessen this daily nuisance that mothers start training their babies earlier than they would otherwise. Nowadays there are ways of simplifying this problem. The use of disposable paper napkins inside the diapers, at the times when the baby's bowels are in the habit of moving, saves the mother much of the unpleasantness of diaper-washing. In many American and a few British cities there are baby laundry services which supply sterile diapers and carry off the dirty ones, at a fairly small cost. If this service is not available, it is possible to get a large tin that shuts tightly and a mild disinfectant that neutralizes the odour, so that one may avoid daily washing. Another saving is the use of small rubber sheets and draw-sheets, instead of large ones, in the lower half of the crib.

Genital and Related Questions

A BABY'S CURIOSITY ABOUT HIS BODY. During the first year of his life a baby explores everything within his reach. First he discovers that his hand is his to control and play with. He waves it before his eyes, opens and closes it, carries it to his mouth, and sucks it. Later he discovers his feet. He kicks and waves them in the air, watching them come and go with surprised interest, and eventually he carries them also to his mouth. In the same way his hair, his ears, his nose, and his genitals attract his attention and his curiosity at one time or another. As the genital regions are sensitive, he derives a passing pleasure in touching and rubbing them. In idle moments he may repeat this behaviour, which is known as masturbation. Parents should remember that this is a natural, universal, and completely harmless action which should receive absolutely no attention, since the baby's curiosity will soon be directed elsewhere. It is only when an adult begins scolding, interfering, and correcting that harm may be done by focusing the

baby's attention on what was first an unconscious action on his part, and by arousing his antagonism or his fear of punishment.

Doctors in baby clinics report that as the mothers undress their children for examination, most of the babies reach down and grab their genitals in a playful way. The more ignorant mothers usually slap the child's hands away and express their mortification to the doctor by scolding the baby. They do not realize that this conduct on their part is merely emphasizing this action in the child's mind.

ACCIDENTAL OVERSTIMULATION. At times a mother, by overzealous and vigorous cleaning of her child's genitals, may overstimulate these regions and make him unduly aware of them. At other times, acidity of the urine or tight, rough diapers may irritate these parts, causing him to handle himself. Naturally this kind of stimulation and irritation should be avoided.

The chief point to be stressed is that a baby's masturbation is both natural and harmless. If nothing is done or said by way of reproof, the practice is not likely to become a prolonged habit. His pleasure in it is momentary and at this age will cease when his curiosity is turned to some new object or toy. The masturbatory habits of the older child are discussed in subsequent chapters.

Sleep

GOOD SLEEPING HABITS. Although most babies who are well spend the better part of their first few months in sleep, great differences, both in length and soundness of sleep, can be noticed at a very early age.

The fact that one child sleeps less than another is nothing to worry about provided that each child gets as much sleep as he needs. Sometimes children in the same family, like a certain pair of twins named Peter and Mary, show from the moment of birth a marked difference in their sleeping habits. Peter slept almost continuously during the first months and was not easily disturbed, while Mary slept intermittently and the slightest noise awakened her. This continued throughout their childhood and adult lives. Peter as a grown man was a very sound sleeper and distinguished himself once by sleeping through an earthquake, but Mary always remained a light sleeper. Both of them, however, were healthy, active persons and the difference in their sleeping habits seemed not to affect them.

Whether a child is a good or an indifferent sleeper, a mother can do much to help him acquire good sleeping habits. The most important thing is a regular, well-ordered life. A small baby who is used to periodic feeding intervals will soon learn to sleep to

within a few minutes of his nursing or bottle time if he feels calm, and if there is no undue excitement around him.

Up to the fourth month a baby sleeps approximately twenty hours a day, but from then on his waking time grows longer and it becomes important to see that he has regular napping periods. Although this may seem at first like a useless, additional bother to the busy mother, she will, as soon as regular habits are established, be grateful for these periods of free time.

AIDS TO QUIET SLEEP. If a baby goes to bed in a happy frame of mind, he is much more likely to fall asleep easily and sleep soundly. The mother who picks her baby up quickly from his play-pen and puts him in his crib—whether it is for a nap or for the night—is inviting a fuss. Since all babies over six months old occasionally object to being put to bed, mothers should be particularly careful not to be abrupt in the manner in which they lay their babies down. Suddenness, impatience or a show of force is something not understood by a baby. If the bed-going experience is made disagreeable to him, he will struggle against his mother's wishes and will form the habit of objecting to going to bed. If, instead, the mother puts the baby to bed unhurriedly, with a little loving and a little encouragement, he will usually settle down happily.

Often, when a baby has been tucked up and kissed good night, he will start crying as soon as he has been left alone. Many mothers and nurses think that in a case like this the baby should "cry it out"—that this will teach him the uselessness of such behaviour. Frequently, however, the baby cries because he is uncomfortable in some way. He may have spat up a sour bubble, he may have had a gas pain, the cover may have slipped over his face, or he may have twisted himself into an uncomfortable position. The sensible mother will return to his crib, after he has cried for a few minutes, to see what the trouble is, and will try to make him more comfortable. If nothing seems to be wrong, she should soothe and then leave him.

If the mother becomes convinced that the baby is crying only because he wants to be picked up, she should neither leave him to cry for a long period of time nor get him out of bed and postpone his bedtime. Her best course is to return to his bedside in ten or fifteen minutes, try to console him and stop his crying, even if this means picking him up, and then lay him down again and leave him for a slightly longer period. At first the baby may cry each time he is laid down, but after this has happened a few times he becomes tired and usually goes to sleep. If this procedure is continued, with longer intervals between return visits, the baby

learns over a period of days or weeks that after his mother has put him to bed she cannot be persuaded to pick him up again for purposes of play and fun, and he becomes reconciled to the routine. If, on the other hand, the mother does not return to her baby, he may cry for as long as an hour, becoming hysterical and frantic in the process. This is bad for him both physically and emotionally: physically, because the excitement and exertion overtire him, and emotionally, because it destroys his confidence in his mother's love and protection.

Some babies have an annoying habit of waking very early in the morning and crying to get up. They are usually uncomfortable because they are wet, and if they are changed they will frequently go back to sleep. If they do not, then a toy to play with or a drink of orange juice will quiet them, and the mother can go back to bed. In the winter time, when they wake early, they should be slipped into a warm wrapper, as they are likely to become at least partially uncovered when awake.

As babies grow older, they need a decreasing amount of sleep, and some need less sleep than others. Hence the mother should reduce the number of hours she puts her baby down to sleep and be guided both by his age and his apparent needs. If she forgets to do this she is quite likely to make her child rest longer than he needs or wishes. The baby resents this and starts resisting whenever he is put to bed.

Naturally a quiet room is helpful in encouraging slumber. Regular outdoor sounds made by buses, trams and trains seldom disturb a child, and he gets used to the sound of ordinary voices; but loud voices, clattering dishes, the radio, or the banging of doors and unusual noises are likely to prevent him from sleeping or to awaken him. A darkened room also helps a child to fall asleep. Particularly in the early morning and at nap time a baby is apt to be wakeful if the room is too bright.

Quite often a baby who has learned to crawl and pull himself up to the side of his cot will not remain lying down after he is put to bed, but manages to get out from under the covers, no matter how tightly he has been tucked or pinned in. The danger here is not the activity but the fact that he may catch cold. A soft tape sleeping harness usually takes care of this without making the baby feel that he is too harshly restricted.

Activities

SCOPE OF ACTIVITIES. A baby four months old has already begun to emerge from his condition of utter physical helplessness and of complete unawareness of the world outside himself At

this age he can usually lift his head when prone, roll from his side to his back, and make himself light when his mother stoops to lift him. He can push with his feet against the floor, and when held, can hold his own head erect. He plays with his hands and carries them to his mouth. He makes various noises, and will coo, smile, and laugh aloud. He is also beginning to take an interest in what is going on around him, reacting to different noises and turning his head to a voice. A "funny face" or a chirrup amuses him and any large or shiny object attracts his attention.

By the time a baby is nine months old he has progressed much further. By that time he can roll right over from his back to his stomach and can sit up with a little support. Sometimes he can crawl and pull himself up, and his feet make stepping movements when the person carrying him allows them to touch the floor. He now uses his hands to reach, grasp, crumble, bang, and splash. Every object within his reach he wants to handle, suck, and bite, and he will play actively with things that move or make a noise or can be fitted into each other.

At this age a baby also utters many syllables and frequently laughs at sights and sounds. He expresses recognition of familiar persons and shows consciousness of strangers. He takes a real delight in people who make funny faces for him and who entertain him with amusing tricks and rhymes. He also tries to imitate adult actions in simple ways. Most of his waking time is devoted to experimental activities, trying out his muscles, handling new objects, and exploring his vocal range.

THOUGHTS AND PHANTASIES. We know that a baby has certain simple thoughts. When, at six months, he makes sucking movements as his mother starts to unbutton her dress at about his nursing time, it can be safely assumed that he has associated eating with this action of hers. Likewise, at eleven months, if he always tries to look out of the window when he hears the sound of a car at the door, but not when he hears other noises from outside, we may be fairly certain that he has some mental image of "car" in his mind.

We naturally assume that when a ten-month-old baby plays with a cup, a spoon, and a pan, arranging them in various ways with a rapt expression over a period of minutes, certain images or ideas are being formed in his mind as an accompaniment to his play. However, until the second year we have only occasional glimpses into the thoughts and phantasies that accompany a child's activities.

APPROPRIATE FURNITURE, CLOTHES, AND TOYS. Fortunately, a baby's clothes, furniture, and toys are today designed to help him in his early efforts and experiments.

By the time he is six or eight months old, a baby should wear dresses or rompers that wash easily and do not hinder his movements. In winter time, long stockings pinned to the diapers, or bootees, are advisable to protect him from draughty floors. Two-piece woollies which unbutton at the waist are also practical and easy.

By this age a baby should also have a cot with a hard mattress where he can sleep safely and comfortably; and he will need a play-pen to roll and crawl in. After he has reached the crawling stage, he requires more space for exercise, and if he can be let free in a room, no matter how small, in which there are no lamps that can be tipped over and from which the breakables have been removed, his first crawling efforts will not be punctuated with adult "don'ts."

A baby less than a year old should have toys that can be washed easily, since they will surely find their way into his mouth. Toys from which the paint can be chewed should be avoided, as certain kinds of paint cause lead poisoning. Rubber animals, composition beads, rattles, wooden spoons, spools, saucepans of assorted sizes, small pails, stones too large to swallow, small bells, a large ball, and some celluloid animal that will float in his bath are all appropriate. These he can manipulate in every possible way, sucking and biting them to his heart's content. Two or three toys are all a child needs at any one time to keep him entertained. The others should be kept out of sight in reserve for the moment when he begins to show boredom with those he has. A mother will find it useful to tie the baby's favourite toys on a long string to his cot or pram so that when he drops or throws them to the floor, he will soon learn to haul them up again instead of crying to her to retrieve them.

A baby comfortably dressed, with free space to play in, and materials with which to experiment, will usually busy himself happily alone for long periods of time.

Companionship

ADULT COMPANIONSHIP. There is no reason why a busy mother should not keep her baby in the same room with her as she goes about her tasks. In this way the baby is not deprived of companionship and is able to watch and listen to her various activities without receiving too much attention.

One sometimes hears the view that babies should be accustomed to solitude at an early age with a view to developing their independence and imagination. But most babies who are subjected to long periods of enforced solitude are inclined to be backward and unresponsive. They often start sucking their thumbs, or, if they are old enough to stand, they may develop the habit of rocking back and forth monotonously, out of boredom.

The other extreme is equally bad. The baby who is continually played with and talked to becomes spoiled and demanding. A baby develops best when he has people around him from whom he obtains a feeling of companionship but from whom he does not receive too much attention.

WHAT BROTHERS AND SISTERS CONTRIBUTE. While a baby is still less than a year old, he is not likely to take a great deal of interest in his brothers or sisters since they do not contribute much directly to his comfort and entertainment, nor he to theirs. Indirectly, however, their presence is valuable. The fact that a mother has borne and reared other children gives her much more confidence in her ability to look after her youngest child wisely and successfully. This greater assurance on her part benefits the newborn by giving him a greater feeling of security. (The effect of the youngest child on the older children is discussed in Chapters V and IX.)

Authority

MIDDLE COURSE BETWEEN INDULGING AND OVERDISCIPLINING CHILD. Of necessity parents begin to think about problems of discipline and wonder how to avoid spoiling their child when he is still quite young, sometimes before he is even a year old. For this reason it is wise for them to consider the course they are going to follow and examine the consequences of being either too indulgent or too strict.

First let us observe the results brought about by parents who over-indulge their children and give them reason to think that they can have or do anything they want. These children soon discover that if they cry or beg for some pleasure long enough it will be granted them, whether their wish is reasonable or not. As these children grow older they expect the same kind of indulgent treatment both from their teachers and their playmates, and later, from their friends and associates. When they do not receive it they are disappointed and find it difficult to make satisfactory adjustments to people and to life. What is more, young children who have been spoiled and indulged feel deeply frustrated when they are denied something, because getting what they want has become a symbol of being loved. If they are balked in their wishes they act in an aggressive fashion and this in turn gives them a sense of guilt and wrong doing.

The factors that lead parents to spoil their children are several. Sometimes the parents themselves have been spoiled in their own youth, and can conceive of no other way of bringing up a child. They feel that they do not love their children properly if they do

not give them everything they ask for. Other parents, seeking to avoid a repetition of their own overdisciplined childhood, go to the opposite extreme with their offspring and indulge them excessively. There are also parents who, because they neither want nor care for their child very much, try to make up to him for their lack of love by giving him everything he wishes or asks for. Others are so beguiled by their child or children that they dislike to refuse even the slightest wish. In one family, for instance, a large-boned, rather homely woman had an only daughter, a pretty, feminine little girl. This child represented the kind of person the mother had wanted to be but which, because of her shyness, awkwardness and physical appearance, she had never succeeded in becoming. For these reasons the mother found the child so completely beguiling that it was virtually impossible for her to do anything but admire and give in to the little girl's slightest whim.

At the other extreme are the parents who overdiscipline their children. They reason that a young child, like a puppy, should be trained to obey from a very early age or he will be spoiled ; and they demand prompt, unquestioning obedience of their children, forgetting that small boys and girls are emotionally and mentally just a trifle more complex than puppies. When parents have this attitude, one of two things is likely to occur. If the child is strong-willed and spirited he may become rebellious, and will be defiant of the rules laid down at home, and later of those at school. In fact this impulse to defy people placed in a position of authority over him is likely to persist well into adulthood. If, instead, the child is timid, he learns to conform, partly through fear, and partly, because he thinks that by conforming he is more likely to get what he wants. Everyone has seen at one time or another the good little boy who is well behaved and does everything that he is asked to do or that is expected of him. This kind of child is easy to manage and may be pleasant to have around the home, but there is little doubt that his continual acceptance of the authority of others eventually serves to diminish his own latent qualities of initiative and leadership, reduces his own independence of thought and action, and stores up in him a well of unconscious resentment toward his parents.

There is another possible harm which may come from too great an emphasis on obedience and good behaviour. Some children who have an overdeveloped conscience may suffer an undue amount of anxiety when they transgress the rules, and this often finds expression in nightmares, bed-wetting, nail-biting or stuttering. Other children may form the habit of punishing themselves for their infringements of good behaviour. Often a

child who has done something forbidden which has remained undiscovered will openly commit some other misdeed just to incur a punishment.

Perhaps most confusing of all for the child are the parents who alternate between indulgence and discipline. Such parents usually start by indulging their child. When he has become spoiled and demanding the parents become irritated, lay down strict rules of behaviour and devise punishments if these rules are not kept. After one or two rather drastic punishments have been administered they begin to feel uncomfortable about being so stern and begin once more to indulge the child. Naturally this kind of unthinking behaviour on their part serves to confuse the child thoroughly and makes him feel he is being treated unfairly.

In order to avoid over-indulging or overdisciplining their children, parents may keep certain general principles in mind which will be helpful to them in steering a middle course. If they remember to be reasonable in their demands, the child, even though he is too young to understand explanations, will usually feel the reasonableness of what he is being asked to do by the attitude, the tone of voice, and the facial expressions of those caring for him. Mothers and fathers must also agree on a common course of action in trying to establish discipline in the home. Nothing is more confusing to the child than to receive conflicting orders from his parents. If a mother says to her four-year-old son, " It is bad ever to fight, good little boys don't fight," and his father tells him, " Don't be scared of that boy, stick up for your rights and fight," the poor child doesn't know what to do.

Again, parents should try to be fairly consistent in what they ask. Often they are inconsistent through thoughtlessness, making demands one day which they forget the next. At other times, they seem inconsistent to their children because, having made hard-and-fast rules, they themselves make exceptions to them. By remembering that rules are important only for what they accomplish, and by not making them too rigid, this difficulty can be avoided. The mother who insists one day that her child must eat all of his first course before he may have his dessert, and the next day gives him his dessert while there is still considerable food on his plate, makes him feel she is being very arbitrary. Perhaps her reasons are excellent. It may be that the meat is tough on the second day, or that she considers it more important for him to eat his fruit than his potato, yet these are reasons he cannot understand. If she gives it thought it is usually easy for a mother to avoid such situations. In this case she might avoid a strict ruling about finishing the first course before receiving the last, or, if she has made

this a rule, she can serve him the food he likes less well, or that is less nourishing, in smaller portions.

Even when parents are in accord about the way in which to handle their children, even when they are reasonable and consistent in the things they ask and do, they are bound to have occasional difficulties. All children have moments when they wish to exercise their power and test the adult's strength. At such moments they refuse to do things that are right and reasonable, such as dressing, or eating, or washing, or going to bed. At other times they try hold-up methods to have or do something they wish.

Until Laura was three, for instance, she had always gone to bed with great docility. One afternoon she saw a small boy successfully defy his mother at a party, and that evening she decided to see how far she could go with her own mother. After being put to bed, she called her mother back endlessly, first begging for another kiss, then asking to be tucked in again, then saying that she wanted to tell her something important, and so on and on. Since her brother shared the same room with her and was kept awake by all her calling, her mother tried to quiet her by humouring her. The next night and the next and the next Laura did the same thing. Finally her mother found it necessary to change her to another bedroom. "Now," she told her, "after I have given you everything you need, I shan't come back." Laura tried crying and calling for a few evenings, but finding her mother was adamant about not returning, she soon settled down to quiet habits.

Another child, a girl of five, tried to use threats to have her way. She had been given a small typewriter as a present. She was so entranced by it that she was unwilling to stop using it long enough to take her customary bath before supper-time. "If you don't have your bath now, will you have it after supper instead of playing with your typewriter?" the mother asked her. "Yes," she agreed. After supper the girl, forgetting her mother's words, ran to fetch her typewriter. "I have put it away," her mother said; "there is no longer time to use it." The girl, who had a quick temper, glared grimly at her mother and stamped her foot. "If you don't give me my typewriter this minute," she said, "I'll smash your china dog," and she reached for a favourite ornament on her mother's table. Her mother laughed. "Don't you laugh," she said, and repeated her threat. "But Jane, you agreed," her mother reminded her, "and look how you need to wash. Your hands are covered with ink from the typewriter ribbon." Jane looked at her mother's smiling but firm countenance; she looked at her own ink-stained hands; then she went to the bathroom with a rather sheepish expression on her face.

Parents have need for firmness at such times. It is not good for a child to think he can get his way by blackmail, whether his blackmail takes the form of tears, tempers, destructive acts, or feigned ailments. Parents may avoid the majority of such clashes of will by making as few rules as possible and by being willing to compromise on minor issues when it helps the child to save his face. When the issue is important they must stand their ground and refuse to be bullied by the younger members of the household.

ARE BABIES UNDER SIX MONTHS LIKELY TO BECOME SPOILED? When, for no apparent reason, her baby starts crying more than usual, a mother often wonders if he is already showing signs of becoming spoiled. She remembers all sorts of stories about very young children who have been indulged by their doting parents until they have become insufferable. She asks herself why her baby is crying so much between feeding times. Is he uncomfortable in some way, or has she been paying too much attention to him of late? At this early age when a baby's ability to express his needs, his discomforts, and his fears is so limited, a mother should give him the benefit of the doubt when he cries, and comfort him, instead of worrying about spoiling him, before he has cried either hard or long.

ARE BABIES FROM SIX MONTHS TO A YEAR LIKELY TO BECOME SPOILED? As a baby grows older, he naturally becomes stronger and more active, he spends more of his hours awake, and he interests himself in a greater variety of things. With these changes comes an increasing desire for adult attention; more and more of the time he wants grown-ups to cuddle him, play with him, talk to him, laugh with him, and do his bidding. At the same time he experiences many new pleasures; he learns to crawl, to stand, and to manipulate things; he also finds a variety of objects such as rattles and saucepans that have different feels, make a variety of noises, and offer him a wide range of entertainments.

With these discoveries comes another very important one: he finds that by gestures, sounds, and cries, he can persuade adults to carry out his wishes up to a certain point. From an early age he has found that if he is hungry or uncomfortable and cries long and loudly enough, his mother will come to him and give him comfort. After he is six months old he becomes more consciously aware of his power and gradually ascertains to what degree he can exert his power and his will over parents and others. If he discovers that by crying loud enough and long enough he can always get anything he wants, he will do so, and this will become a habit which will be more and more difficult for him to overcome. Such a child has already begun to be spoiled.

WAYS AND MEANS OF TRAINING WITHOUT SPOILING. By the time a child is six months old parents can usually differentiate between various kinds of crying, and can judge when and in what ways the child's crying should be heeded. When a baby is crying from an acute pain, he needs the comforting arms of his mother, for if he is left to bear his aches alone he becomes frightened, and this increases his misery. If the distress is real the wails continue even after he has been picked up. When a baby cries because he has been frightened by some loud noise or sudden awakening, it is obviously important that he should be reassured as quickly as possible, and he will usually stop crying quite soon after he has been picked up. When a baby cries because of some minor discomfort, he should also have the sympathetic help of an adult. When he is tired, hot or hungry, he needs attention. His crying at such times is likely to be less lusty, more fretful, querulous, and intermittent. On such occasions he can usually be comforted quite easily, and will welcome almost any distraction, such as a change of position, or a new toy.

Other kinds of crying come from thwarted wishes. The child who has been put in his pen for his outdoor hour sees his mother pass by and cries for her because he would like to be picked up and played with. The child who has to stop crawling because it is time for lunch cries when his mother picks him up. The child who is busily tearing all the wool out of the hole in the bedspread yells when he is interrupted in this delightful occupation. In dealing with their child at such moments parents need to remember several things. The child at this age cannot understand the reasons for things, but he can become accustomed to a regular routine and will learn to know what to expect. If a mother, therefore, wishes to accustom her youngster to spend an hour in the play-pen out of doors alone every morning, it is wise for her to put him there at about the same hour, and refuse to pick him up during that time, even if her cries heartily in protest. What she may do to reconcile him to this new situation, however, is to divert him by playing with him for short intervals during this period, intervals which as the days pass may be made shorter and less frequent. She may also help him to divert himself by giving him a variety of objects to play with.

Parents must also remember that the very young child wants what he wants with great intensity and straight away. Living in the present, as he does, he cannot realize, as an older child can, that he will get the thing he wants later on. Nor is it easy for him to switch to some other interest as an adult can. A hungry boy of ten may comfort himself by thinking of the meal he will get in

an hour's time. A woman who is longing to go to the movies and for some reason has to stay at home may find something else like the radio or a book to amuse her. But the baby who is hungry cannot console himself by looking forward to a feed an hour hence. Nor is it easy for him to find another pleasure when his morning crawl is suddenly cut short. However, if the mother is gentle in her firmness, and diverts his attention by some other occupation, she will have achieved her purpose without arousing her baby's antagonism. Thus a reasonable firmness combined with encouragement starts the training right, makes the necessary routines enjoyable or acceptable, and avoids spoiling.

REASONS WHY CERTAIN BABIES BECOME SPOILED. There are several reasons why certain babies demand more attention than others and show signs of being spoiled. An unusual amount of attention is often craved by a baby who, because of some physical trouble, is undernourished, or who has suffered a long illness. In such cases it is good for him to have all the loving reassurance his parents are able to bestow on him, and certain allowances can be made for his querulousness, but he should not be permitted to be a little tyrant because of his physical shortcomings. In the same way, the baby who does not get enough love and the feeling of security that goes with it tends to be insistent in his demands that notice be taken of him. Babies of this kind are most often found in hospitals and orphan asylums.

Nearly every baby goes through a phase of expecting undue attention immediately following his recovery from an illness. This is very natural. For some days or weeks the mother has danced attendance on him and his every wish has been gratified. Doubtless, too, he has been aware of his mother's anxiety about him and of the disorganization in the household caused by his need for different foods, different meal-times, and complete quiet. When he is better and the old routines are re-established, he is bound to feel neglected by comparison with the life he has been enjoying and resents being no longer able to command as much attention. The sensible mother will restore the necessary routines gradually and make allowances for her baby's assertiveness at such times.

Sometimes a fond grandmother or aunt pays a long visit and wins a ready popularity with the baby by playing with him a great deal and doing his bidding. Perhaps a temporary nurse has taken the line of least resistance and kept him quiet by always letting him have his own way. When, after some such an experience, an attempt is made to get him back to his original routine, the baby fusses and complains. If the mother's treatment of him on these

occasions is consistently firm and encouraging, and at the same time comforting and persuasive, she need not worry about her child becoming spoiled.

Fears and Anxieties

How Babies Acquire Fear. A baby is born with only two instinctive fears: the sensation of falling and the sound of loud noises. Because of these two fears, parents should protect the baby from loud noises such as the slamming of doors, and they should avoid the kind of playful handling which includes tossing him in the air. All other fears are acquired during the process of growing up. A baby may be accidentally submerged in his bath and become frightened of water, or he may be badly scratched by a cat and become afraid of cats or even of all furry animals. He may also acquire the fears of the adults taking care of him. If his mother has a fear of thunder it is probable that her child will sense her fear and also become frightened by it. These problems are discussed at length in Chapter V.

Family Relations

Father and Child. Both the father and the mother usually take great pride and pleasure in their new baby. The father, however, is quite likely during the first year not to be very demonstrative in his affection for the baby and spends little time in his company. This often disappoints the young wife. "David seems so indifferent to Ruth," one young mother complained. "Sometimes I wonder if he is really interested in her." David is an extremely hard-working young man who leaves the house early in the morning while his tiny daughter is still sleeping, and usually comes home late, about the time when her "sociable" hour is drawing to a close and she is tired and fussy. Thus David and his daughter have had little chance of getting to know each other during her first year.

Most busy fathers are, like David, away most of the day, and do not see enough of their baby to keep track of the little daily changes that make the development of a small child so absorbing. They have no opportunity to acquire the intimacy which the daily feedings, baths, and outings bring about. On the brief occasions when they do play with their child or try their hand at giving him a bottle or changing a diaper, they are apt to feel somewhat strange, awkward, and self-conscious. The father's deep voice, rough clothes, and awkward handling all seem strange to the baby who, instead of seeming pleased, is likely to cry or make a fuss. A father, too, often feels that all this "baby business" is essentially

a woman's job and is a little afraid to unbend and be natural for fear of looking foolish.

Without meaning to, the mother often makes matters more difficult by her possessive attitude which shows itself in various ways. Instead of sometimes letting the father be alone with his child, she is likely to be present at their encounter, and the baby naturally turns to her because he knows her best. Also, as soon as the father tries to do something for the baby, she is likely to correct him impatiently, "No, no! That's not the way to change a napkin!"

The mother who is wise does not allow herself to be disappointed because her husband does not spend much time with the baby, handle him expertly, or show as keen an interest or curiosity in him as she does. She realizes that he is probably worrying not only about the hospital and doctor's bills already owing, but about his ability to provide for the child's varied needs that will arise both in the immediate future and during the next fifteen or twenty years. Not having the same compensations that the mother has in her intimate dealings with the child, he may also be finding it hard to adjust himself to the changes that have taken place in his home since the baby's arrival. There are times, perhaps, when he misses the early care-free days of his marriage, those happy days when he enjoyed much more of his wife's time and attention, and their greater freedom of action together. Now things are changed, and he may feel that her preoccupation with the baby has spoiled much of the fun they used to have.

Often, by making slight changes in the baby's routine, a woman can iron out these difficulties and make her husband's life smoother and more agreeable without affecting her baby's welfare. One young woman restored her husband to good humour and made him more comfortable merely by changing the nursing hours from the conventional 6-10-2-6-10-2 to 7-11-3-7-11-3. This enabled him to get his morning's sleep undisturbed, and also to go out in the evening with his wife without having to rush home too early.

A change in the hour of a nap or outdoor period can often be effected so that the baby's waking hours coincide with a father's homecoming. Perhaps the morning bath can be arranged at an hour when the father can occasionally be present to enjoy the sight of his youngster sporting in the tub. If the baby spits up between bottles, it is well worth the mother's time to change him so that he will be at his best for his father's visit. Recently, exercises that can be made into games have been devised for babies six months and older. These are good for the baby and more fun for the father than merely looking at, talking to, and bouncing the baby.

On the other hand, if the baby is likely to be fretful and tired in the late afternoon, it is better to get him to bed and asleep before his father arrives home.

One mother, who looked at the whole question sensibly and with understanding, told a friend, " I know Bill is too busy to spend much time with the baby. I just try to manage it so that he will enjoy him when he has time. Just now it is my job, but in a couple of years he'll come into his own as a father, and from then on his help will be very necessary."

PARENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD FRIENDS AND RELATIVES. Friends and relatives are often a problem to new parents. They heap advice on the mother and watch her handling of the baby with a critical eye. Unthinkingly they interrupt her routine. One young mother was deeply disturbed because, just when she had trained her eight-month-old Phyllis to sleep between 12.30 and 2.30, relatives dropped in between those hours on three successive days and insisted on seeing her. " As she is a light sleeper," the mother complained, " she woke up each time, so I had to pick her up and show her off a little. After that, of course, she didn't get to sleep again, and now I can't get her to sleep any more at that hour."

A baby's feeds and sleep need not be held down by cast-iron rules, but they should not be frequently disturbed for chance friends and relatives. A mother should learn to be strong-minded about this and say " No " firmly when the occasion requires.

A different situation arises if relatives live in the same house or next door. Since they are bound to have a great deal to do with the child, both the mother and father should try to make these dealings as friendly and enjoyable as possible for all concerned. Grandmothers and aunts are usually eager to have a share in the baby's care and upbringing, but unfortunately, their positive ideas on the subject are often at variance with those of the parents. They may think the baby should be kept more warmly dressed, that regularity of sleeping and eating periods is unimportant, or that he should be left to " cry it out." Sometimes, especially if this is her first baby, it takes real courage for a woman to be firm in the face of her mother's repeated boast, " Well, I brought five of you up without all this fuss about regular feeding times, and I think I should know *something* about it ! " Or perhaps the reproach is on a more personal plane, " It certainly never did *you* any harm to get a little sympathy from your mother and be nursed whenever you cried ! " Nevertheless the mother must take a firm stand and insist that her own methods of caring for the baby shall prevail. This will of course be much easier for her if her husband backs her

up. If she makes it perfectly clear from the start that her methods are to be respected, the relatives will usually accept them without interference. Naturally a little tact in explaining her ideas to them will not come amiss, and if there are signs of an argument developing, she can support her reasons by quoting her doctor as her authority.

NURSES, FULL- AND PART-TIME. Ninety-nine mothers out of a hundred take care of their babies themselves and look upon it as a job that is highly rewarding. Others have a part-time helper who comes in to work by the day or half day and is asked to mind the baby every so often. Sometimes she is given charge of a certain part of his routine so that the mother can do her shopping, or spend more time with the older children, or lie down for a while and rest.

A mother naturally has to be particular about the character, habits, and intelligence of a woman who is going to substitute for her. She wants a person who has a good disposition, who is efficient and intelligent, and who can be relied on to take care of small emergencies. Unfortunately, such paragons are rare in any walk of life. It is essential that they be truly fond of children. They are then more likely to show kindness, gentleness, and patience. Age, experience, efficiency, intelligence, and education are all desirable but of secondary importance. A normal, intuitive, maternal woman, even though uneducated, is better than a highly trained baby's nurse who is irritable and short-tempered.

In making her choice of a full-time nurse, a mother should also give preference to the woman who seems to have friends and interests apart from her job; for though this may mean giving her some additional time off, it is one indication that the nurse is a normal, all-round person. If a nurse seems to be old-maidenish and to lack normal interests and satisfactions, she is likely either to expend too much of her emotion on the baby or to be irritable and cross with him.

The excessive devotion of a nurse often makes her incapable of refusing the child anything, so that he learns to tyrannize over her and makes frequent scenes in order to have his way. This is what happened when John was only slightly over a year old. He discovered that if he cried and complained enough when his nurse left him alone in his pen, she would return and either play with him or take him out. He found out, too, that by crying and storming he could make her sing or talk him to sleep regularly. If he woke up in the night he would cry for her, and again she would have to sit by him until he went to sleep as otherwise his howls would wake the whole household. His mother warned her against always giving in to him, but the nurse's invariable explanation was that

the child was not feeling quite well when he cried and carried on this way. Proof that the nurse was wrong came when she left on a three weeks' vacation when he was eighteen months old. The first night of her departure he howled. His mother explained to him that nurse had gone away for a little while, that mother was now taking care of him and that she would not come in a second time. He quieted down and did not cry again until the first night of the nurse's return.

A mother should try to find in her nurse qualities that make up for her own shortcomings. If she knows herself to be quick-tempered and impatient, she should make a special effort to get a nurse who is calm, even, and unruffled. If she is emotional, nervous, and easily excited, a nurse with an easy-going disposition is important.

Even after she has succeeded in finding a good nurse, it is difficult for a mother always to get on easily with her, for at times she is bound to become critical, irritated or even jealous of anyone who has such close dealings with her child. When she watches the nurse persuading the child to take his cod-liver oil, she feels certain that she herself could have got him to take it with less argument. At another time she can't help resenting the way her baby has turned to the nurse instead of to her for consolation over some bump or scare.

At times like this, of course, the mother must exercise both self-control and tact. It is most important for the baby to feel a friendly atmosphere about him, but he will not feel this if his mother and nurse are at loggerheads. The mother must therefore train the nurse to the ways she feels advisable, and for this reason should avoid engaging any woman who is set in her ways.

Before being too critical or setting too high a standard for a nurse, parents should consider the reasons that usually prompt women to take up this kind of work. The woman who chooses to be a children's nurse is often one who has a real motherly love and craving for children but who for some reason, either because she has never found a husband or because she has not got on very well in the world, has missed having children and a home of her own. As a nurse she finds compensation for some of these disappointments, but her lot, even in the most Utopian household, is usually a difficult and not wholly satisfying one. Hers is no forty-hour week, but one in which she is pretty steadily on the go the whole time. She has little privacy or leisure for herself. She has to follow the mother's directions as to the treatment and training of the baby, whether she agrees with them or not. Most difficult of all, perhaps, is the fact that she must always come

second to the mother in her emotional relations to the baby. With this realization of the difficulties and disappointments of a nurse's work, a mother is likely to be more considerate, understanding, and tolerant of her shortcomings.

Mothers, as a rule, make a sincere effort to get a suitable full-time nurse, but they are likely to be careless about the qualifications of the part-time helper. A part-time helper should be chosen for her good disposition quite as much as for her efficiency at housework. Here again, a gentle, firm, good-humoured woman is better than a grimly efficient one.

INFANT'S SUSCEPTIBILITY TO HOME ATMOSPHERE. We have already seen that if a woman is nervous, worried or unhappy, if she is tired and cross, or if she is impatient and irritable, she is much better able to hide it from a friend than from her own baby. This is because the adult learns of her mood chiefly through her words and facial expressions which long practice has taught her to control; the baby learns it by many small indications of which she herself is not aware, such as the tenseness of her muscles, the tone of her voice, the tempo at which she moves and does things, her facial expression, and her general behaviour with him. Just as a wife knows when her husband is worried over something by the way he suddenly becomes irritable, jumpy, and wrapped up in his own thoughts, so a baby knows by the way he is handled just how much his mother is concentrating her affectionate attention on him.

The quickness of baby's perception is at times surprising. Many infants, who have eaten and slept like clockwork during their first weeks at the hospital, fuss a great deal the first few days at home, even though the routine is identical and the immediate surroundings have been duplicated as nearly as possible. Even a very young infant shows awareness of different handling and will cry if a person he doesn't know very well picks him up or tries to feed him. Likewise, if his mother is anxious or impatient, he invariably chooses that moment to be fussy and demanding, as if in complaint against her slighting of him.

By the time a baby is ten months old, he is naturally aware of much more that goes on around him, and quarrels or bickerings between parents will make a lasting impression. It is therefore most essential for a mother to achieve as much serenity as possible, to keep her worries to a minimum, and to make every effort to have the household run smoothly and on friendly terms. This can be arrived at only if a woman is at least reasonably happy with her husband, and has arranged her life so that it is not overcrowded with activities. The mother who remembers that bringing up a baby is really a full-time job, for which there are no satisfactory

short cuts, will try to arrange her life accordingly and simplify either her housekeeping or her social or professional life if she finds herself too busy.

A serene and loving mother is the best possible insurance for a baby's future happiness, and no mistake in handling or routine will affect him for very long. If a woman is unable to achieve any kind of serenity, either because she is unhappy with her husband or because she is confused and overwhelmed by family or personal problems, she is bound to worry, brood, and fret. All this is harmful for her child. If a genuine effort on her part to solve her problems fails, she should seek outside help and advice from a child-guidance clinic or her doctor. They cannot solve her problems for her, to be sure, but she can be helped to learn how to cope with them without undue anxiety and to accept what cannot be changed without bitterness or repression.

PART II

THE SECOND YEAR

CHAPTER IV

HABITS IN THE SECOND YEAR

Food Habits—Bowel and Bladder Control—Genital and Related Questions—Sleep—Activities.

DURING the year from their first to their second birthday, children show markedly the differences between each other by the way they react to the same experiences and by the manner and speed with which they acquire different skills. During the first year many parents chart their baby's progress. Following the graphs at the child welfare clinic and in the books on child care, they feel he should gain so many ounces and grow so many inches a month. The mother learns at what date his first tooth is likely to appear, when she may expect his first smile, and the age at which he will learn to crawl.

During the second year it is more difficult and even less desirable continually to compare a child's development with the theoretical standard. One child gains a great deal more weight than another because he is heavier-boned, or because he is much more phlegmatic. The important thing is not how heavy the child is but whether he is gaining and improving steadily. One child learns to walk at a year but will not say more than three or four words until he is two years old, while another acquires quite a vocabulary by his eighteenth month but takes longer to learn to walk. It makes no difference if a child talks little until two as long as he is alert and bright and interested in what goes on round him, nor does it matter if he does not walk quite as early as his contemporaries if he is full of energy and activity and his legs are straight and sturdy. Again, temperamental differences may make one child excitable, another phlegmatic; cause one child to be extremely sociable and seek companionship most of the time, another to be more reserved and shy with people, preferring solitary occupations.

The most important lesson for mothers and fathers during this year is to learn to know their own child: not to have a pattern they expect him to match, whether that pattern be the child's elder

brother or sister, the neighbour's baby, or the ideal child described in books on child care and in the doctor's chart. Such parents often become needlessly unhappy because Johnny does not fit their preconceived ideas of how he should act. If, instead, they give Johnny a chance to develop in his own way and at his own speed, if they learn to know his particular temperament and ways, they will be happier and more successful as parents, not only during their baby's second year but during his whole childhood.

Food Habits

CONTINUING THE BOTTLE. If a baby has been fed according to modern ideas of nutrition, he is probably completely weaned by the time he is one year old, he is on three meals a day, and is eating a wide variety of foods.

In dealing with a child who has shown a strong need for sucking, it may be advisable to delay taking the bottle away. This was the policy adopted with Delia, a bottle-fed baby, who from an early age had shown a great urge to suck at everything she could carry to her mouth. When her mother started weaning her from the bottle about the age of ten months, Delia took great pleasure in drinking part of her milk from a cup but always insisted on finishing the remainder from the bottle, crying violently if refused. During this period of attempted weaning, her thumb-sucking became accentuated. No direct attempt was made to prevent this as her mother wisely realized that Delia was doing it because of her strong need to suck. Instead her mother decided to continue giving her a part of her milk in a bottle after each meal, and this was prolonged well into the second year. Gradually, with a little encouragement, Delia gave up the bottle of her own accord about her twentieth month. Her thumb-sucking also decreased markedly during the last half of her second year.

THE CHILD'S WISH TO FEED HIMSELF. Between the twelfth and fifteenth months a child will usually begin to try to eat alone. If he has a determined nature, he will insist on doing so. At the age of fourteen months, Laura decided to feed herself and she would cry and refuse her food outright if her mother attempted to feed her or tried to help her.

A more complacent baby will express less emphatically the wish to feed himself. If the mother refuses his request, he is likely to become resigned to being spoon-fed and loses all interest in becoming independent in this way until much later. This is undesirable, especially when a child has expressly shown an eagerness to master this new accomplishment. At fifteen months, Anne

was plainly anxious to wield her own spoon but her nurse, not wanting the bother of spilled food and slowed-up meals, did not let her. At two, when a different nurse took charge of her and tried to teach her to eat by herself, Anne was unwilling for quite a while even to try to use her own spoon.

During the first weeks that a child attempts to feed himself, a mother must be resigned to a considerable amount of spilled food. To a small child a spoon is a delightful object possessing an infinite number of uses. It can be brandished like a sword, banged heartily on the chair like a drumstick, dropped with a gratifying clatter on the floor, used playfully as an offensive weapon in prodding his mother or as a trowel in smearing food all over his hair. In all these manipulations the baby is amazingly expert, but his skill is less noticeable when he tries to put the spoon to its proper uses. Half of the cereal is usually spilled before the spoon reaches the mouth, and every so often in the midst of his arm-waving, the plate or cup is knocked off the table. A mother can help her child at this stage by giving him a spoon that is small enough to manage easily, a dish with sides (preferably a hot plate which will also keep his food warm), an unbreakable cup with a handle, and a small tray with sides so that the dish will not slide off the table. She can also save herself much trouble by supplying her child with large bibs and herself with an ample apron, and by spreading a piece of oilcloth under the table if the floor is not easy to wash.

If the mother patiently modifies her baby's exuberance, he will tire in time of his spoon experiments; but his wish to handle his food and throw it about needs to be met with a little more firmness. At such times the mother should always remove the food from his reach and make it quite clear to him why she has done this. He will soon understand that food-throwing is not permitted and will take to his spoon with renewed eagerness and skill.

Good Eating Habits. A child who has shown perfect docility about eating everything while he was being fed sometimes becomes difficult as soon as he starts feeding himself. He does not wish to finish the food or drink put before him; he wriggles and twists and fusses before he is halfway through; and he refuses certain foods point-blank. Sometimes this is because he is given the whole responsibility of feeding himself at too early an age. The effort of concentration tires him and he gets restive before the meal is finished. A highly active child finds it particularly hard to sit still for the duration of a meal and it is wise for the mother to let him stretch his legs between courses. At some nursery schools where all the children eat at low tables, they are allowed to fetch

cakes from the service table before they settle down to their dessert and milk.

Still more often a child enjoys the new-found power of choosing what he will and will not eat. For a while he takes it into his head to consume his meat but refuse his vegetable. If the mother who has made great efforts to give him a well-balanced diet insists that he eat his vegetable as before, vegetable then becomes a controversial subject and the child will make a point of refusing it. The most a mother need do is to place the food in front of the child and let him eat or not as he will.

An experiment showing that children left to their own devices will balance their own diet was conducted over a period of three and a half years by Dr. Clara Davis. Thirteen infants from six to eleven months old were given a free choice of a wide variety of suitable foods, including cod-liver oil. A complete record was kept of the kind and amount of food eaten by each child at each meal. At the end of each six-month period the children were given thorough physical examination. They were found in every case to be in excellent physical condition and also emotionally stable. It was also found that the children's diets, calculated by the month, were perfectly balanced although the daily intake was often markedly unbalanced. The most startling example was that of one child who ate ten eggs at one meal with no ill effects.

While this is not a practical procedure for the home, it indicates that parents need not worry over their child's idiosyncrasies about food. If a child shows an aversion to a certain food, substitutes can always be found. Unless there is an emotional problem, an organically sound child does not become a feeding problem.

A mother should be careful that her child does not get overtired or overexcited, and that he is quiet and relaxed for a short period before each meal, as fatigue is upsetting both to appetite and to digestion. For the same reason it is unwise to urge him to eat immediately after an emotional scene or a fit of temper.

A child can't be expected to eat well if he gets too hungry. This is likely to happen if his stomach capacity is small and his intake at any one time is limited. The interval between meals is too long and the child needs something light to sustain him until his next meal. As a mid-morning or mid-afternoon snack, fruit is preferable to milk or other slow-digesting foods. Chocolates should be avoided as they are hard to digest. Boiled sweets are all right, preferably small ones so that the child should not have too much at once.

It is essential that his fare should be simple, well balanced, varied, and sufficiently seasoned to be tasty, and also that positions

should be small enough for him to eat everything on his plate. Having done her part, a mother may then relax, trusting her child's appetite to lead him to eat both the kind and quantity of food his body needs. This sort of easy-going attitude on her part will do much to promote good eating habits.

The dictatorial mother arouses her child's antagonism, and he learns to enjoy a good argument and all the attention that goes with it more than his food. The anxious mother who urges, coaxes, and wheedles likewise gives her child an amount of attention which becomes important and agreeable to him. In both cases the child acquires a sense of power at being able in this way to arouse the concern of his elders.

At nursery schools one frequently sees children whose mothers have warned the teacher that " Little Johnny is a very poor eater. He won't touch his vegetables." Little Johnny, however, when he finds that no one at school shows any concern or worry about what he eats or doesn't eat, often forges ahead with as much appetite as his friends, and frequently includes in his bill of fare the very foods which his mother has assured the teacher he will not touch. One bright three year old, as he started on his second helping of fish, engagingly confided to the teacher, " You know, I never eat this at home."

We have already seen that anxiety, either over his own problems or over another person's worry, often causes a child to eat poorly. A healthy little girl just a year old suddenly lost her appetite and could not be persuaded to eat many of the foods she had previously been fond of. Her lost of appetite continued all the time her mother was mourning the death of a beloved father.

Another sort of anxiety that frequently occurs comes from a child's phantasies. He may suddenly form an aversion to all foods that require chewing. A mother is likely to be baffled by this sort of behaviour and feel that her child is being wilful and naughty; but he has some good reason for not chewing his foods and she should humour him as much as possible. In his unconscious mind he may have linked this idea of chewing with the idea that biting is a bad and punishable act, so that whenever he chews he feels guilty. In the same way he may take an aversion to some other food that has become associated in his mind with a taboo. It is best to ignore this kind of idiosyncrasy which in time he will forget. Ocasionally the sight of other small children eating the particular food he dreads will dispel his fear and he will start eating it of his own accord.

Sometimes children develop the annoying habit of chewing their food interminably before swallowing it. Children particularly dependent on oral pleasures do this because they like the sensation

of a wad of food in the mouth. The practice can usually be discouraged by setting a time limit on the meal, at the expiration of which the child must leave the table whether he has finished or not.

Bowel and Bladder Control

METHODS OF TRAINING FOR BOWEL CONTROL. The best time for a mother to start training her child in cleanliness is when he first begins to show his needs by grunting, wriggling, or similar signs. She can begin to teach him what a pot is for by showing him that she puts the stools from his napkins into it. Her next step is to adopt some word or sound for bowel movement which he recognizes—often a grunting noise conveys the idea to him best—so that when she puts him on the pot he will understand what she wants him to do.

By the time he is a year old, a child's bowels have usually formed the habit of moving at about the same time every day and that is the best time for the mother to put him on the pot. Even if there are no results, she should be careful not to keep him sitting on it more than five or at most ten minutes at a time, so that he will not develop a dislike for it. She should mildly encourage his having a movement, but should show neither displeasure nor anxiety if he doesn't have one. He will be glad of his mother's praise when he has succeeded, but her compliments should be casual so that he will not attach undue importance to his accomplishment or get in the habit of doing it for praise. A child should never on any account be scolded either for failure to perform or for dirtying himself through lack of control. If the child resists training the attempt may be postponed for a while. The mother might then examine her own attitude to see whether the child is resisting the training because of her own insistence and urgency about it.

A mother will sometimes find it difficult not to show her annoyance by some word, look, or gesture when she is faced with changing her child's soiled bed linen. But if any protest is made, or if the child sees that by his action he has put his mother to considerable trouble, he may be likely to repeat the act solely in order to get a rise out of her. If his failures are not emphasized and his successes casually praised, he will gradually conform to the ways that are expected of him.

METHOD OF TRAINING FOR BLADDER CONTROL. Anywhere from the fifteenth to the seventeenth month, after the child has become thoroughly accustomed to moving his bowels when put on the pot, the mother may start training him to keep dry. To accomplish this she should buy him some shorts, and ask him to

keep them dry if he can. He usually feels proud of them, and because they feel different from napkins, they help him to remember that he is now going to keep himself dry. She must remember to put him on the pot at regular intervals of an hour or so during the day. After he is trained, the interval may be lengthened, but the mother must still take the responsibility of putting him on, for few children under two will remember to ask to go to the lavatory until they have wet themselves.

This problem of training requires a good deal of patience in the mother and an understanding of her child's ways. She must remember that if a child has been making an effort to keep from wetting himself, it may take him two or three minutes to relax his bladder when he does try to urinate. If he is tired or excited, or if he is cold, he will have less control and will need to urinate more frequently. The child should be given warning beforehand so as not to be dragged too suddenly or forcefully away from his play; otherwise he will become rebellious of these continual interruptions that training requires.

By the time he is eighteen months to two years old, a child who has been properly helped is usually both clean and dry during the day. The mother can then start with his night training, unless it is winter time. In the latter case it is more sensible for her to postpone training a little longer and not subject both herself and her baby to the discomforts of cold weather.

A mother who is teaching her child to be dry at night should start by discarding the napkin and putting him into pyjamas, explaining that now he is older she hopes he will try to keep himself dry, just as he does in the daytime. She should wake him up completely when she puts him on the pot at night, so that he realizes what is expected of him and gets used to not urinating in his sleep. It is also helpful during this period of initial training to reduce the quanity of fluid intake at suppertime and not give the child any water before he goes to bed. If she finds that he urinates in the early morning before he is fully awake, she may pick him up a few minutes before his usual waking time, until he has learned to await her coming. During all this training period she ought never to reprove him for wetting himself, remembering that he generally urinates while asleep and therefore has no conscious control of the act.

It takes longer to train a child to be dry at night than in the daytime, and some children are slower at learning than others. Children are often dry by the time they are two, but there is no need for the parents to worry if their child is not completely trained until near his third birthday.

THE CHILD'S EMOTIONAL REACTIONS TO BOWEL TRAINING. Parents do not usually realize that normally a very young child thinks that his excrement is part of himself, and hence valuable. Usually he feels proud of having produced a stool. He is likely to point to it with pleasure and occasionally, if he has been made to feel it is something important, he wishes to give it away as a present. This was what Jack wished to do on one occasion when he was three and a half. After the visit of the nurse, who had been with him until he was three and had first trained him to use the pot, he talked for several days of sending her a gift. Despite various suggestions from his parents, the only gift he wished to send was one of his "big grunts" which he spoke of with pride. Many adults unconsciously strengthen this attitude in children by showing their approval of a good and prompt bowel movement.

As the child has no innate sense of his excrement being dirty, unpleasant, or bad, he is almost sure at some time or other to touch and play with it as he does with everything else. If the adult then reverses his attitude toward the bowel movement, and scolds him sharply or shows great disgust, the child is likely to become perplexed and frightened. He gets the idea that his excrement, whether it is urine or fæces, is "bad, dirty, wicked stuff." This may put the idea in his head of withholding his movements for fear of soiling his clean white pot. Or he may develop a dread of being constipated and hence of being filled up with "bad stuff." This kind of anxiety can aggravate a constipated condition by affecting the nerves involved in normal functioning. In other cases, because he feels that it is dirty, he is ashamed of having to go to the lavatory or to let anyone know that he has gone there. One of the three-year-old boys at a nursery school wet himself constantly. It was found that he did this because he was shy of urinating for anyone but his nurse, and even she had to turn her back once she had unbuttoned his trousers.

Children whose parents set too high a standard of cleanliness and regularity during these months of training are liable to develop the same kind of anxiety as does a baby by too early training: a deep sense of wrongdoing if they dirty themselves, and serious doubts as to their own abilities if they cannot perform on demand.

Somewhere between one and three years it is normal for all children to go through a very aggressive period in which they feel antagonistic to the adults around them. As this period generally comes while they are still being trained in cleanliness, their anger and rebelliousness are easily directed against the training, especially if it is being enforced with too great severity. A child may then withhold his motion as an act of defiance or spite. Sometimes for

the same reason he may urinate purposely at the wrong time or place. When this is the case, the child's behaviour in such matters will change only if the parents' severity is relaxed and their whole attitude becomes one of tolerance and of indifference.

Occasionally children crave more attention than they are receiving. Perhaps they have been partly neglected for a more assertive and dominating older brother or sister, or perhaps the birth of a new child has diminished the attention they formerly had. They discover that by withholding their stools they can command a great deal of adult attention and concern. At other times, when they have the urge to exercise their power over the grown-ups and can find no other way of doing it, they retain their fæces. As a result, even though there is nothing organically wrong with them at the time, they become chronically constipated. Other children will on occasion move their bowels only when a soap suppository or an enema is used, because they enjoy refusing the adult's demand and like to force the latter to give help. Eventually, if enough enemas are given, children become so fond of the sensations these create that they regularly withhold their stools until they receive the gratifying enema or suppository.

The reasons for relapses in this matter of training are many, and the following story shows that there may be more than one factor governing a child's refusal to conform to his parent's wishes. Until he was three years old Brian had been very regular in his habits, but at that age, when his new brother was born, he began withholding his excrement for periods of four to seven days. In this way he succeeded in diverting some of his mother's attention from the new baby to himself. His mother's obvious worry, her scoldings, her conferences with the doctor, the laxatives and occasional enemas, were all highly gratifying to him.

After a while he resumed his normal ways, but the same thing happened when Charles, his elder brother, got sick and had to have special care and attention. With Charles's recovery, Brian's regular habits were resumed. It was also noticed, however, that whenever Charles took anything away from him, Brian would refuse to go to the lavatory. This happened frequently, not only because Charles was much the stronger and more aggressive of the two, but because the parents had insisted on joint ownership of all their toys. This arrangement, of course, didn't work out since Brian could never protest against Charles's confiscations on the grounds that they were his own toys. Literally the only thing, therefore, that Brian could call his own, and which no one could take away from him, was his excrement. Unlike his playthings

this was something he could hang on to as long as he wished and no one could deprive him of it.

This situation was finally remedied when he was five years old, when a division of all the toys was made between the two children and Brian was given a large box with a lock and key for his personal possessions. There was then no longer any need for him to keep his excrement "locked up," since he had the sole use of the key for his box and could keep his treasures from being rifled. As a matter of fact he rarely used the key because he now felt that he could control the situation if he wanted to.

In Brian's case, therefore, it was not only the need for attention but also the desire for private ownership that had to be satisfied. When this was done his habits improved and he has never had a relapse since.

PARENTAL ATTITUDE TOWARD TRAINING. Many a mother has the feeling, ingrained from her own childhood training, that anything to do with the lavatory is dirty, repulsive and degrading. If she can even partially overcome these attitudes which have been trained into her, if she can but realize that there is nothing inherently wrong or repulsive about any natural functions and in this way achieve greater naturalness toward them, she will make it easier both for herself and her child. By feeling no impatience or anxiety as to the outcome, she is less likely to scold when the child makes a mistake, or to urge and force him unduly when he will not perform. Instead she will try to encourage and interest him in becoming clean and in this way will make his training much easier for him. For instance, she may buy the child a new pot or small-sized lavatory seat which he feels proud of owning and using. She may stress the bulkiness of napkins under his clothes so that he will feel pleased when he is able to do without them. Thus he will find that it is agreeable to adapt himself to these new ways and will gradually acquire the necessary control.

Genital and Related Questions

The suggestions made regarding a baby's curiosity about his genitals also hold good during his second year. As with the younger child, interest of this sort should be ignored by the parents. Unfortunately, mothers and nurses are apt to scold, slap, or otherwise punish a child for this universal and quite harmless action. Many parents also threaten dire consequences if the child continues to handle himself, so that he is made to feel anxious, guilty, and bad. He associates evil with this part of his body and this gives rise to anxiety which may later complicate his normal sexual development.

If a child persists in handling himself, all possible physical causes should be examined, such as tight diapers, knickers or pyjamas, over-acidity of the urine, and excessive washing. The mother should also make sure that the child feels safe and happy and that she is neither neglecting him nor worrying over him unduly. In addition, she should examine his relation to any nurse or maid who may be taking part care of him, in order to make sure that it is a happy and congenial one. In any event, too much importance should not be attached to this childish practice. If the child is occupied and busy and is not left alone too much of the time during the day, and if he is always allowed to take a toy or two to bed with him both when he has his naps and at night, his occasional play with his genitals will not harm him in the slightest.

Sleep

The child who has formed good sleeping habits in his first year usually continues them in his second. During this year of tremendous exploration, however, he is much more likely to become overtired and overexcited, and this may easily affect his sleep. Particularly if he is highly strung, a mother should guard her child against the physical fatigue of too much walking or of long drives, and keep him from such excitements as "company," running games, and horseplay before naps and bedtime.

During the end of the first or second year, a child may start having nightmares and cry out in terror. Frequently he does not wake up completely even though his mother goes to his bedside and tries to reassure him. He may continue wailing, unheedful of the comforting voice and presence of his mother; or, fearful of being left alone again, he may howl as soon as she shows signs of leaving him. In such cases it is best to turn the lights on or even take the child out of bed, so as to waken him completely and thoroughly dispel the bad dream. The mother must be careful, however, not to make these little night episodes too pleasant by giving the child something to eat, or by taking him into her own bed to comfort him, else she will find that whenever the child wakes in the night he will try to force a repetition of these agreeable interludes.

It is sometimes difficult to keep an active two year old in his cot and under the covers after he has been put to bed. Some kind of restraint may be necessary, if only to keep him from catching cold. A net may be tied over the cot, or a tape belt may be used in such cases.

Activities

Scope of Activities. A child of twelve months is usually able to crawl rapidly along the floor, pull himself up to a standing

position, and take one or two tottering steps. By the time he is twenty-four months old he is able to walk and run; he can go upstairs with the help of a banister and crawl downstairs backwards on hands and knees; he has learned how to climb on and off couches, beds, boxes, and other conveniently situated things, and he knows how to use some of the playground equipment. By endless practice he acquires the muscular development and co-ordination necessary for all these feats of movement and balance. The child who has been coddled and restricted in his freedom of action is not able to do as much as the child who has had more practice.

During this year he not only learns to feed himself, but tries at various times to do many of the things adults have been in the habit of doing for him, such as washing himself, brushing his teeth, taking off his shoes and socks. His delight and pride in doing these things by himself is apparent; and although he is likely to take an interminable time over them, a little encouragement from a sympathetic mother will increase his wish to master the simple problems that are a part of his everyday routine. He also attempts to copy many other things he sees those around him doing; and he not only comes to understand much of what is said to him but also learns to reproduce the sounds of some of the words he hears. These skills involve ever more complex kinds of co-ordination which require much practice and concentration on his part.

During these months, by tasting, biting, smelling, and feeling he investigates every substance, material, and object he manages to lay his hands on. Thus he learns about weight, consistency, size, taste, colour, and other qualities of the material world. He experiments with new things by shaking, poking, banging, tearing, dropping, and mixing. It is only after this small scientist has tried every new object in every conceivable way that he gradually becomes willing to use it in the accepted manner.

THOUGHTS AND PHANTASIES. While his vocabulary is still extremely limited, a child plays unmistakable games of pretend whose meaning adults can only catch glimmerings of. When he rolls a toy car along the floor, making car noises, or puts a doll to bed with ceremony, it is fairly obvious what he is doing; but most of the time it is impossible to discover what ideas are passing through his mind.

We can, however, observe certain things about a child's phantasy life at this age. First, a child draws little distinction between phantasy and reality. Nothing is surprising or seems impossible to him because of his ignorance of reality and his limited experience. It wouldn't astonish him to hear a voice come out of the piano

instead of out of the radio, or for a horse to trot backwards instead of forwards. Secondly, the difference between a wish and an act is very small or non-existent, and he can often get as much pleasure pretending to take a ride in an imaginary car as actually taking a ride in a real one. Thirdly, his pretend games are of short duration and vary with great abruptness. One moment his teddy bear is a " bowwow " trying to bite, the next moment it is a little girl having supper. One of his blocks is transformed in quick succession into a car, a horse, a boat, a train, and a tower.

It is a truism that people learn by experience. Adults often do not take imitative pretend play seriously because they do not realize that this is the way children learn by experience about those adult things which their age and size prevent their really doing. The little girl who cooks elaborate meals for her dolls is living out in her imagination those acts she sees her mother perform. At five or six when she is allowed to try her hand at real cooking, she will have some idea of the processes involved. Thus a mother, when she sees the beginnings of phantasy play appear in her child during the last half of his second year, should enter into the spirit of it instead of treating it as merely silly, cute, or funny.

There is another kind of phantasy which, instead of being the imagining of acts that have the possibility of being carried out in fact, is an escape from real life. This type of phantasy, more easily distinguished in the third and fourth years, will be discussed in the next chapter.

THE MOTHER'S ROLE. There is probably no other period in a child's life when a mother requires as much patience as during the second year, and there will undoubtedly be times when she will look back regretfully to the earlier months when " baby stayed put " in his pram or cot.

A mother's task during this time is threefold: she must give her child as much opportunity and freedom as possible to develop his muscles and satisfy his curiosities; she must protect him from physical injury; and she must keep him from doing too much damage to property.

A child who has the space and freedom to walk and run and climb and dig and carry becomes muscularly strong and well co-ordinated, and he learns power and control. If he is allowed to try things for himself and is given a variety of objects and materials to handle, he acquires sense discrimination, he becomes skilful with his hands, and he develops initiative. By being allowed to notice for himself instead of constantly having his attention called to things, his own powers of observation are heightened and he is not overstimulated.

The process of acquiring this muscular control and skill, however, is very slow and is beset by many falls and minor accidents. Besides this, his experiments with materials and his attempted imitation of adult action will be the cause of much spilling and breakage. These are inevitable and are just as much a part of his education as his later schooling will be. The child is learning how to use his hands, how to keep his balance, and how to co-ordinate his mind and body, his wishes, and the carrying out of them. Mishaps are likely to teach him more quickly than any amount of parental instruction the proper methods of handling objects, judging distances, and timing movements. Adults are so accustomed to most of their own actions that they do not realize how many of them depend upon this skill in timing and in judging distance to a fraction of an inch. They know, and can therefore control, the force with which water pours out of a pitcher into a glass; they know, before they pick it up, the exact weight of a dish and how firmly to grip it so that it doesn't slip from their fingers; they know just how much pull to exert on a tablecloth to adjust it without dragging it off the table. But a child hasn't yet acquired the same familiarity with these natural laws of force and gravitation, and in discovering them for himself there are bound to be accidents.

A mother may help her child most during this particular period of trial and error if she maintains a calm, encouraging attitude toward his various activities and allows him to take the initiative. Given the right environment and materials and the freedom to experiment in his own way, he will gain initiative and independence in proportion to his mother's "hands off" attitude. He will appreciate her help, advice or encouragement as long as it is given only when he really needs it. Some prohibitions are necessary, but if these are based on reason rather than whim, he will learn to accept them all the more readily.

When Noel, at three and a half, saw his two-year-old sister picking up a crystal glass from the dining-room table, he cried out in alarm, "Oh-h-h Sally, put it down, it breaks." Although he himself often wished to carry breakables he was forbidden to touch, he had at least grasped the reason for not carrying them.

An over-anxious parent can be a real detriment. She is afraid that her child will fall and hurt himself, will overtire himself, or will put something dirty into his mouth. As a result, she cautions him and forbids him to do this and that the whole day long. "Be careful, Johnny!" "Don't fall!" "No, you mustn't climb up there!" "Put those scissors down. You'll cut yourself!" A timid child, listening to this flood of warnings, gets the idea that

the world is a perilous place in which he cannot lift a hand or take a step without running into some grave danger. As a result of this, the child will become more timorous, and his fears will increase until he scarcely ventures to do anything on his own. Another child who is bold either from recklessness or through confidence in his own skill is irritated by these continuous cautions and is likely to rebel against his parents' anxious solicitude.

Mothers and fathers need to use a little more discrimination in their efforts to protect their children. An occasional fall, a bruised forehead, a cut finger, a hammered thumb, or a bloody nose is the equivalent of just so much knowledge gained and no amount of parental instruction can take the place of these valuable lessons in cause and effect. Restrictions should be reserved only for those occasions when there is real danger of a serious accident, such as when a child leans too far out of a low-silled window or when he starts up a ladder the feet of which are not securely planted on the ground. Apart from such rare occasions, it is best for the child to find out for himself, even at the expense of an accident, the nature and consequences of the risks he takes.

Parents are sometimes apt to have too high a standard of perfection for their children, which can hold them back. If a child spills the water while he is drinking, his mother says, " There, just as I thought," and grabs the glass away from him. This is discouraging, and through his fear of adult disapproval the child tends to become doubtful of his own capacities. Another child's mother shows her concern by being too eager to help. Instead of letting him discover how to do things for himself, she shows him. " This is the way to ride your car, dear . . ." or " Step up here to get in the sandbox." This also robs the child of his initiative and spontaneity and keeps him over-dependent.

By watching the delight a child gets from doing something himself and by remembering her own childhood joy in being allowed to do things alone, a mother is more likely to refrain from that universal adult impulse of admonishing and helping.

WALKING. Undoubtedly at this age the one accomplishment which affords the greatest joy is walking. From twelve to eighteen months a child devotes most of his energies to this new and engrossing occupation. A young man flying solo for the first time probably feels no greater thrill than the small child does when he first stumbles around the lawn on his wobbly fat legs. During these first months of walking he is likely to exhaust himself and become fussy and cross by the end of the day. If this happens, it is wise for the mother to limit his walking activities by keeping him in his pen and pram part of the time.

After he has become fairly steady on his feet, he begins to find new uses for this accomplishment, and widens the scope of his play activities. He goes to the sandbox and scoops sand for a minute; he runs back to his wagon and bangs it with the shovel; he climbs up on a board and stamps on it with his feet. He flits from one thing to another discovering a whole new world. There are too many new objects in his environment for him to specialize on any one thing; but later he will settle down and take pleasure in pursuing a single aim for a longer period.

INDOOR EQUIPMENT AND ACTIVITIES. Ideally a child between one and two should have his own room which contains his cot, a small table and chair; a room which also has safety bars at the windows, contains a minimum of breakables, and has a floor and walls that are easily cleaned. A few low hooks within his easy reach are of service in helping him to hang up his own clothes. It is sometimes a good plan to have a folding gate in front of the door, as a child will often play happily in his own room if he can see or hear his mother in the adjoining room, and she can likewise keep track of him while doing other things. A pen is also useful until around eighteen months, when the child, who has now tasted freedom in walking, begins to resent being kept in it for any length of time and soon learns to climb out of it.

There are—or were in peace-time—many toys and materials appropriate for a child of this age. Wooden toys, such as graduated boxes or plates that fit into each other, graduated rings that fit on a stick, and kegs or boxes with holes in the top through which various shaped blocks can be inserted, are liked by the child and further his manipulative skill. He also enjoys metal toys, such as pails and shovels, small kitchen utensils and toy plates and spoons into which he can put things and which make a satisfactory noise when banged. A boat and a fish for the bathtub, a ball to scramble after, a cart or lorry to fill up and pull around, a doll, imitation animals to tend, string, crayons, paper to scribble on or tear, clay or plasticine to mould, small coloured blocks, a car or train to ride around on, a few picture books to look at—all contribute to the child's amusement and learning during this year.

Even if a child has a room of his own, he doesn't like being kept there all day long but wants to spend much of his time in other parts of the house. Inevitably his insatiable curiosity leads to many mishaps. Table covers are pulled off, lamps are upset, and curtains are torn down. Naturally there will have to be many prohibitions and many don'ts. The wise mother, however, always tries to keep breakables out of reach as much as possible, and attempts to forestall accidents rather than scold the child after

they have occurred. At this age children become possessed to do certain things. When they first discover that they can turn a light on and off, they wish to do it fifty times a day; but once they have really mastered the trick and the novelty has worn off, they pass on to something else. During this phase of her child's life, a mother will be kept busy seeing that taps are turned off, the larder door is shut, and the lights are not left burning. In order not to discourage his initiative, however, she must bear with her child as much as possible in his passionate desire to do things for himself.

The majority of small children, unfortunately, cannot have a room of their own. However, nearly every child can have a part of a room for his very own, where he can keep his possessions on shelves within his reach and where he is free to play unhampered, with no grown-ups' breakables to beware of. Many parents cannot afford more than a few toys, but all can provide an assortment of materials to play with. An old kitchen pan and a wooden spoon will give a child as much fun as toy ones; clothes pegs and empty cotton-reels make excellent wooden toys; a string, newspaper, old rags, a pillow to throw around, a cardboard box with holes cut through the cover and small stones to put through the holes (small pebbles are dangerous if the child is in the habit of putting things in his mouth), an old broom with the handle sawed off short, a scrapbook made up of pictures cut out of old magazines—all these are just as good fun and as educative as their more expensive counterparts.

The mother who takes the trouble to provide such a diversity of new and different objects is rewarded by seeing the visible strides her child makes in physical control and co-ordination. He also keeps occupied and interested and is much less likely to get into destructive mischief.

Outdoor Equipment and Activities. Since a child should spend most of his time in the air and sun, outdoor conditions are even more important. Ideally a child of this age should have a protected garden, yard, or fenced-off area where he can be turned loose alone without coming to any serious harm. Earth, sand, and pebbles to dig in are essentials, for every child has a primitive impulse and need to handle these elemental substances. He takes a delight in having water to mix with sand, and also with earth, in order to make the proverbial mud pies. For summer use there are small canvas receptacles which serve as a miniature bathing pool, although a big washtub or a rotating garden hose can provide almost as much fun. Adding to these some big blocks and boards to carry around, and something to climb on such as a small slide

or jungle gym, or some packing boxes, or a firm garden bench, a child can spend his day in ideal surroundings. It is a good plan to mark off a definite part of the garden for the child's very own where he may play barefoot and do whatever he likes. Even if this plot is only six feet square, he enjoys the freedom of being able to dig holes and make mud pools with bridges across them to his heart's content without continuous grown-up interference. Furthermore, given this liberty, he is less likely to turn his attention to the flower beds and lawns.

This sort of safe playground usually takes planning. In a tidy, carefully planted garden a small child is likely to cause more destruction than a hungry rabbit. In many suburban gardens the main road is too near and not sufficiently fenced off for safety. With a mother's inventiveness and a little of a father's spare time a suitable small play yard can be fenced off with wire netting. Likewise, even though there may be little money to spend on toys and equipment, there are many simple things that can be procured or made, such as pails, shovels, a couple of planed boards, a small wagon, and a packing case or two.

In big towns, where private gardens and yards are rare, the public parks have to serve as substitutes. Here, unfortunately, the children must be supervised continually by a mother or nurse. Playgrounds are not very appropriate for a child between one and two, as the noise and rush of so many at play overwhelms and excites him and older children are likely to knock and bump him as they run around.

It is much better to find a park bench in a more remote place where the mother can sit quietly while her child runs around on the grass with at least a partial illusion of freedom. Too often one sees a child who should be playing actively tightly strapped in his carriage. This is sometimes the result of laziness on the part of the nurse who would rather sit and gossip with her friends than run after her small charge. At other times it is caused by the mother's or nurse's misguided desire to keep the child spotless.

Appropriate Clothes. It is not only useless but cruel to try to keep an active two year old clean during his play hours, as this is bound to curtail his freedom too much. If a mother can resist the temptation of buying clothes that are fragile and light-coloured for everyday use, and instead buys practical, strong, easily washable clothes that do not show dirt, her child will enjoy life much more and she will be sparing herself both trouble and expense. The mother who always dresses her child up to show him off to the world and who treasures the reactions of the passer-by who exclaims, " What an adorable child ! " is merely indulging herself

at the cost of her offspring. Dressy clothes are all right for dressy occasions, but they are emphatically out of place at a child's playtime.

Both boys and girls should be provided with play overalls for indoor and for outdoor use. Brown shoes that do not show the dirt are preferable to white ones. Snow suits in fairly dark colours such as brown, green, henna or navy blue, are more practical for cold weather than coats and leggings.

CHAPTER V

EARLY RELATIONSHIPS

Companionship—Authority—Fear and Anxieties—Family Relations.

Companionship

EVERY mother wonders at one time or another how much she should expect her child to amuse himself alone. If he has his own room and a safe yard or enclosed garden to play in, with toys and materials to play with, he will learn to spend a fair amount of time by himself. A good share of the day, however, he wants to be and should be with his mother or nurse. He needs continual reassurance in this new world he is discovering, for he is constantly getting into trouble and needing help. He also enjoys and craves attention. He likes to show things to adults and to have them share in the pleasure of his discoveries. Besides, he is entranced by their activities and would like to have a finger in every pie.

The child who is round and about the house while his mother works, who goes out with her when she does small errands, who sees new people, and who is talked to and included in the family life, learns much by imitation and example.

A good balance can be established between solitude and companionship by leaving the child to his own devices at a regular time each day. He soon becomes accustomed to it and enjoys his freedom when he knows that he will not have to forego companionship too long.

One thing that should be particularly avoided at this age is to let the child become over-tired and over-excited. Long journeys or shopping expeditions, too many new experiences or too many new people at one time, are over-stimulating and create an emotional and nervous strain. Most mothers know this but they are often tempted by their own enthusiasm to disregard it, with bad results all around.

COMPANIONSHIP OF CONTEMPORARIES. The companionship of other children is not vital either to happiness or to development during this year. Although young children are both curious and interested in each other, they do not play together as older children will, and their social approach to each other consists mostly of poking, pushing, and grabbing. Parents often make a real effort to bring their children and their friends' children of similar ages

together and are much disappointed when they play separately, unless they realize that this is characteristic of this particular age.

WHAT BROTHERS AND SISTERS CONTRIBUTE. The presence of brothers and sisters in a family begins to make itself definitely felt on a child during this year. Even though the older children may pay little attention to him, the child senses a world that is not wholly adult, a world where there is running and giggling and noise, where mistakes are made and rules disobeyed. As a result, the feeling of guilt that very small children harbour at not being able to measure up to adult standards is diminished, and they are less frightened and oppressed by the thought of risking their parents' displeasure.

A child who has an older brother or sister near his own age is likely to receive less supervision and learn to do things for himself sooner than he otherwise would. He also learns through imitating the older child, and as a result he is usually somewhat more independent and advanced in his skills by the time he reaches two.

The nearer a child's brother or sister is to him in age, the more companionship he will derive, as routines and schedules will be pretty much alike and capacities will be more on a par. The closer young children are, however, the more supervision they require at this stage. The child between one and two who has a brother or sister a year and a half older is in continual danger of being physically hurt. Because of the older one's superior size and strength, his utter irresponsibility and ignorance, and his sporadic feeling of jealousy for the younger one with whom he has to share so much, many accidents are likely to occur. The older child may push the younger one downstairs, or slam a door on his fingers, or throw a toy in his face. Even if not serious, too many injuries of this kind tend to make the younger child timid and scared. He must also be guarded from over-tiring himself in his attempts to keep up with the older brother or sister.

The younger child must be watched from still another angle, since he is quite likely to annoy the older child by his utter destructiveness. A four year old who has learned to paint or model well, or who is executing some elaborate building in blocks, can be thoroughly disheartened by an eighteen-month-old child who is bent on spilling the paints, flattening all the clay, or knocking down the blocks. Whenever this happens, a mother's first step should be to ward off the hostile and destructive impulses of both children, and then try to get them interested in something else that will work off their pent-up energies. If the four-year-old child has hurt the younger, it is not wise for the mother to be harsh in her reproof or to comfort the younger more than is strictly necessary,

for she will increase the elder's jealousy and give the younger the idea that tears bring extra loving. After gently cautioning the younger to be more careful and not to interfere with the elder's work, she may then help the four year old to rebuild or remodel the object that was damaged.

Another kind of difficulty occurs sometimes when a motherly older sister takes a great interest in the year-old child and helps and coddles him to such an extent that he becomes both dependent and spoiled. By giving the older sister a puppy or a kitten for whose care she is responsible, the mother can usually shift the older one's attention, at least in part, from the younger child. Or she can do this by providing new outlets for the older sister's energies and for her desire for power and responsibility. New occupations and friends of her own age will help to divert her interest away from the baby, and at the same time it can be explained to her that the young one must learn to do things for himself and cannot always have the thing he cries for.

These are only a few variations of the problems in relationship that arise between a young child and his older brothers and sisters. They are usually not serious or difficult if seen and regulated in time by a watchful mother.

Authority

THE SPOILED CHILD. It is usually when their child is between one and two that most parents seriously begin to wonder whether he is becoming spoiled. Three things start them questioning this: the child's insistence on having his way, his cries and tears when he doesn't have it, and his disregard of all prohibitions. These are, however, three natural and universal characteristics of all young children, and they need cause no worry unless they become a regular habit.

Any child will yell occasionally when he is put to bed, or is put in his pen, or is told to stop playing and come to lunch, or is refused some object he wants. It is only the child who does so consistently who has begun to be spoiled. The child who is really spoiled usually cries, stamps his feet, and gets red in the face when he is crossed. Sometimes he lies down on the floor and wails or shouts to get what he wants. Children become spoiled for much the same reasons as were enumerated in the previous chapter on babies. (Aggressiveness, its causes, and ways of handling it are treated more fully in the next chapter.)

AVOIDANCE OF SPOILING A CHILD. To avoid this kind of behaviour, it is important for parents to continue to emphasize regularity of routine in the second year, and to maintain the same

gentle firmness and encouragement they did in the first year. This is more difficult as the older child taxes the patience to a greater extent. Also, as a child learns to understand what is said to him, his parents begin to expect him to heed their words. The child between one and two, however, has little respect for adults' commands and prohibitions. He has been told not to touch the cigarettes and matches in the living room, but he forgets many times. Even when he remembers he is still likely to play with them, as his own wishes are stronger than his fear of adult displeasure.

Much can be accomplished if parents are reasonable and logical and do not act on whim and impulse toward their children at this age, or expect too much of them. They should try to have as few prohibitions as possible but adhere to these consistently. Too often a child receives from his mother a torrent of meaningless orders which he ignores and which she has no intention of enforcing. If the child realizes that his mother and father restrict him as little as possible, but that when they tell him to do something they expect him to do it, he will be more likely to reward them with obedience. If an order is not really necessary then it should not be given in the first place ; but if it is necessary the parent must see that it is carried out.

It helps a child, too, if his parents point out as simply as possible the reasons for every prohibition. " Don't touch the fire because it burns " and " Don't play with the knife because it is sharp." These are reasons an eighteen-month-old child can already understand if he has felt the heat of the fire, if he has put his hand in hot water, and if he has felt the sharp blade of a knife. He can also understand certain simple cause-and-effect punishments. If pencils and crayons are taken away from him whenever he uses them elsewhere than on paper, he will gradually learn not to scribble on walls and furniture.

IMPORTANCE OF COMPROMISE. As her child grows older, a mother finds it increasingly necessary to show firmness, but she must not fail to combine this with an encouraging attitude and a willingness to try to compromise on all issues and avoid meeting them head on.

If sixteen-month-old Johnny does not want to get out of his bath, the sight of the powder tin and the suggestion that he may powder himself when he is dry usually persuade him to make the move. If he does not care about the powder, he may be willing instead to give up the pleasure of the water for the pleasure of taking out the stopper and listening to the gurgling noise the water makes as it goes out. Nearly any nurse who is accustomed to children

uses her imagination in this way and avoids unnecessary scenes. The new mother, however, often uses coercion rather than imaginative and persuasive substitution, and this is likely to arouse the child's anger and obstinacy and either make him aggressive or else frightened and submissive.

This expedient of diverting him from one interest to another is easier to put into practice during the second year than during the first, because the child's range of curiosity is greater and there are many more things he has acquired skill in doing. Thus the child gradually learns to adapt himself to adult requirements. He finds he has to give up many things he wants and likes, but he is given other pleasures to take their place. He gives up the bottle for a cup and finds that the milk comes faster from the cup; he has to stop playing when he goes to bed but he finds he is tired and ready for sleep. His success in adapting and controlling himself brings him adult approval and attention. And where a skill such as eating is involved, it gives him the fun and satisfaction of learning to do something new. The desire all children have of doing a thing themselves and the pride they feel if they have given a good performance of their newly acquired prowess are ample proof of this.

Many people feel that it is wrong to compromise with a young child since later in life there are many situations in which compromise is impossible; thus the earlier a child learns to accept disappointments the better it is for him. Even at this early age, however, the child seems to grasp the difference between frustrations that are inevitable and those that are imposed arbitrarily by the mother, and he seems to reconcile himself to the former more easily. If an eighteen-month-old child who wants to go outdoors is shown that it is raining, he usually stops whining to go out, particularly if this is explained to him in a reasonable and conciliatory tone of voice. If he wants another biscuit and is shown not only that the box is empty but that there is no other box, he reconciles himself quickly to the disappointment, particularly if he has faith in his parents and does not feel something is being put over on him. When the mother is dictatorial or evasive in manner in her efforts to make him obedient, the child immediately rebels even though her words may be reasonable. His wants are too imperious for him to accept army discipline and move to order at this early age.

Temper Tantrums. Any young child is bound at some time or other to lose his temper because he is crossed in some special wish or occupation. On such an occasion he may lie down on the floor, yell, howl, kick, and make a terrific scene. If the adult gives in to wishes asserted by such behaviour, the child is likely

to acquire the habit of flying into a temper to gain his end. The best way of dealing with these outbursts is for the adult to stand aside, no matter how difficult this may be, and let the child spend his wrath without interference. Nor need the parent fear that the child will harm himself when giving vent to his anger in this way, for though he may knock his head on the floor or furniture, he never does himself real bodily injury. After a child has calmed himself from his temper, the parents ought not to scold him or remain disapproving in their attitude, for the child feels upset by his emotional outburst and needs to be comforted and distracted.

The more often parents are able to avoid making issues and having direct clashes of will with their children before they are old enough to understand the reasons for things, the happier will the home relation be and the more surely will such unnecessary evils as temper tantrums be avoided. This does not mean that the child must always have his way. Nearly always an issue can be avoided if the adult uses his imagination, ingenuity, and sense of humour. For instance, a child of eighteen months may not wish to get in his pram even though he is tired, but prefer to continue running along the street. Instead of saying, " You have to get in," his mother says, " Come, I'll put you in and make the pram run as fast as you were." She makes her suggestion so attractive that he is delighted to fall in with it.

Fears and Anxieties

FEARS FROM WITHOUT. Because of his short memory, which enables him to forget hurts and injuries, and because of his complete ignorance of the physical world and its effects, a child usually lacks fear and therefore caution during his second year. It is not through stupidity but through inexperience that he sticks his hand in the mouth of a strange dog, walks off high places, and seizes hold of sharp or hot things.

Since sensible fear is a necessary protection, a mother's problem is to temper this reckless curiosity with prudence, without making her child apprehensive. To do this she can protect him from serious hurt by making his surroundings as safe as possible. If there is a bad staircase she can fence it off with a folding gate; or if there is a duck pond in the garden she can put a temporary fence around it. The feeling of security she derives from knowing that such dangers are eliminated more than makes up for the trouble she has taken. Another thing she can do is to give the child experiences through which he may develop caution, skill, and self-confidence. If she lets him go near the open fireplace when it is very hot, he will draw himself back from the powerful heat and

will become wary of fire. After being encouraged to practice climbing low stairs, he is not so likely to pitch down the long staircase some day when she is not watching. Gradually he becomes prudent from his own first-hand experience.

Over-apprehensiveness often results in perpetual cautioning which may make the child more timid and fearful than the hard bumps and knocks he has been saved from. As the child grows older he senses more clearly his mother's fears and makes them his own. A woman who has an unreasoning fear of mice or snakes may by example imbue her child with the same fear, unless she makes a real effort both to control it and to hide it from him.

Sometimes parents in their efforts to control their children and exact obedience are so foolish as to use threats of policemen or bogy men. "If you climb out of bed I'll call the policeman and he will take you away," says the exasperated parent. Such false warnings seldom have any effect on the child's behaviour at the time they are made, but may result in irrational fears later.

FEARS FROM WITHIN. A young child does not distinguish clearly the difference between a deed and a wish. As a result he can feel just as guilty for wishing something which is considered bad as for doing it. For instance, a father slaps his three-year-old boy who has spat at him. The boy flies into a fury and shouts, "I'll hit you with an axe!" The mother and father show their horror of this threat by their expressions and the tone of their voices, and the child feels deeply guilty. The next time the boy is angry at his father and feels like doing him physical injury he may be afraid to voice his wish or even to be consciously aware of it, but deep within the wish will trouble him and make him fear punishment for harbouring such an evil thought. In this way a child, when he has desires which he has been made to feel are wicked, may become frightened and anxious even though he may not consciously know what is troubling him. Such unconscious fears and guilt express themselves in a variety of different ways of which stuttering, nail-biting, bed-wetting, tics, and nightmares may be expressions.

To prevent their child from experiencing unconscious guilt over his childish and primitive wishes, parents can be mild both in their expressions of disapproval toward his unacceptable behaviour and in the punishments they mete out. They will not feel any horror if they realize that the child's expressed desire to "kill daddy" is a threat the meaning of which he does not fully understand.

If the child feels sure of his mother's and father's genuine and enduring affection and if he is confident that they will always come when he really needs them, he has only fleeting moments of anxiety and insecurity. When an eighteen-month-old child is sent

to nursery school, he may for the first two or three days feel fearful and disturbed until his mother returns for him at lunch time; but he soon becomes reconciled to her absence because he has learned that she always does return for him when she says she will.

If a mother is too occupied with interests outside the house and does not find the time or the interest to establish this necessary relation of confidence, her child will be apt to suffer from a feeling of insecurity and neglect. The other extreme also exists. The mother who never allows her child out of her sight and never lets anyone but herself look after him is making him too emotionally dependent on her. Sooner or later there will come an occasion when she will have to be separated from him, and then his anxiety will be great.

ANXIETIES AROUSED BY A NEW BABY. One source of great anxiety and insecurity for a child is the birth of a new brother or sister. A child under two is still such a baby himself that he cannot help feeling supplanted when the new infant appears. Unfortunately he has no words with which to express his jealousy and chagrin, nor does he always know the cause of his uneasiness. He is likely to show it, however, in any of a number of ways. He may start making a fuss at mealtimes, or his newly acquired bowel habits may suffer a relapse, or he may have nightmares. He may become destructive in his play and start throwing things about and breaking them. He may, as we have already seen, become aggressive with people, kicking and slapping at the slightest provocation, or he may start saying "No-no-no" to everyone and everything.

Unless a child shows his jealousy in obvious ways, such as by slapping, pushing, or throwing things at the new baby, a mother often does not understand his departures from his usual behaviour. "Why, he isn't in the least jealous," she will say. "He never even looks at his small brother." Not being aware of his jealousy, she feels irritated towards the child who has "chosen to make a fuss just when I'm so busy and so tired." Instead, she should remember that whatever his change in behaviour may be—whether it is an attempt to get more attention, a reversion to more childish ways, or some form of aggressive behaviour—its cause is almost surely related to his emotional disturbance created by the arrival of the newborn.

If the child is still under two when the new baby is born, there is not much a mother can do in advance to prepare him for the event, except to tell him the baby is coming before he hears it from someone else, to make sure he understands that her absence is a temporary one (if she is going to a hospital or nursing home), and

to arrange good, loving care for him, while she is away. After the infant is born, however, there are numerous ways in which she can make it easier for the older child. She may start by giving him a new toy as a celebration of the baby's arrival. A doll baby is particularly appropriate at this age, whether the child is a boy or a girl, as the child then feels he also has something to care for. Whenever the mother is caring for the infant and the older child is present, she may avoid great display of emotion and enlist the older child's interest and help by giving him small things to do, such as fetching a cup or a napkin, or helping push the pram. He can even sit on the floor and hold the baby in his arms for a few minutes.

The mother should make an effort to give the older child an extra amount of affectionate attention, try to give him daily some of her time alone, and provide him with frequent little treats. Moreover if the older one shows any relapses from his former behaviour, a mother should show no concern or anger but merely be affectionate, patient, and attentive. Thus handled, the child can be made to feel that the new baby is partly his to take care of and enjoy and that his mother's love and attention for him have not been lessened. (This is discussed in relation to older children in Chapter IX.)

ANXIETY ARISING FROM CONFLICT. Probably in the latter part of his first year, and certainly in his second year, anxiety arises over conflicting desires. Both during his first and second year all his energies are directed toward obtaining pleasurable experiences, and he tends to resist anything that threatens to curtail these pleasures. But he discovers that certain kinds of behaviour on his part bring adult approval, and other kinds bring disapproval. Disapproval, he learns, is often directed toward things he likes and wants and enjoys. The result is a conflict between his desire for adult approval and his desire for the pleasures the adult is denying him. For example, the child who takes great pleasure in tasting, biting, and sucking every new object he encounters finds that he often incurs his parents' displeasure by doing this. This forces a choice upon him.

Adult approval is most important to a young child. He is happy when his mother is pleased and praises him. He also wants to avoid displeasing her because he may be afraid of losing her love and help. In addition, he fears her wrath because he likens it to his own. When he is angry he hits, kicks, bites, and tries to hurt; hence he expects from others the same kind of primitive anger as he experiences himself. The mother who punishes her child tit for tat, who hits him when he hits her and pinches him when he pinches her, confirms his dread and increases not only his

resentment toward her but also his fear. The same unwholesome result is achieved by the strictly disciplinarian parent who uses corporal punishment.

This conflict between a child's desire for pleasure and his desire for adult approval marks the development of conscience. The child will be of two minds about many things. His natural instincts, which will continue to seek unrestricted pleasure and gratification, will more and more often find themselves at variance with that part of himself which is trying to impose upon him the standards of those about him.

His conscience will make him feel guilty not only when he does certain things but also when he wishes for or fancies doing them. His conscience, too, will make him feel guilty about his aggressive wishes. If he feels like hurting his new baby sister, for instance, he may feel very guilty about it, even though he does her no actual harm. Such feelings of guilt and the anxieties they give rise to place a strain on a child and produce irrational fears, bad dreams, and nervous and irritable behaviour.

Parents may prevent this kind of anxiety in their children by neither making the standards of behaviour too high nor expressing a shocked disapproval. They should at all times avoid giving the child a sense of guilt by making him feel " dirty " or " bad " or " wicked " about his habits and thoughts ; and they should avoid punishing him in a severe, disciplinarian way.

Family Relations

FATHER AND BABY. The changes that take place during a child's second year of life are usually quite exciting to a father. He is interested in the child's first steps, his first words, and his increased responsiveness. At this stage, just as when the child was younger, a mother is advised to adapt the family's routine to the father's habits as much as possible so that the father can see the child conveniently. At the same time, as a small, inquisitive, destructive child can often be very trying to the nerves of a tired man, she should try to keep the child from being too much in the way.

Frequently during this year the problem of mixed authority begins. Usually it is the mother who is stricter because it is she who has the twenty-four-hour job of keeping her child from doing too much damage either to himself or to the household property, and also because she knows his physical limitations better. It is essential for parents to agree on rules and taboos, for if a father permits what the mother has forbidden, or vice versa, the child becomes thoroughly confused. If a mother, for instance, has forbidden the child ever to touch the ash trays, the father, not

realizing or remembering this, may participate in an active game of ash-tray rolling. Or a mother may tell her eighteen-month-old child that after she has sung him one lullaby she expects him to settle down for the night and be quiet, and that if he does call no one will come to him. Then, while she is cooking supper, the baby calls again and the father, who has just come in, hears him and goes to his bedside.

Many such situations require discussion in advance, when the child is not listening, so that the parents may have a clear understanding of what procedure to follow. Agreement on the rules laid down for the child's conduct means that both parents must be equally firm in upholding the rules. This is only fair to the child and to themselves. A child quickly senses a grown-up's soft side and tries to take advantage of it; if he succeeds, he drives a wedge into his parents' authority and makes it difficult for them to control him and keep him to his regular routine.

Mothers themselves, however, sometimes err on the side of too much routine and too much strictness. If a father and his small daughter are having a gorgeous time rolling on the forbidden bedspread, it is perhaps better for her to shut her eyes to this infringement of rules and not interrupt them. A father and his child learn to know and enjoy each other in these all too brief moments of play. At this age, too, children begin to enjoy a ritual. A child likes to have one special thing he does regularly with " daddy." The father may have a morning romp and then take the child down to breakfast each day, or he may sing to him a few minutes, or play some special game or give him a pickaback ride before bedtime. These evening moments, of course, should not be made too thrilling for the child lest he should become excited and overwrought before going to bed.

A Parent's Attitude Toward Friends and Relatives. As a child grows older and is awake an increasing number of hours during the day, he is bound to come into closer contact with any relative who is either a frequent visitor or a regular part of the household. It is now even more important than before for parents to stick to their own ideas concerning the training of their child and insist that the relative follows suit, for it is harmful to the child to have conflicting standards of behaviour imposed on him. It may take great tact and patience on the part of the mother to persuade " grandma " or " auntie " to conform to her ideas, but if she is firm enough she can usually succeed.

Even a small child is deeply distressed by the arguments and quarrels of grown-ups in the family circle, particularly when they concern him; hence these are to be avoided at all costs. Remem-

bering the violent form his own anger takes, he is often terrified lest the angry words of grown-ups should lead to blows. This terror showed itself in a little girl of twenty-three months who had a series of nightmares. On being awakened from one of these she clung to her mother weeping. "Grandma not hit Mamma?" she asked six times with great intensity. That day the mother had had a heated argument with her mother-in-law in which the latter had become particularly exercised and angry, and the little girl had apparently interpreted it in her own vivid fashion.

Relatives and friends who drop in occasionally for an afternoon's visit pose a different sort of problem. Their tendency is to focus on the child too intense a stream of attention and enthusiasm. The child either feels frightened and cries, or retires into his shell; or else he shows off to his utmost. Another temptation common to visiting adults is that of talking about the child in front of him, making him extremely self-conscious.

Of course parents cannot entirely prevent the effusions of kindly friends and relatives, but they can lessen their bad effects by maintaining a casual attitude about visitors. If a mother does not place too much emphasis on dressing the child up, keeping him clean, uncrumpled, quiet, and well behaved, she will make the experience of meeting strangers much easier for him, and he will become accustomed to a variety of people without fuss or excitement, and with no undue fear or self-consciousness.

A mother's expression of mortification or embarrassment when her child does not look or act his best on being introduced to a visitor is likely to be detected by him and to make him even more contrary in his behaviour. Matters may be simplified if, out of the child's hearing, she asks the more effusive relatives or friends not to pay much attention or make personal remarks, warning them that the child is likely to be timid and self-conscious at first. It is a good plan to let a child carry one of his favourite toys along, as it gives him a certain confidence and directs the conversation to it rather than to him. In five minutes, when the visitor's enthusiastic attention has returned to adult interests, possession of the toy gives the child something to play with and helps to keep him quiet and well behaved.

THE CHILD'S SUSCEPTIBILITY TO HOME ATMOSPHERE. A one-year-old child is quite as susceptible to the emotional state of his mother as he was during the first year and much more aware of the relationship between his parents and other members of the household. It is still essential, therefore, for the mother to try to keep in a happy, serene frame of mind, and even more important for her not to overcrowd her life with activities that take her outside the home,

for as we have already said a one-year-old baby requires even more of her time and patience than he did when he was younger.

Often a woman is upset because she finds that at times she is short-tempered with her child. This of course happens on occasion to practically every mother. She may remind herself that everyone's tempo, the speed at which he does things, varies according to his particular make up.

The mother who is temperamentally more in sympathy with an older age does not make a bad mother to the young child, but she does have to school herself more frequently in self-control. The woman who is aware of her own impatience can watch for its appearance. When she feels her muscles tighten and her jaws clench she can consciously make the effort to relax and become calm and tranquil within herself before having anything further to do with her child. As one quick-tempered young mother said, " When I find myself getting angry I walk around the room once or twice saying, ' Loose, loose, loose ' to all my muscles, before I say anything more to Billy. If I don't force myself to relax this way I am likely to shake or slap him and then we have a real fuss."

PART III

TWO TO SIX YEARS

CHAPTER VI

TRAINING

Eating Habits—Thumb-sucking and Other Problems—Bowel and Bladder Control—Sleep.

BETWEEN the ages of two and six a child is busy modelling his behaviour on that of the adults around him and particularly on the behaviour of his parent of the same sex. He is also learning to adapt himself more and more to the daily routines and prohibitions of life, and is gaining a greater control over his impulses. His greater awareness of the world about him is opening up new horizons every day, and this wider outlook, in turn, is bringing him a clearer understanding of the relationship between cause and effect. This understanding is of increasing importance to him, since it is through it that he learns to avoid certain pitfalls. Knives are sharp, glass is breakable, fire is hot, scissors are pointed, and kittens usually scratch if they have their tails pulled or fingers poked in their eyes. He is therefore beginning to treat these objects with the respect due to them, and is discovering that when a harmful effect can be foreseen, it can be judiciously avoided. This is one of his first great steps toward maturity.

It is not surprising that parents develop new doubts about their ability to deal with their children successfully during these years. When the child forms undesirable habits of one sort or another, they become puzzled as to what should be done. They sometimes fear that their child's actions will shame them in the eyes of their friends. They worry as to whether they are overstimulating him mentally, and whether they are being too strict or too lenient.

Again, all parents need to be reminded that they are bound to blunder sometimes in the way they handle their children, but that these errors do not count in the long run if the family relationships are genuinely loving, harmonious, and happy. If the parents could only put themselves in the place of their child at this age, they would be less likely to feel impatient with what seems to be his slow progress. Never, at any other period of his life, is he faced with

the problem of learning so many new things at once. He is picking up (simply by ear and without benefit of grammar books, teachers, or the ability to read) the art of expressing himself in his mother tongue; he is learning various natural laws of force, gravitation, heat and light, and cause and effect; his hands are beginning to manipulate a thousand strange objects and materials; he is mastering the arts of walking, running, jumping, climbing; he is trying to adapt himself to the social environment of law and order, and is discovering the perversity of buttons, shoe laces, slippery soap, and peas on a spoon. His problems of learning could be multiplied a hundredfold, and this, it must be remembered, at an age of three or thereabouts, when his faculties are not yet fully developed. No wonder that a child goes through phases when his behaviour is difficult; no wonder that he makes endless mistakes and needs continual help.

One aspect of his development that drives many parents to the verge of despair is the fact that one unpleasant habit successfully discarded is so often merely exchanged for another. No sooner does little Mary overcome her habit of sucking her thumb than she begins to spit at everyone. When Tom finally stops hitting people, he begins to use bad language. By the time Edward's stuttering has diminished, he starts blinking his eyes nervously. In each case the parents should try to understand what has prompted this kind of behaviour before they decide what corrective measures, if any, should be taken.

The great fundamental need for the two, three, four, and five year olds is a background of real security. As the child grows more perceptive, however, the elements that contribute toward his feeling of security are more numerous and more complicated. He wants at all times to feel loved by his parents. He also wants to feel that they are not continually anxious or worried about him, for this diminishes his confidence and faith in himself. He needs to be protected from the physical dangers of the world. He also needs to be protected from mental confusion and overstimulation, for the child who has too many inappropriate experiences, or who is given too much abstract knowledge to assimilate, becomes mixed up about everything. He should not have too difficult demands made upon him, as these will make him uncertain of his own capacities. Above all, he should be kept from feeling like a bad child, for guilt will destroy his confidence in himself and make him feel unloved and unwanted. All parents who are really interested in their children's welfare can learn to provide them with this kind of security. It is the best possible preparation the child can have for meeting the difficulties of life successfully and for becoming a person who has

self-confidence, initiative, and the capacity for deep emotional relationships.

Eating Habits

THE CHIEF REASON FOR POOR EATING. Nearly all of the problems of child-feeding come from the belief of the parents that their child is not eating enough. As soon as the child has learned that by refusing his food, dawdling over it, or playing with it, he can command his mother's attention, he will readily use one of these methods for that purpose. He may thoroughly enjoy being begged and coaxed. "Please, Johnny, just one more little bit for Mummy—there—that's a wonderful fellow." Another may prefer the pleasure of defying his mother, thus proving his own strength and power. "No, no, no, I won't eat it," he yells, and is pleased by the conflict that results.

Parents who desire their children to have good eating habits must learn to remain casual and untroubled by their occasional refusal to eat, their slowness, and their frequent lapses from good manners. If a child who is not having his meals with the grown-ups is unwilling to eat anything, or will eat only a small quantity, it is best to consider the meal finished when he says he has had enough and let him turn his attention to other things. If he is eating with the rest of the family when he refuses his food, this should not be allowed to disturb the other members of the family. Depending on his age, he may be allowed either to leave the table and go to his room to play, or remain seated but have some book to look at. In either event the food should be removed from his place, as the temptation to play with it usually proves irresistible if he sits there idly; and it is also difficult for the adults who see a full plate of food in front of a child not to urge or coax him to eat it.

Most mothers seem to think that if their child does not fill up with food, starvation will overcome him before the next meal. They may rest assured, however, that no such calamity has ever occurred. Young and old are little the worse off for skipping an occasional meal or even several meals; on the contrary, when they do begin eating again, they are likely to do so with all the better appetite. A child whose refusal to eat evokes no concern whatever in his parent, and who is allowed to go without food until his next meal, may think up some new method of trying to attract his mother's attention, but he will soon abandon his efforts at hunger-striking.

For the child who is very slow in his eating and who chews interminably on his food, a time limit may be fixed beyond which

he cannot remain at the table. It is only fair, of course, for the mother to give him warning of this. "Mother can't wait for you," he may be told. "After the grown-ups have finished, it will be time to leave the dining room." If he is told this, the parent will have to remember to eat more slowly, for adults normally eat at a considerably faster rate than children. Or, if the child is eating alone, his mother may say, "At six o'clock it will be story-telling time, and we'll have to leave supper whether you have finished or not." He should be reminded of this once or twice, and then when six o'clock comes, supper should be taken away, even if he has just started feeding himself. The next time he will take the warning more seriously. If a child is purposely sloppy and messy, or if he indulges in unattractive behaviour, such as purposely rubbing greasy hands on the table or gargling his food, he may be given one or two warnings after which, if he still continues, his food may be removed from him or he may be made to leave the table.

It is most important for the parents to show no disapproval when the child will not eat. "If you don't want to eat, Johnny, you may leave," should be said with neither anxiety nor reproach, so that the child should not acquire the idea that by not eating, or by behaving badly at the table, he will succeed in commanding an unusual amount of attention.

A two year old who had an articulate, pretty sister aged three and a half, of whom he was extremely jealous, discovered that by refusing his food he could claim all his mother's attention at mealtimes. For a period of two months he never ate until she had coaxed and threatened him in turn. The problem was then discussed with the doctor, and, acting on his advice, she devoted more of her time and attention to the little boy during the course of each day, but forced herself to show complete indifference to his habits during mealtimes. After the first difficult week, during which he ate very little, his appetite reasserted itself, and he once more became a good eater.

There is one other difficulty related to mealtimes which is commonly observed in children. Mothers are often surprised at the number of childish arguments, quarrels, and tearful incidents that occur in the half-hour before lunch or supper is served. The children, perhaps, have been playing perfectly happily all morning long, but when the delicious odour of roast lamb or baked potatoes starts seeping through the house, their hunger, which has been creeping up on them unnoticeably, now becomes acute. This in turn often produces a shortness of temper, and there is apt to be some bickering and fighting and an outbreak of peevishness. All

this is fairly normal and the meal itself will restore the children to good humour. If the meal is not on time, a small piece of rusk will not only assuage hurt feelings but will also allay the pangs of hunger without spoiling the appetite.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF GOOD EATING HABITS. Fortunately, a child who has been a good eater during his first years seldom develops serious mealtime problems after two. Almost invariably, however, he acquires annoying tricks: he may chew his fare endlessly without swallowing; he may want to spit out partially masticated food; he may make unattractive noises; or he may want to chew with his mouth open. He also goes through periods when he neglects his food.

To encourage good eating habits, parents may continue to supervise their children's meals but without emphasis. Although a child acquires more muscular skill and a longer span of concentration after his second birthday, he still needs a little help at table. If he shows a tiredness or a desire to be coddled, his mother may occasionally spoon-feed him for part of the meal. He will be encouraged to help himself if the chair he sits in is the right height and shape, his spoon not too big, his glass or cup easy to hold, and if he has a biscuit or piece of bread to use as a pusher when he is eating slippery foods, such as peas or stewed fruit. Until three, if he finds it hard to sit still right through a meal, a little run between courses to fetch his toast or pudding, for instance, will ease the strain on his powers of endurance.

From then on, it is a good thing to give the child a wider variety of foods so that he will become accustomed to many new tastes and consistencies. A child's curiosity about adult foods may be satisfied by allowing him to taste them. A spoonful of coffee or tea, a bite of pork, or a small morsel of plum pudding is not harmful to the digestion and educates his taste. As a result of these experiments he will enjoy a wide variety of viands when he is older and will not be a fussy eater who looks upon anything new with suspicion and dislike. Variety is desirable so that the child should not tire of any staple dish. Kate and Peter both tired of Farex, then of Cream of Wheat, then of oatmeal, and finally of eggs. After eliminating these completely from their diet for a month, they were reinstated and were once more eaten with relish.

Small first portions and second helpings are always better than large first portions, as nothing is more discouraging to the appetite of child or adult than a heaped-up plate. Many doctors recommend giving a child who has begun to refuse his food miniature meals consisting of one-half or one-fourth of the regular serving for a few days, and letting him eat as much as he wants

of this quantity, until his appetite comes back and he asks for more.

The proverbial " eat your spinach, it's good for you " formula applied to any food is an almost sure way of making it disliked. If the mother really wants a child to enjoy spinach, let her make sure that it is cooked in an appetizing fashion, for children have a keen sense of taste. She can use indirect persuasion by eating the spinach herself with some apparent degree of relish instead of distaste, for a child will imitate to a great extent the likes and dislikes of adults as well as their manners at the table.

Special cravings, as well as special likes and dislikes, become even more frequent after two. They may be the result of some physical growth need. They are caused possibly by the child's desire to copy the adults and eat only what he sees them eat, or they may come from some imaginary ideas or phantasies about a special food, based on its colour, shape or consistency. These cravings and notions should be humoured, since they do no harm. The less attention they are given, the more quickly they are forgotten.

The practice of serving meals at regular hours should be continued, and there should be a routine to the meal itself, with the milk coming towards the end. If this is not done, a thirsty child will drain off his milk so fast that a bubble of air may collect in his stomach and he will feel too filled up to do justice to the other foods.

From two on, children become so absorbed in their activities that they do not always like to stop their play for meals. The interruption is less resented, however, if those in charge give them a warning ahead of time. " It's almost time for lunch, so you had better start putting your toys away." After a five-minute interval during which the child has received two or three warnings, he is usually ready, with a little adult help, to put away his toys or tools and start washing up.

It is also advisable to establish as part of the regular routine a short period of rest before each meal if the play has been strenuous, for a child often becomes overtired or overwrought by hard play without his parents having realized it. A brief rest on his bed, or in an easy chair will calm him down ; or he may look at a book, or cut out pictures, string beads, or use his crayons for ten minutes or so. When, by crying or showing temper or being unusually fussy, the child shows he is emotionally disturbed the meal should be delayed, if possible, until he has regained his composure. If it is not convenient to delay the meal, the parents may at least refrain from urging the child to eat, as the food is likely to disagree with him on such occasions.

Sometimes children do not eat well because they are too hungry

as well as too tired. For this reason it is sensible to let the child have a light snack both in the middle of the morning and in the middle of the afternoon. This may consist of some kind of fruit or fruit juice and a biscuit or two.

Parents are apt to lay too great a stress on their child's table manners at too early an age. If a young child learns not to throw or spill food, he is doing well enough. When too much importance is attached to his behaviour at table, eating becomes a difficult and trying job instead of a pleasant occupation. Nor should a child who shows a strong inclination to eat with his left hand be urged to change to his right, as this makes difficulties in later years.

Around four, a child's desire to have acceptable table manners appears spontaneously. This desire can be encouraged by extending to him some of the dining privileges of the adults, such as using pretty dishes instead of his unbreakable bowls or plates. He can also be allowed to drink from a glass instead of a cup, to use a napkin instead of a bib, and to help himself out of the main serving-dish instead of having his food dished out to him in advance. Because of children's lack of co-ordination and practice, however, parents must resign themselves to many mishaps and accidents in the way of spilling and breakages. As long as they are reasonably tolerant and do not expect perfection in these early years, a child will show gradual but steady improvement.

Between his first and second birthdays a child has such a specialized routine and diet that he usually has his meals alone. As he grows older and is able to eat an increasing variety of foods, his parents begin to wonder at what age he should begin eating with them. There is no doubt that a child, particularly if he is over four, learns much about table manners and the amenities of life by eating with his parents, and that he also profits at times from their conversation. This is admirable, particularly if he is not made to feel rushed by the grown-ups' speed in eating. On the other hand, a young child who eats with adults or with much older brothers and sisters is likely to become so absorbed in what they are discussing that he forgets to eat and, instead, listens to talk which is both confusing and inappropriate for him. A child may sit gazing off into space, seemingly paying no attention to what is being said, while war is being discussed. Several days later he will ask, " Why do men shoot other men ? " or some question equally difficult to answer.

Parents, it must be admitted, do not always find meals with their young children an unadulterated pleasure. The mother who does her own cooking may find a certain saving of labour in not having to prepare a special meal for the child, and fathers may learn a good

deal about their children from the comments they make at the table. But to offset these advantages are other factors that may make the meal a trial for the grown-ups. At a table with three children under six years of age, conversation between parents becomes almost impossible because of the continual wrigglings, chair tilting, noises, and other attention-getting devices of the younger element. Much of the children's conversation at this age is limited to giggling, personal comments about the others' appearance, fatuous boasting, and interminable though not enlightening debates consisting of staccato statements, "You did!" "I didn't!" ad infinitum. Under this bombardment parents are apt to find their tempers getting short, and the meal, instead of being peacefully enjoyed, deteriorates into something resembling feeding time at the zoo.

The best solution depends on the child and the family situation. Many families find it helpful to plan the meals in such a way that the child only eats at the grown-ups' table on special occasions, such as the Sunday midday meal or once a week at supper time. This constitutes a special treat for the child who makes a great effort to be on his best behaviour; and it also makes it a pleasant occasion for the parents who have not had their patience taxed by a week of mealtime irritations. When his behaviour permits, the child can then be allowed to have one meal daily, such as breakfast, with his parents and to have his other meals alone.

Loss of Appetite. Occasionally a child who has been an excellent eater will suddenly lose his appetite. In some cases the doctor finds a physical cause and remedy for this, but in others, it may be due to the fact that the child is not completely recovered from some illness, such as whooping cough, which takes much longer to get over than parents expect. Poor eating may also be the result of continued bad weather, which has kept a child indoors over an unusually long period of time, or of a heat spell. Sometimes a child goes off his feed because he has eaten too much. The remedy in this case is to give him smaller meals for a few days.

If no physical reason can be discovered for a young child's loss of appetite, the cause is apt to be some emotional disturbance. Perhaps he is unhappy in his relationships at home or at school. He may have become jealous of his new sister. His older brother may be bullying him. Perhaps he feels neglected because his mother has had to be away for a longer period than he is accustomed to. Or he may not be getting on very well with his playmates. He may even reflect his parents' difficulties. If there is tension between his father and mother, or if they are worried or unhappy

about something, he may develop anxiety which shows itself by a lack of appetite, just as often happens with an adult.

When a child is emotionally upset and this is reflected in his eating habits, parents should not appear anxious to the child about it. It is important, however, to make an effort to discover what is causing the child's unhappiness. How is he taking the new baby's arrival? Are his adjustments to the adults and children around him satisfactory? Does he feel loved and secure in the family group? For instance, if a three year old is upset because his elder brother of five no longer plays with him but devotes all his time to playing with the new five-year-old neighbour girl, the mother is usually able to persuade the two older children to include the younger in some of their games. Or she may be able to find a three-year-old playmate for the younger child, or to suggest some new occupation, or to allow the younger child to accompany her on her morning shopping expeditions, thus causing him to forget his unhappiness at the feeling of being left out. Sometimes, however, the cause of the disturbance cannot be discovered. The most a parent can do is to experiment with this and that, searching for possible reasons why the child is upset, and in the meantime showing no alarm over his lack of appetite.

THE POOR EATER OF TWO AND OVER. If a child has eaten poorly for the first two years of his life, and if his physique shows that he is undernourished, the problem should receive careful consideration. Naturally the first person to turn to for advice is the family doctor.

Frequently in cases where the child has been eating insufficiently over a period of time, the parents have become so tense about the situation that they are not able to act with the necessary attitude of casualness at mealtimes. It is then better for them, if possible, to hand over the task to someone else for a few weeks or months. Sometimes an aunt, a cousin, or a temporary nurse, who has been impressed with the importance of neither urging the child to eat nor showing any anxiety if he does not eat, may have some success. The person who is thus helping, however, must not have her routine and method interrupted by the parent during this time and must be consistent in her attitude toward the child's eating.

Even a problem eater will not starve himself indefinitely. Usually when he discovers that the adult in charge of the meals does not care whether he eats only his dessert or leaves his whole meal, he will begin eating.

Another good plan is to let a child who eats poorly associate with other children at mealtimes. This can be brought about by frequently having guests of his age. The effect of seeing other

children eating with real appetite and pleasure often helps him. The same end may be achieved if the child has a bird, a cat, a bunny, or a dog which he must feed every day. The pet's eagerness to be fed may influence the child's attitude toward his own food. Sometimes a child's interest in food can be aroused by giving him certain responsibilities connected with the preparation of his meals. He can go to market with his mother, choose the vegetables he wants for lunch, and carry some of them home in a paper bag. A child nearly always takes pleasure and pride in this kind of responsibility. The mother can go even further and let him help prepare and cook his food. If he is just two, his assistance may be limited to shelling a few peas, filling the pan with water, and blowing out the match with which the stove was lighted. If all these efforts, tried over a period of several months, bring about no improvement, the doctor should again be consulted, and the advisability of visiting a specialist may be discussed with him.

THUMB-SUCKING. It is both usual and natural for a child between two and three years, and even after three years of age, to suck his thumb or his fingers occasionally. As at earlier ages, the times when he is most likely to do this are when he is tired, bored, discouraged or unhappy. Since bottle-feeding formerly gave him pleasure, he takes to sucking his thumb as a substitute.

A child over two may also suck his thumb because his second molars are coming through. As these are usually through by two, parents often forget them if they come at a later age, and may wonder why their child of twenty-eight months has become fussy and has reverted to sucking his thumb.

If a child shows a continued desire to suck his thumb and other objects that come within his reach, certain foods, such as hard crusts, wheat or rye crispbreads, and bones which he can suck as well as chew, may be given him frequently. Oranges, lollypops, and boiled sweets also give him an outlet for his sucking impulses.

Thumb-sucking induced by a child's cutting more teeth is only a passing phase and can be disregarded. Since the total number of baby teeth are twenty, parents can quickly decide whether or not the practice is the result of this discomfort.

Often a child reverts to baby ways because the standards set for him and the demands made upon him are too difficult. Perhaps at two and a half he is trying to keep up with an older brother or sister, or he may be associating with a group of children who are too old and active for him. He may not have the toys and occupations suitable for his age and skill, or for some reason he may feel neglected.

By finding occupations that are appropriate and entertaining for

him, by removing any strain he may be under, and by making him feel especially loved and cared for, the thumb-sucking eventually is bound to diminish and disappear. In any event, absolutely no direct attention should be paid to it. Trying to break the child of the habit by forceful methods, such as pulling the thumb out of the mouth, using splints, or painting the fingers with bitter stuffs, is harmful and strictly to be avoided, because it makes an issue of the habit. The child then becomes determined to keep it up, or if he represses the desires through fear or discomfort he is resentful and uses some substitute such as bed-wetting as an outlet.

Molly, by two, had ceased sucking her thumb almost completely. The only times she did it was when she hurt herself, when she suddenly found herself in a large group of children or adults she did not know, when she was tired after a particularly strenuous morning, and sometimes when she went to bed at night. At two and a quarter her brother Mark, who had been playing exclusively with her for three months, made friends with a neighbour, a boy six months older than himself. This boy soon became a constant visitor. Whenever the new friend appeared, Mark would devote most of his attention to him. For two weeks Molly made no effort to join them in their play, but stood around with her thumb in her mouth, crying frequently. Then one day Molly took a drive in the car with the two boys. She made funny faces and funny noises, while Mark's friend laughed uproariously at her and kept repeating, "Look at Molly, isn't she cute?" The next day some new sand was put in the empty sandbox, and the three children played in it together absorbedly. In another ten days Molly had forgotten her thumb and was playing happily with the two boys.

Two months later her mother and father went away, leaving her and her brother with their grandmother. Molly was extremely fond of her grandmother, but seemed somewhat awed by the new and different household. She began to suck her thumb again. In an effort to cure her, her grandmother teased her about it in a kindly way. The thumb-sucking increased markedly and her appetite diminished. When her parents returned, it took her a week to forget her thumb and to play with the two boys as freely as before.

NAIL-BITING. Nail-biting is like thumb-sucking in that no direct attention should be paid to it and no direct means should be taken to stop it. It is usually an outlet for nervous energy and an expression of anxiety, and it is increased by excitement or fatigue.

If the nail-biting is only an occasional practice, it can sometimes be diminished or stopped by simplifying the child's routine and by

avoiding any exhausting and over-exciting experiences, such as the cinema or long journeys. Occasionally nail-biting can be reduced by an appeal to the child's pride. If it is a girl, a manicure may be given occasionally so that she begins to feel proud of having pretty hands and nails. In any case, the nails should be kept short and smooth as this lessens the temptation to bite them.

However, if the child is an inveterate nail-biter the cure is not so simple, and advice had better be sought from the family doctor.

BITING AND CHEWING. By the time he is two, the child's diet should include a variety of foods he can chew, and this should be increased during the next year as he learns to masticate and as he acquires more teeth. Vegetables, for instance, need no longer be puréed, and his meat may be given to him in larger pieces. When he shows a readiness for it, his diet should include a greater number of foods which he can bite and chew on, such as apples, celery, raw carrots, wheat or rye crispbreads, crusts, hard toast and biscuits, and bones with some meat left on them. Such foods serve the double purpose of being good for his teeth and of teaching him to chew. Without a proper diet of this sort, a child often acts like a puppy and bites all sorts of inappropriate things—the edge of his cot or pen, and his toys.

Quite apart from the physical need for biting and chewing is the discovery made sooner or later by all small children that their teeth are a splendid weapon both for offence and defence. (Ways of dealing with this and other forms of aggression are discussed under Authority, in Chapter IX.)

SPITTING. Spitting is an act which the adult usually takes pains to teach a child when he first starts brushing his teeth, some time during the first year. Soon the child begins to enjoy his new prowess and starts practising his skill and marksmanship in a variety of places. The adult then tries to curb him. At this point the child discovers that spitting, like biting, is another splendid weapon of offence and an infallible way of getting adult attention when other means have failed. For this reason the less attention an adult pays to a child's spitting activities the less he will be annoyed by their continuance.

At the first sign of irritation on the part of an adult, the child feels that he has succeeded in his object of getting attention and will repeat his act whenever he is inclined. Simon, for instance, was three and a half when he discovered that he could get a rise in this way out of his maiden aunt who sometimes looked after him. She had asked him one evening to undress but he refused to, openly defying her; and when she threatened to take his clothes off forcibly, he spat at her. To his joy this annoyed her consider-

ably and brought about excited scolding. From then on, for a period of six months, whenever she looked after him, he had only to spit in order to attract her attention, annoy her or make her angry. Elated with this new weapon, he tried it on his parents a few times, but finding they paid no attention to him he soon gave it up when in their company.

Bowel and Bladder Control

QUESTIONS RELATING TO BOWEL CONTROL. By two, most children have acquired fairly regular bowel habits and rarely soil themselves. Sitting on the pot after breakfast has become a normal and pleasant part of the daily routine. Quite often they discover during the third year, if they have not done so before, that not only the expulsion of a motion but its retention can give certain mildly enjoyable sensations. This may cause them to withhold their stool, particularly if it brings them the interest and attention of the adult. If a child does not perform in the accustomed way after breakfast, the adult should not urge him unduly or show any concern, but should ask the child to try again for a few minutes after he has had his lunch. This should be repeated after each meal until a proper result is obtained. Soon the child will lose his curiosity about the new sensation and will return to his regular habits. A daily movement is not necessary and many children skip a day now and then with no harm to their health. There is also no virtue in having it at the same time every day or at any particular time. The middle of the afternoon serves the same purpose as after breakfast. Any show of parental concern because their child's bowels do not move like clockwork is soon detected by the child, and he frequently learns to withhold his stools as an attention-getting device.

Between the ages of two and three, all children continue to have a natural curiosity about their stools, and this prompts them on occasion to touch them and sometimes smear them around, either on themselves or on the furniture and walls. As with the younger child, no anger or displeasure should be shown at such behaviour, however difficult it may be to conceal it. "No, that is a mistake," the mother may quietly explain. "Your pot is the place for that."

In this way the child is not made to feel guilty or resentful, nor does he acquire the idea that he has found a way of annoying and angering the adult. The mistake becomes one of manners rather than of morals.

If a trained child soils himself by accident, the cause is usually gas, a stomach disorder, or an emotional upset. Whatever the

reason, he is usually distressed about it and should be comforted rather than scolded.

QUESTIONS RELATING TO BLADDER CONTROL. Children between two and three have generally learned to be dry during the day, but they still need to be taken to the lavatory at regular and fairly frequent intervals, for otherwise they delay until it is too late.

During the six months following Joyce's second birthday, her mother would sometimes forget to take her to the lavatory in the middle of the morning. Joyce would suddenly jump up from some absorbing occupation and make a rush for the bathroom, calling excitedly, "I need to go to the bathroom, I need to go to the bathroom." By the time her mother had helped her to unbutton herself, she usually had wet her drawers a little. Although she had never been scolded for mistakes of this sort, she often cried and always looked distressed when she wet herself this way. "I'm wet, I'm wet, I want dry knickers," she would repeat in a shrill, worried voice, wishing reassurance.

Even between three and six, children need to be reminded to urinate, for they become so absorbed in their play that they are not conscious of their needs and they squirm, pull at their clothing, and dance up and down for quite a while before they will take the time to do anything about it.

Mothers may simplify matters in several ways. They may fix regular times for passing water: on rising, after breakfast, once in the middle of the morning, before lunch, before and after naptime, in the middle of the afternoon, before supper, and before bedtime. This makes it easier for both the mother and the child to remember. The times in the middle of the morning and the middle of the afternoon may be made the occasion when the child also relaxes from play for a few minutes, takes a drink, and has something light to eat, such as a biscuit or some fruit. All this routine can be made less irksome by dressing the child in clothes that unbutton easily, or better still that slide down, by giving the child a few minutes' warning instead of taking him away from the middle of a game, and by permitting him in the summer time to relieve himself outdoors behind a convenient bush or tree, instead of rushing him off to a far-away pot or lavatory.

Parents need not be concerned if their child has not learned to remain completely dry through the night by the time he is three, nor need they worry about there being anything wrong with his bladder, as this is very seldom the case. By three, however, one can appeal to a child's pride about being dry, for by this age he can control himself most of the time if he really wants to.

Mothers are often puzzled when their child who has been dry

for a period of time suddenly begins wetting again at night. Sometimes the child, either because he gets himself uncovered or because he has too few blankets, becomes so chilly that his control over his bladder is lessened. Occasionally there is a physical cause for it. Owing to a local infection the child's urine becomes strong and acid, and causes irritation and burning which lessen his control. Much more often, however, the lapse is caused by some emotional disturbance. A frequent reason is the arrival of a new baby, with the problems it brings. We have seen that a child of three and a half, who is jealous of the amount of attention paid to his new brother, may revert to all sorts of baby ways. Wetting at night is only one example of his many efforts to command as much attention as the new baby. The remedy in a case of this sort is to offer the child more loving attention during his waking hours and to show him, by giving him appropriate little jaunts and outings, the advantages of being grown up.

At other times a child may go through a phase of masturbating when he is half asleep. The stimulation diminishes his control and the result is a wet bed. (See Ways of Dealing with Masturbation, Chapter VII.) The same thing may happen with a child who has become overexcited or overtired, or who is suffering from some sort of anxiety.

Beryl at two and a half had been dry both day and night for many months. However, on the first night her mother left her to go on a short trip she wet her bed twice, in spite of the fact that she was in fine health, and had had a quiet day before her mother's departure. Each time on being picked up and changed she asked in an anxious little voice, " Mamma coming back again ? "

Children's Curiosity and Interest in Lavatory Matters. It is universal for little boys and little girls to be interested not only in their own urine and bowel movements but also in those of their brothers, sisters, parents, and animals as well. If parents maintain a natural, matter-of-fact attitude about the processes of excretion and allow their children to express their interest and curiosity concerning such matters quite frankly, they will avoid much of the surreptitious curiosity, joking, and giggling that takes place if the subject is taboo. If parents are furtive and private about such matters, children remain curious and start peeping whenever they think they are unobserved. Everyone has met adults who enjoy telling lavatory jokes. It is unfortunate that such people were not allowed to satisfy their curiosity and talk more freely about these matters in their early childhood, so that their undue interest in these simple bodily functions might have lapsed during their early years.

When the processes of excretion are treated with naturalness,

they at once lose the interest and fascination which all things mysterious, unexplored or forbidden contain for all of us. Instead, they become a universal and normal function common to all members of the human race and the animal kingdom.

"But if one's children talk of such matters freely before their parents they will do so in front of visitors, and it will be embarrassing," parents may complain. This is not usually so, however. If parents take the trouble to explain to the young child that certain matters are private and are only talked about among members of the family, they will be able to teach him very early and easily to have a suitable reticence. For instance, when visitors are present, he should be asked privately rather than publicly whether or not he needs to go to the lavatory. By the age of three, he will begin to show his understanding of privacy by occasionally asking the adult to leave him alone in the lavatory and shut the door. At other times he will tell the adult that he wishes to be alone while he is undressing or taking his bath. By four, the child who has been brought up in a natural manner has little curiosity in such matters, and has acquired reserve before strangers. He is not likely to embarrass his parents by untimely remarks about his excretions, and for the most part he will remember to knock at closed lavatory doors and to close them after him.

If a child has been too strictly trained in these matters, he is likely to develop a furtive excitement and interest in excrement and bodily functions. Peter, aged four and a half, was wading with two young friends in a brook the bottom of which was covered with black, slimy mud. The other two children ploughed upstream with little giggles and shrieks as the soft mud oozed between their toes. Peter, on the contrary, showed great disgust. "Ugh, isn't this dirty, isn't this icky?" he kept shouting in great excitement.

One day Peter helped his two friends clean out the cage of a bunny. He had never done this before. He described the dirt in the cage with the same adjectives he had applied to the mud and with the same look of disgust.

The following day, when he was helping them clean out the cage again, he became greatly amused and excited and danced around singing, "Grunting bunting, grunting bunting," looking around furtively at the mother of his two friends as if he were expecting a reproof. (Grunting was his word for bowel movement.) When the mother looked indifferent and did not reprove him, he showed great surprise and stared at her curiously.

A few days later, the two friends put earth into a glass and added water from the garden tap. Then they flung the resulting brown

mud around, Peter singing the " grunting bunting " refrain again. Once more Peter looked furtively at his friends' mother and again seemed surprised when she merely smiled. From that time on, although the three children played together frequently, Peter never sang the refrain again and appeared to have lost interest in the subject.

Sleep

The ways of forming good sleeping habits and the various aids to quiet sleep, which have been discussed in Chapters III and IV, apply also to children from two to six. Few new problems arise during these years. Until they are at least six years old, children need to spend about twelve hours in bed every night and also benefit by a good rest in the middle of the day, preferably after lunch. Since children seldom realize their own fatigue, it is usually difficult to make them go to bed, and sometimes it is hard to persuade them to stay there. A regular evening routine with no undue excitement before bedtime is essential. If a child under four begins to climb out of his cot after he has been left there for the night, it may be necessary for a short time to use the device of a net, as recommended for younger children.

If a child wakes up early in the morning, it is especially important for him to sleep in the middle of the day. After he is four years old, if he is unable to sleep during his mid-day rest period, it is better for him to have a toy to play with than to toss restlessly about in bed or to daydream. Children are more likely to have nightmares between two and six than when they were younger. They should always be thoroughly awakened and reassured if these occur.

CHAPTER VII

THE CHILD'S INTEREST IN SEX

Nature of the Interest—Satisfying the Child's Curiosity—Relation to the Parents—Masturbation.

Nature of the Interest

EARLY INTEREST IN THE HUMAN BODY. When he has passed his second birthday, a child's curiosity covers far wider fields than in the previous year, while his powers of observation and his understanding of what he sees increase immeasurably. A younger child, for instance, only notices whether a doll is large or small, hard or soft, and dressed in red or white; but a two year old will observe the finer differences, such as the fact that one doll is wearing shoes and the other isn't, that one doll has blue eyes and the other brown.

With these increasing powers of observation applied to everything new and unusual, a child sooner or later directs his attention to his mother's and father's bodies if he sees them undressed. It is a good thing for parents to let their young children of two, three, and four wander about the room or bathroom while they are bathing or dressing, for in this way the child satisfies his curiosity about the human body at an early age and does not feel self-conscious or curious about it when he is older.

When the child first sees his parents undressed, he is interested in their nakedness. Usually he is most attracted by the genital regions and by the mother's breasts and body hair. These are so different from anything he possesses that he wishes to examine and touch them, just as he examines and touches everything that arouses his interest. "What's that?" he asks. His questions should be answered in a casual, matter-of-fact way, the proper names being given for each part of the body about which he asks. If he is allowed to satisfy his curiosity by looking and possibly touching the parts he inquires about, he will pass on to other interests and curiosities. Perhaps three or four weeks later, if he does not see his parents undressed very frequently, he will again be inquisitive. A briefer glance usually satisfies him this time. Soon he loses interest in his parents' bodies and will wander in and out of the bedroom or bathroom with hardly a glance at the parent, his

curiosity being directed to the new tube of tooth paste, or the new cake of soap, or the way the water gurgles in the basin.

At this age or a little later, if there are children of the opposite sex in or about the household, a child will notice the physical difference between boy and girl. "Why does Mary sit down to wee?" a boy will ask his mother; or, "When will she have a penis like me?" Again, the simplest adult answer will suffice. "Boys are made differently from girls," the mother may reply. "Girls don't have penises, instead they have other parts inside which cannot be seen."

There is often a certain envy mingled with a little girl's curiosity about the differences between her body and the bodies of little boys. "Why don't I have a penis?" she asks. When a girl shows her curiosity about these bodily differences, by asking a direct question, by appearing interested when she sees little boys urinate, or by trying to urinate in a standing position like a boy, her mother should explain the differences between the sexes in such a way that the girl will not feel that her physique is inferior to that of a boy. "Only boys and men have penises," the mother may say. "Girls have other organs inside them which boys haven't got, and they also have breasts when they grow up."

Satisfying the Child's Curiosity

"WHERE DO BABIES COME FROM?" The next question that comes up used to be, and perhaps still is, avoided by many parents. "Where do babies come from?" The age at which this is asked depends on the child's environment. If a new baby is born to the immediate or near family, this question comes at an early age. Sometimes a story brings it up. Sometimes a litter of new puppies or kittens arouses the child's interest.

Since eagerness to learn, to see, to find out, are distinguishing marks of the alert, bright-minded child, the curiosity that prompts him to ask this particular question is of a piece with all the other queries he is for ever making about things and people and the world around him.

The sensible parent answers this sort of question briefly, truthfully, and in a completely matter-of-fact way. Some parents in their desire to be modern and scientific attempt to give a long and detailed physiological explanation, but the child does not want this as it confuses and bores him. A three year old wants and can grasp only a brief and direct answer to any question. "Where do babies come from?" "They grow in a bag called the womb which is inside the mother." That is sufficient for the moment; the child's curiosity is satisfied and he goes on to something else.

A four year old may ask an additional question or so. "How does the baby come out?" "The mother has a little hole that stretches until it is big enough to let the baby out, and then it closes again. It stretches the same way that rubber stretches." Or else, "How does the baby get in there?" "The father puts a seed in and it grows together with the mother's seed and makes a baby."

Later, between five and six, the child may ask, "How does the father put the seed in?" to which the mother may answer, "The father puts the seed in with his penis, he puts it in the same place that the baby comes out of later." An excellent book which will be helpful to mothers in answering questions of this sort is Karl de Schweinitz's *How a Baby is Born.*

A mother need not be surprised or disappointed if her child shows a certain confusion about reproduction even after it has been explained to him. The important thing is for the child to get the general idea and not to associate something forbidden with the subject. The particulars may come later. Some mothers foster confusion, however, by giving inaccurate answers. Frequently a woman tells her child, "Baby grew in mother's stomach," instead of saying, "Baby grew inside mother" or "Baby grew in a bag inside mother." The first reply confuses the child who may then ask, "How did he get in the stomach? Did you swallow him?" or "Did he grow because you ate something special?"

UNDERSTANDING THROUGH ANALOGY. A child will more readily understand the processes of growth and procreation if his parents point out to him the analogies that occur in plant and animal life. This does not mean that he can learn about reproduction by watching or being told about birds and bees. It is not even certain he will grasp the facts of nature by living on a farm where the multiplication of animal life is of almost daily occurrence. Parents, therefore, who take the trouble to point out and explain the ways in which plant and animal life function may help to give him a fundamental idea of the way nature operates. If, for instance, a child is encouraged to plant large seeds, such as peas and beans, and is then allowed to pull some of these up when they have first germinated, he will obtain a real idea of what a seed is and does. If he is given the opportunity to see a mother cat with her kittens, a mother dog with her puppies, a mother cow with her calf; if he understands where their babies come from and how they are being fed and cared for, he will begin to carry the analogy over to the rest of the animal world.

This only happens if the parents are willing to answer the child's questions honestly with frank explanations. "Why does the rooster jump on the hens?" or "Why does the dog climb on

the other dog's back?" asks the child. "Because he is putting his seeds in her to make little chicks" or "to make little puppies," answers the adult. The parent, in turn, can start the child thinking for himself by asking him questions. "Why was the mother cow so fat yesterday, and why is she so thin now that the calf has arrived?" The child usually derives great pleasure from observing nature in this way, and at the same time he is developing his understanding of various natural processes.

THE UNQUESTIONING CHILD. There are several reasons why a child may reach five without ever having asked any questions about the origin of babies. He may have asked someone other than his parents and have been made to feel ashamed of his ignorance; he may have been laughed at; he may have been given some false but temporarily satisfying answer; or he may have felt his own parents' deep-seated aversion to such subjects. On the other hand, if he is one of a numerous family, he may have observed and heard enough to form his own ideas.

WHEN PARENTS SHOULD VOLUNTEER INSTRUCTION. If a child does reach the age of five or six without showing any curiosity about reproduction, it is sensible for the parents to create an opportunity for bringing up the subject. This should be done as naturally and casually as possible. The question of where babies come from may be asked by the mother herself after a visit to a friend with a new baby, or after seeing a particularly small baby in the park. Evidence of ignorance on the child's part, however, should not be the occasion for a long speech on the subject. It is extremely important that all conversation between parent and child relating to sex be carried on as informally and simply as possible. This is particularly so if the child has avoided the knowledge because of inhibitions impressed on him while very young. In such a case long and detailed explanations will make him feel acutely uncomfortable.

REASONS FOR INSTRUCTING CHILDREN. Many people say, "Why bother to tell small children such things? It keeps their mind on them, and they only use their knowledge to make embarrassing remarks in front of visitors." We have already seen that children are capable at a very early age of learning that matters connected with the lavatory are subjects for discussion only within the family circle. Similarly they soon learn to confine their remarks relating to procreation and reproduction to the same intimate group. If the desirability of this has been made clear to them, they seldom mortify their parents by inappropriate remarks at the wrong time.

The importance of telling a child the truth in answer to his

questions is illustrated by a mother of three girls aged eight, five, and three, who tells this story. "When my oldest girl was five she asked where her baby sister came from. I told her she was made in her father's foundry. Now at eight she still thinks babies come from the foundry, for just the other day I heard her telling someone about it." If a normally intelligent child reaches the age of eight believing that babies come from the foundry, particularly when there have been younger children in the family, his thinking processes have been impeded in some way, and he is trying to avoid facing facts. As a result, the child's mother or his friends will have a hard time telling him the truth later on, and there may be considerable shock associated with sex.

If a child under six is told step by step in a simple way the things he wants to know at the time his curiosity is aroused, he will take the facts of birth with the same unconcern with which he accepts other natural phenomena, such as wind, rain, and sun. Nor will he find them half as dramatic or interesting as a puffing engine or a big airplane.

RESULTS OF SECRECY OR FALSE IDEAS. When a great mystery is made of the naked body, or much emphasis is put on modesty and the child is never allowed to see children of the opposite sex or his own parents undressed, he will inevitably associate shame with the human form. In the same way, if all interest concerning the genital regions is frowned upon and all questions relating to the source of babies are evaded, he is bound to connect a feeling of evil and wrong with the sex organs and with the processes of reproduction. His own curiosity about these matters will be heightened, and at the same time he will feel bad and guilty about his interest. As a result he may develop a furtive curiosity, take pleasure in words and songs with sexual meaning, and become unnaturally sex-conscious. Later, when he becomes an adolescent, the early feelings of shame and wrong connected with these matters may return in magnified proportions and make his emotional, and later his sexual, adjustments much more complicated and difficult.

Attaching prohibitions to this realm of knowledge may also have an undesirable effect on his other mental activities. A child who must limit his curiosity, who must not see or ask certain things or entertain certain thoughts because they are not "nice," becomes afraid to observe or question for fear he will touch on forbidden subjects.

A widowed mother's idea that sex was evil, and that the genitals were an unmentionable part of the human body, brought great unhappiness to her daughter (now twenty-two) during her adolescent years. The girl had only three early memories of her

mother's attitude toward such matters, but these were extremely vivid and had made a deep impression on her. She remembered that when she was five her boy cousin of the same age came to visit her family. She opened the bathroom door while he was taking a bath and looking with surprise at his penis she asked, "What's that?" pointing to it. Her mother grabbed her roughly by the shoulder, pushed her out of the bathroom, and slammed the door. Again, when she was about five, she had felt the need to urinate while in a car, and had put her hand between her legs in an effort to control herself. Her mother, noticing this, had grabbed her hand away violently, with a look of marked disapproval. Another memory, at six, was her mother's denunciation of her much-loved aunt to a friend, "Why, she sat up half the night with that man." The words were spoken in a tone of withering scorn and disapproval.

Starting with adolescence and continuing through her teens, the girl was painfully shy and uncomfortable with boys and men, and had a feeling that she was doing wrong whenever she was with them. Even at this age she had no idea of what the sexual act was or how it was performed, and remained completely ignorant of the way in which babies are conceived and born. She used to lie awake for hours at night seeking possible explanations, each more fantastic than the last, but was afraid to take any positive steps to enlighten herself. In this way her sense of sin robbed her of most of the pleasures of a normal girlhood and acted as a damper both on her intellectual curiosity and on her popularity.

Relation to the Parents

IDENTIFICATION WITH PARENT OF THE SAME SEX. At first a child imitates all adults in a general way, but about the time when he first expresses curiosity regarding his mother's and his father's bodies, he begins to identify himself with the parent of like sex and to imitate him or her especially. This phase is to be encouraged as much as possible by the parents, since it is important to a child's inner development that he should model himself on a member of his own sex during these formative years. Brief remarks often further this process. "Don't cry, Peter, be strong and brave like your daddy." "Come, Peter, let the man cut your hair short like Daddy's." "Put your dolly to bed, Mary. Tuck her in the way Mother tucks baby sister in!'

At the age of two and a quarter, Mary was already showing interest in the fact that she was a girl. This interest may have originated around two when her mother, who had previously dressed her in shirts and overalls like her brother, started putting

little dresses on her. At first she didn't want to wear them, and her mother would coax her saying, " Little girls always wear dresses. They look so pretty."

At two and a half, she began to enumerate the girls of her acquaintance. " Mary is a little girl ? " she would ask with a questioning kind of intensity. " Mamma is a big girl ? Grandma is a big girl ? " And then she would add, " And I'm a girl too ? " Two months later she happened to see her mother taking a bath and pointed to the latter's breasts. " Grown-up women get breasts. When you're grown up you'll have breasts too,'! her mother said by way of explanation. For the next week Mary repeated at frequent intervals to herself, " When I'm grown up I'll have breasts too."

To Timothy the clear realization that he was a boy came somewhat later. By the time he was three he was imitating his father in many ways. " I'll do it like Father does," he would say. But it wasn't until three and a quarter that he saw his father for the first time without clothes. Quickly he slipped his shorts down. " See, Daddy, I have one too, see how how big it is." From then on, having established his physical likeness with his father, he never mentioned the subject again ; but he showed increased identification with him in many ways—copying his walk, his manners, his gestures, and telling everyone he wished to be a doctor like his father when he was grown up.

In this way little boys and girls form their first patterns of man and woman, father and mother, husband and wife, which will influence their own later behaviour. Parents seldom realize to how great an extent they serve as models to their young, because they seldom appreciate how observant and imitative small children are and how much more influenced they are by the actions, appearance, and behaviour of adults than by their words.

Not only does a child form his ideas of male and female behaviour from his parents, but his basic ideas of the relationship between husband and wife are also being moulded at this time. That is why children are so fortunate if they have happy homes where good feeling exists between the parents, and where the father as well as the mother is interested enough in the children to spend a certain amount of time with them.

In homes where one parent alone, because of prolonged separation, as in wartime, or because of death or divorce, has to assume the sole responsibility of the children, the parent owes it to them to try as much as possible to include aunts, uncles, godparents, and both men and women friends in the social life of the household to serve as substitutes for the missing parent.

A boy brought up exclusively by women has a difficult time. Widowed mothers with only sons may do much to correct the situation by dressing their boys in manly clothes, by giving them masculine haircuts, and by providing them with suitable toys, such as tricycles, trains, and a workbench with hammer, saw, and nails. They may encourage the frequent visits of other boys and allow them freedom to play in a rough-and-tumble way, irrespective of how dirty or noisy they become. Most important of all, they should avoid seeking in their son a substitute for the companionship of their husband. Little girls deprived of their fathers and brought up in a feminine household need, just as boys do in like circumstances, a certain amount of masculine companionship if they are not to be warped by their unbalanced environment. Their toys and playthings, of course, will be suitably feminine, but they do need boy friends and the company of grown-up men in order that they may form an idea of the relationship that exists in the world at large between men and women.

The reverse of this situation is likewise true. A father who has the care and responsibility of a young child or children should make an effort to include women as well as men in the everyday life of the household. This usually occurs automatically, however, as a man who is either divorced or widowed is generally obliged to seek the help of female relatives, a maid, a nurse or a governess, in looking after his home.

During these impressionable years between two and six, when boys and girls are beginning to model themselves on their elders, it is important for the parents not to be too strict or stern, but to have the child's love and confidence. Too often the father is given the role of disciplinarian. "If you do that again, Walter, I'll have to ask Father to spank you when he gets home this evening." Father, in his comparatively brief moments with his son, becomes the taskmaster, and Walter, awed and afraid of him, avoids him as much as possible. In thus turning away from his father he is likely to turn also from those masculine characteristics his father embodies. If his father is strong, athletic, and active, he may unconsciously follow the opposite paths and show a preference for quiet, unadventurous pursuits. Feeling resentful toward his father, he substitutes his mother as his model of behaviour.

A young boy who patterns himself too much on his mother is likely to be a "sissy" or even quite effeminate in later years. Dominated by his mother, or fearing or disliking his father too much, may also give him something of an antipathy to boys and men. As a result he will not make friends or be liked much by his own sex but will prefer the company of girls and women, remaining

childishly dependent on them, or else unconsciously modelling himself on them.

A girl may become involved in the same kind of situation when there is an unhappy or involved relation between her and either parent. Everyone knows examples of the girl or woman who has a fear or dislike of appearing womanly and tries to be as masculine as possible in her ways and her dress, or remains quite childish in some aspects of her behaviour and personality.

MOTHER AND SON; FATHER AND DAUGHTER. It is universally recognized that mothers, no matter how much they may love their daughters, are likely to feel a special tenderness for their sons; and that fathers, no matter how proud they may be of their sons, have a closer feeling for their daughters. The converse of this may also be observed.

Sometimes as early as two or three, a little girl develops a decided preference for her father. To him she shows small favours. In his ear she will whisper her secrets first and it is from him that she wants the last good night kiss. In the same way the small boy runs to his mother when he is hurt or wants comfort, and tries to sit next to her at table, or in the bus or train when the family goes on a jaunt.

A little later this preference is shown more specifically. Almost all little girls say, somewhere between the ages of three and five, "When I grow up I'll marry Daddy," and just as frequently little boys of the same ages say, "When I grow up I'll marry Mother." They often follow up this naive remark by asking, "What does marry mean?" All they are trying to say is, "Father (or Mother) is my favourite person and I hope he (or she) will be with me always and prefer me to everybody else."

This tendency to like the parent of the opposite sex best often takes fathers and mothers unawares. A puzzled young woman complained, "Just as soon as Betty's father comes home in the afternoon, she settles down in his lap, all smiles and dimples, and they start looking at books. 'You can go upstairs now, Mother,' she says; 'we're busy,' as if she didn't want me around any more." (Betty was just four at the time.)

Fathers make the same sort of complaint. "Peter's love is all for his mother. He only uses me to kick and punch at and play rough games with."

Thus, side by side during the years between two and six, run the parallel processes. On the one hand, the little girl has realized she is feminine, and her efforts are directed towards growing up like her mother and doing the things her mother does. At the same time a somewhat larger share of her love goes to her father. Not

only is she jealous of all the attention her parents give to her brothers and sisters but also of the attention they devote to each other. Adoring her father as she does, she would like all his kisses, fondlings, and time. Her mother becomes a rival of whom she is jealous. The reverse situation is true with little boys.

A little girl called Mary held the following conversation with her father at the age of four and a half: "Daddy, when I'm grown up can I have a baby without being married?" Her father replied that it was possible but that husbands were nice to have and that most women liked having them. She could see that Mummy liked having him. "Well, of course, if you would be my husband, Daddy, then I would want to get married." The father replied, "Oh when you are grown up I shall be quite old, but you will find some,one just as nice as me."

The fact that little boys desire to replace their fathers in their mothers' affections, and that little girls wish to replace their mothers in their fathers' affections, makes them feel guilty toward the parent whose place they wish to take. This gives rise to more or less anxiety which may often show itself by bursts of unexplainable temper or nightmares, which are of short duration if the child is treated affectionately by the parent whom she envies and wants to remove.

Provided parents do not feel upset, and remain calm and undisturbed when suddenly their own child shows his preference, the child is likely, sooner or later, to express his preference in words. If at this point he receives reassurance from his parents and finds that they love and cherish him just as dearly as before, any anxiety or guilt he may have felt over his wishes and ideas vanishes, and with it the bad dreams and temper.

The spring Jane was three years old, she had a series of nightmares. Each time her mother came to her bedside, Jane clung frantically to her and seemed terrified. During this period her mother had to go away for a week. One evening when she was alone with her father she said, "Daddy, I love you. We don't need Mother here. I can keep house for you." Her father agreed that they were having a grand time together, but he suggested that since they both loved Mummie and really did need her in a lot of ways, it would also be very nice when she returned. When the mother did come home, Jane was extremely demonstrative and affectionate. Two days later, however, Jane announced in front of her mother, "I love Daddy better than anyone." "That is quite all right," her mother said, "I don't mind at all. Little girls always do. I loved my daddy best when I was your age." From then on the nightmares ceased, for Jane had discovered that even though she

might long to have her father all to herself at times, she had nothing to worry about from her mother.

Masturbation

The fact that masturbation is very common among infants and toddlers has already been mentioned. Between the ages of two and six, its occasional appearance is even more common. The child's early pleasure in sucking his thumb and his later pleasure and interest in the sensations of expelling or retaining his bowel movements shifts to a certain extent to the genital regions.

Children not only enjoy stroking themselves in these parts, but they like to bring them in contact with those they love. Like kittens which rub their heads against the knee and ankle of a person, children often lean and rub their genitals against their parents and show particular fondness for games like "Ride a Cockhorse to Banbury Cross."

Because of the pleasurable sensations these regions give, children have the tendency to handle their genitals when they are in special need of comfort and consolation, and will masturbate when they feel insecure and uncertain how to behave. Shy children who have not had much social life with children of their own age will do it without being aware of it if they are at a children's party where they feel strange and ill at ease. They are also apt to handle themselves unconsciously when they are trying to grasp some idea that is intellectually beyond them. The pleasure they derive from doing it acts as a solace if there is a crisis in their lives.

One little girl of four, who had not masturbated since she was two, was taken by her mother to a nursery school group which had already been under way for several weeks. She joined the play and the activities readily during most of the morning until she suddenly tripped over a chair and fell down, tearing her dress. The other children gathered around and laughed. At this she started to cry and hold on to herself.

Children also have the urge to masturbate if their lives do not contain enough outside satisfactions. The child who lacks play materials, occupations or companionship suited to his age, may revert to masturbation as a pleasant relief from boredom and loneliness, just as when younger he would have sucked his thumb. Children who are turned out in a back yard with no toys or companions to play with, who must lie down for a rest period without toys when they no longer sleep in the daytime, and those whose lives are monotonous because they cannot take part in the activities of the adults around them—all these are likely to seek consolation in masturbation and in the phantasies and day-dreams that go with it.

One little boy of four, an only child of a professional couple, both of whom were busy working, had an unusually dull and unsatisfying routine. In the morning he ate breakfast with his parents. They then rushed to catch the morning train to town, and he was put out in the back yard, where his only toys were a small car and one broken shovel, while the maid-of-all work did the household jobs. The maid gave him his lunch and put him to bed for his nap. In the afternoon she took him out for a walk, holding him by the hand as she trudged along the road, usually in some man's company. After this she would bring him indoors and play the radio, her favourite diversion. During this time the child, who had almost no toys, was supposed to play in the living room where he was forbidden to touch most of the objects about him. A brief romp with his tired parents in the late afternoon ended his day. Because of the frequency of the little boy's masturbation, the doctor advised sending him to a small play group in the neighbourhood. Within a month he had lost interest in masturbation. He had also lost his listlessness and apathy, appearing happy and absorbed.

WAYS OF DEALING WITH MASTURBATION. The best medical opinion is united in its recognition of the fact that masturbation is a natural gratification practised by most children to some extent and that it has no ill effects in itself. Parents and teachers are beginning to realize that the only harm comes not from the masturbation but from making the child feel guilty or anxious about it. Sensible, wise parents will not allow themselves to become concerned if their child masturbates. Since it is an action the child performs sometimes quite unconsciously because he needs an outlet for some inner strain or want, it is of no use to tell him not to do it. What they can do is to remove the strains and provide for his needs by giving him the affection and understanding that he craves and the kind of play materials, occupations, and companionship suitable to his age. As the child is helped to develop various skills, as he learns to play with other children, and as he acquires real satisfactions in the outside world, he will no longer need to seek this gratification. It is a striking commentary on the lack of tension and appropriate occupations in nursery schools that it is extremely rare to see children masturbate there, although they may previously have done so quite openly.

By these indirect methods the habit of masturbation and its accompanying phantasies will be prevented from becoming a substitute for the child's real and active life. If a child shows a strong tendency to masturbate frequently, it is advisable for his parents to give special thought to his needs. Are there reasons

why he may feel temporarily neglected and unloved? Is he becoming overtired or being overstimulated?

As a practical measure, since nap and bedtime are the periods when children are most inclined to masturbate, they should be allowed to take to bed some prized toy or possession which will be likely to occupy their hands and their attention until they fall asleep.

HARM ARISING FROM THREATS AND PUNISHMENT. Many puritanical parents still feel ashamed and disgraced if their child masturbates. They think he has done something horrid and unnatural as well as something physically, mentally, and morally injurious, and they try to impress on him by threats and punishments the fact that he must never do it again. It is amazing to what lengths otherwise kindly and patient people will go in their efforts to stop what they consider the intentional and obstinate disobedience of their child whose masturbatory activities they consider dirty and immoral. They will spank him, tie his hands up, and punish him by depriving him of things he likes. They will threaten him with dire harm and hurt, telling him that he is injuring his organs by his behaviour. If the child is a boy, parents may threaten that his penis will be cut off or will fall off if the habit is not stopped.

Since the child's impulse to masturbate comes from some inner need and strain, the increased nervous strain imposed by the fear of the parents' ill-advised threats and punishments merely increases this activity which he becomes more and more powerless to stop. The sense of guilt, the fear, and the anxiety that are aroused in the child by threats and punishments for something he cannot help are definitely injurious to him. In addition to causing him unhappiness in his childhood, it will be more difficult for him to make the natural and necessary sexual adjustments in later life, because he will have connected his genital organs with the fear and guilt associated with them in these early years.

SEXUAL PLAY BETWEEN CHILDREN. Sexual play between children happens frequently. It usually occurs some time after four years of age, and may take the form of pretend games in which one child is the doctor and the other child is the patient, or in which one child is the father and the other is the mother. In these games children are mainly interested in examining each other's bodies and their differences. Children participating in such games should not be scolded or made to feel wicked on account of them, as there is no point in making them unhappy about perfectly natural expressions of curiosity and interest.

Very often when a group of children has been participating in such games, the parents of some of them will be so horrified that

they will make not only their own children but the whole group feel wicked, even though the parents of the other children understand the naturalness of such performances and maintain a casual attitude toward them. When this happens, the sensible parents, who realize that the only harm that can come from such games is the feeling of guilt the child may derive from them, can explain to their own children that some people look at things differently from others. " Johnny's father and mother think it is wicked for children to play such games ; but Daddy and I don't think it is bad, nor do Tommy's mother and daddy." They may then point out that people have different likes and dislikes, believe a diversity of things, and feel differently about many matters ; and so it is best to trust to the judgment of one's own father and mother until one is old enough to decide such questions for oneself. " Some mothers and fathers also think it is wrong for children to play in the mud or make a lot of noise outdoors, or run around naked, but we don't think there is anything wicked about any of these ways of playing."

Sometimes, even though parents realize the naturalness of such interests, they find it hard not to feel shocked because of the way they themselves have been brought up and the amount of guilt they were made to feel when they were children. However, despite their own emotional prejudices, they can control their desire to scold their child for such behaviour.

The best way to deal with all such play is first of all to divert the child's interests to other games and occupations ; and then to enable him to satisfy his interest in the body and his sexual curiosity. This can be done by encouraging him to talk about such matters freely to his parents, by not making a mystery of the human body, and by creating, as casually as possible, an opportunity for him to see children of the opposite sex naked. The occasions should be planned so that they come about in a natural kind of way, either by the daily association of children at the seaside in the summer time or by having overnight guests who undress together and share the same bathroom.

The course such interests take is different with all children. In the case of Lucy, who was a healthy, normal, and well-behaved child, masturbation occurred for a short time around her third birthday. After this all signs of sexual interest disappeared until seven when she went to a new school. The children in her class were interested in each other's genitals and for a time she joined them in games of an investigating nature. Nothing was said to the children about it, and in a short time both her interest and that of the class passed on to other games.

CHAPTER VIII

THE CHILD'S ACTIVITIES

Play—Parental Help—Problems in Learning.

Play

LEARNING THROUGH PLAY. A child between two and six learns with his whole being. His senses and muscles, as well as his mind, are all applied to the object or action which has attracted his attention and curiosity. For instance, if a child of two and a half gets his hands on a hot-water bottle for the first time, he will probably put it to his mouth and taste it. He will also smell it, examine the feel of it, knock it against something, try to put the stopper in, look inside it, and probably stuff small things into it. By the time he has finished he knows whether it has a taste and a smell, and he has discovered its colour, shape, texture, size, and weight. He knows what kinds of noises it will make when banged and dropped. He has also tried to find out how it works and has discovered certain uses for it.

From the adult he wants to learn the name of the new object and its real uses. In asking its uses he always prefers to be shown, since word explanations are difficult for him to grasp even on those rare occasions when the adult really talks slowly enough and is careful not to use new words. If a child is shown how a hot-water bottle is filled, if he helps to hold it while the water is poured in, helps to screw the top down, feels the warm rubber and later the warm place in the bed, its purpose and nature become real and meaningful to him because of the movements he has made and the sensations he has felt. He has learned through doing. He will remember and carry over the knowledge thus gained to other things. "Hot plate like hot-water bottle," he may remark a few days later, showing he has grasped the full significance.

His desire to learn the name of a thing leads him to repeat his question a great number of times to force an answer. John would ask a question insistently, with his voice becoming shriller and shriller, as many as twenty times, "What is this, Mamma?" His sister Laura was less imperious and would become discouraged if she received no reply after ten or twelve questions. When told the name of an object, the child learns it by repeating as best he can, either then or in the near future. Sometimes a child asks questions

just to get the adult's attention. It is easy to tell when he is doing this, because at such times he will not listen to the answer. "Why?" the three year old asks. "Why? Why? Why?" But when the parent patiently explains, he finds the child's attention has wandered and he is talking to deaf ears. At other times children ask questions the answers to which are beyond their comprehension. A child usually accepts the parent's reply that he is too young at present to understand the answer and must wait until he is a little older.

"Let me do it," is his frequent demand, for the child loves to participate in the activities of those around him. On as many occasions as possible he may be allowed to help, and he derives great pleasure both from doing the thing and from the feeling of responsibility and importance which it gives him.

There are many other times, obviously, when it is difficult and impracticable for the child to take part in the adult's work. Ordinarily a child of four cannot be allowed to use the kitchen stove for fear of burning himself; he cannot use the washtubs because they are too high; and he cannot set the table without close supervision because he might break the plates. What is more, the child tires of any long job. His attention and interest jump quickly from one thing to another, and he usually hates to repeat the same procedure many times.

Fortunately, all children know how to make believe and pretend, and these capacities are of first importance in learning. They know how to impersonate people; they can imitate actions; and with the wand of their imagination, they can invest an object or material with the particular qualities they need at the moment. Dramatic and creative play grow out of this. It is primarily by this method that they are able to project themselves into the world of their parents, using only as much of it as they are ready for.

Watch a child impersonate in quick succession an animal, a machine, or a person. At one moment he crawls on all fours to an empty saucer standing on the floor. He laps up invisible milk and miaows like a cat. A little later he rides his car, making a b-r-r-ring noise: he is himself the car. Supply him with a few crude materials and watch him reproduce the world of the adults in elaborate constructions, imitating their activities in a miniature world of his own.

When Nicky was two and a quarter, he lined up a row of six big wooden blocks and on the front one he put two small funnel-shaped blocks. While building and playing he carried on an active monologue: "I make this big long train. Chu-chu-chu-chu-chu-chu-bump-bump-bump. This is a train. Get on the train. Look, see the house? Going far away. Here are funnels, smoke

coming out." At this point he ran up and down the room yelling "puff-puff" at the top of his lungs. A month previously he had watched an engine puffing into a station, and had been taken a short journey on the train.

When Nicky was two and a half, he was given a toy stove with some small pots and pans. If his mother gave him a few slices of raw carrot or potato, he would set about cooking a wonderful make-believe meal while she was busy preparing his small sister's food.

MATERIALS WHICH FURTHER CREATIVE PLAY. A child needs materials to use in his creative play just as much as an actor needs his stage props. If a little girl is playing at being a mother, she needs a baby; she also needs clothes, a bed, and food for the baby. If a boy is interested in cars, he wants some toy ones he can manipulate; and he also wants roads and bridges for the cars to travel on. These toys need not be elaborate since, through his ability to pretend, a child can create many different things from the objects at hand.

Certain raw materials are particularly suitable to children's play because of the great number of different uses to which they can be put. The suitability of wooden blocks is obvious to anyone who has watched a child at play. Large blocks will in turn be horses, cars, and boats, or, combined together, they will become elaborate houses, garages, and trains. Smaller blocks if they are neutral in colour and of assorted sizes, will lend themselves to an infinite variety of uses, from the simplest kind of house built by a three year old to an intricate railway system with signal boxes, bridges, and tunnels built by a five year old.

There are other raw materials which can be provided easily and which serve in many ways to promote children's constructive play. For outdoor use, crates and large packing cases, ropes, pails, shovels, boards, rocks, sand, and soil are all appropriate play materials. For indoor use, boxes of various sizes, rags and pieces of cloth, paper, cord, blunt scissors, marbles, big beads, metal dishes, and containers can be used in many ways. Besides these, children need paint, clay, crayons, and, if possible, by the time they are four, a workbench with hammer, nails, and wood.

Naturally a child also wants toys. The greater the number of objects from the real world that are represented on a small scale in nursery, the better. Different kinds of cars, trucks, lorries and cranes; different kinds of trains; household utensils, such as small washtubs, stoves, pots, pans, and brooms; dolls and all their paraphernalia; replicas of farm animals—all these contribute

enormously to a child's fun and education without being very expensive.

Elaborate toys, such as porcelain dolls which are easily broken, afford less pleasure at this age than the simpler toys because the child has to be warned continually not to break them. Mechanical toys are not appropriate to young children. Some grown person usually has to be present to wind them since the child himself cannot manage to do it. They get out of order quickly and are not so well adapted to imaginative play because their function is limited to one repetitive action. Stuffed animals of the pink elephant and purple cow type usually appeal to the fancy of the giver more than that of the receiver. If a child has one teddy bear or stuffed dog to take to bed, he is usually satisfied.

A child's happiness does not increase in proportion to the number of toys he possesses. On the contrary, he usually gets more fun out of a limited number than out of a whole nursery full. Often, at Christmas time, a child is overwhelmed by the bewildering number of toys given him and doesn't know which to play with. The problem may be solved by putting away a certain number of the three year old's Christmas presents for a rainy day. As his other toys become broken or worn out, the new ones can be brought out one by one, and they will give him far more pleasure than if he had had them all together at once.

DRAMATIC PLAY: PERSONIFICATIONS AND IMITATIONS. The dramatic play of children usually centres about the activities of those round them. Their own parents are their first models, and so they play at washing and cooking and also at driving the car. But as their experience grows and their power of observation increases, their roles become more numerous. In turn they imitate the actions of the postman, the different tradesmen who call at the house, the bus driver, the doctor, the engine driver, because these people have functions that are real, active, and dramatic to them. Thus, as a child progresses from two to three and on to four and five, the activities of the people around him and the objects they use are more and more reflected in his play. If he lives in the country, the wheelbarrow in the garden will in turn be a lorry, a tractor, and a plough. To the town boy the same kind of object will be a bus, a steam roller, or a tram.

All this dramatic play usually involves much physical activity. It is in this indirect way after he is two years old that a child continues to develop his bodily skills. He no longer runs just to practise running, but he runs because he is a horse galloping, and when he climbs the jungle gym he is a sailor or a monkey.

The more active and energetic a child is, the more dramatic he

will find those people, machines, and animals that involve much movement and noise, and the more will his activities be patterned after them in this kind of dramatic play. Between two and three James showed his preference for the more robust occupations by spending much of his time being a moving man or a dustman. The moving man became a dramatic personage to him at two and a quarter, when his family left the country for the town, transporting much of their furniture by van. The dustman was exciting to him because he lifted large dustbins on his back, carried them to the cart, and hoisted them to his fellow worker, who in turn, emptied the bins and dropped them on the pavement with a resounding bang.

DRAMATIC PLAY: CONSTRUCTION IN MINIATURE. Sometimes instead of pretending he is a lorry driver and that his tricycle is the lorry, a young child manipulates a toy lorry and a toy driver. In this kind of play he emphasizes different things. He no longer thinks of the speed of the lorry or its noise, but of the route it is taking and the load it is carrying. He fills it with marbles or beads which represent vegetables, and with blocks he builds both the farm where the lorry got its load and the shop to which it is carrying it. In this way the miniature world he creates from the materials in his nursery is patterned on his observations of the real world.

This kind of play is seen daily in any group of four or five year olds at home or in a good nursery school.

DRAMATIC PLAY: AN OUTLET FOR THE EMOTIONS. Another quite different form of dramatic play is prompted by the child's emotions and serves as a proper outlet for them. When Eric was two and a half he had two unfortunate encounters with older boys in the park. One day a boy twice his size grabbed a new car he was playing with and ran away with it before Eric's grandmother could protect him. Three days later, when he was out again with his grandmother, an older boy snatched his cap off and threw it in the mud. In both cases Eric ran after the boys yelling, but was not able to catch them. The evening of his second misadventure he suddenly shouted at his mother, "You're a bad boy, you're a bad boy," and tried repeatedly to hit her. Having heard of his experience, she warded off his blows without laughing, and then, picking up an imaginary cap from the floor, said, "Here is your hat, little boy, I'm sorry I knocked it off." At this he looked very pleased and mollified. She had fortunately realized that he had not yet dissipated the anger he felt toward the two boys, and knowing that she would not hurt him, he was letting off steam in her direction.

At four and a quarter Eric played a very different game. His mother had taken his tricycle away from him for the afternoon because he had repeatedly bumped it into Peggy's car. When he objected, she said, " A man driving a car can't bump into other cars and boys on tricycles can't bump into cars either." " Why ? " " Policemen won't let them." In spite of this explanation, Eric remained angry. Later in the afternoon, she saw him promoting fights between a uniformed doll and a little boy doll. Several times the uniformed doll was downed. " There, Mamma, the boy killed the policeman," he said.

One small boy who had done something forbidden and had been merely gently reprimanded by his mother began playing with his toy teddy bear. Suddenly he said, " You must go to your room ! You know you must not do that ! " and forthwith the teddy bear was dumped into a box and told to " stay there for fifteen minutes." This was evidently the punishment the little boy had expected and thought he deserved.

Jealousy, too, often finds vicarious and helpful expression in this way. A girl of three, who occasionally showed signs of jealousy toward her one-year-old brother, stuck pins in the arms and legs of her doll, muttering to herself, " I hate you ! I hate you ! " and thus got it out of her system in a healthy and harmless fashion. One of Maupassant's stories illustrates this same thing admirably in an adult. A man, after quarrelling violently with his wife, goes to a shooting gallery and proceeds to smash all the female figures set up as targets.

Many other kinds of wishes are also expressed in this form of play, to the great satisfaction of the child. This is a normal, helpful and healthy outlet for him. He should neither be scolded nor particularly encouraged in it. If no attention is paid to this kind of play, he will get his natural aggression out of him in this way when he is frustrated or scolded and then forget about it. On no account should he be made self-conscious about such games. They will not make him more aggressive as some parents fear. On the contrary, he will not store his aggression up and so it will not come out later in inappropriate ways.

PHANTASIES : THEIR CAUSES AND THE EXPRESSIONS THEY TAKE. Children do not always express their wishes in dramatic action, nor do they spend all their time re-creating the real world through imaginative play with materials. Like adults, they sometimes give expression to their inmost thoughts and wishes by means of day-dreams.

Because their minds are not limited by many facts concerning their surroundings, their flights of fancy are sometimes amazing.

A child can thus create a universe of his own where things are all to his liking and where he can do anything he wants. Here in this universe the trees may all be Christmas trees, the moon may be his ball, and chocolate the only food. Here he can also create imaginary characters who do his bidding, and others who as projections of himself do the things he would like to do in the ways he would like to do them. Sometimes these imaginary people become so familiar that the child can describe their looks, habits, and modes of dress with particular vividness. One little boy of four and a quarter had three imaginary friends, Walker, Ringer, and Oregon. These three companions were often mentioned. "Why don't you buy a dress like Walker's?" he would ask his mother. When she inquired what it was like, he described its colour and shape in detail.

Some children seem to possess a greater predisposition than others for leading an active phantasy life. At times some children flee to an imaginary world of their own creation because the real world has proved too difficult for various reasons. A child may have had too little affection or companionship and too much deprivation and fear in his early life. He may be bored because he has insufficient outlets for his curiosity, intelligence, and energy. He may feel insecure and unloved. Or, again he may feel pushed by parents who have standards of activities too high and difficult for him.

Adults who see a child retiring to a world of dreams for his pleasures should exert themselves to make his real life happier. They should try to give him more opportunities to take a direct part in real activities appropriate to his age and abilities and to provide a social life that he will enjoy. Sometimes by giving him paints, clay, and crayons, they may encourage him to express his inner phantasies in a tangible way and at the same time to introduce objects from the world around him as his subject matter. Parents may also observe the child's particular interests and follow these up. If he likes birds, a trip to the park to feed the pigeons may be followed by a trip to the aviary in the zoo, and so on. Play with other children is especially helpful and if they are also imaginative they will act out the phantasies together until they are bored with them.

In this manner, by active play and self-expression based on direct observations and experiences, a child may be encouraged to find his satisfactions in more realistic ways. Instead of dreaming about climbing the tallest tree in the forest with the agility of a monkey, he will actually learn to climb the jungle gym and the apple tree in the orchard, and while he is doing this he will pretend that he is

a monkey. Instead of dreaming about a beautiful red yacht which can sail through sea and sky, he will transform boards, boxes, and stones into boats. He will discover that stones sink, cardboard disintegrates, and wood floats in the water. Eventually he will learn to fashion crude boats out of cigar boxes; and, carrying over the knowledge gained from watching his father manipulate his sailing boat, he will add a small sail or a tiller. In this way he will acquire the habit of making his wishes materialize in a concrete way.

A little boy four years old, called Jack, had a brother Bill aged five and a half. Jack was neither robust nor well co-ordinated. Bill was exceptionally active and able, and always urged Jack to do things beyond his powers. As a result Jack was continually hurting himself. At four, Bill knew how to ride a tricycle and could swim the length of the pool. Jack, at four, could do neither. His father made the mistake of teasing him and calling him "little washout."

Soon after this Jack developed an aversion to getting up in the morning. "Don't make me get up, I am having such lovely dreams," he would say, or, "You talked to me and spoiled it all; go away." He also became more and more absent-minded and dreamy when he was outdoors, with the result that he hurt himself more than ever.

Feeling concerned about him, his mother made a point of devoting an hour daily to him alone. During this time she would encourage him to paint and draw pictures of the wonderful people and places he claimed to be thinking about. She also wrote down the stories he would tell her, saying, "This is a nice pretend story" or "That is a nice make-believe person." At first he looked surprised when she said this, showing that he at least partially believed his stories; but as time went on he, too, would say, "This is just a make-believe story, Mummie."

In a year's time, Jack's day-dreaming had greatly diminished. He still showed an aversion to physical activities, particularly if they brought him into competition with his brother, but he now enjoyed playing with companions of his own age, and his painting and drawing developed remarkably. Most striking in the latter was the change in subject matter, for his pictures, which at first had been weird and fantastic, now began to represent the people and things around him.

PLAY: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHILDREN OF ONE, TWO, THREE, FOUR AND FIVE. By the time a child is two years old, he has acquired considerable control of his muscles. Walking, running, and climbing are now practised not entirely for their own sake but as means to an end. The fifteen-month-old child climbs the stairs for the fun of the accomplishment, but nine months later

he climbs the stairs because there is a toy he wishes to find in the nursery. The range of interests of the two year old has become wider. He chooses more kinds of materials, and he finds new uses for them. His dramatic play also begins about this age. A one year old is interested in a doll as a pleasing possession that can be carried and thrown around at will. About two years of age a child becomes interested in the doll because it is a baby that must be fed and bathed.

As a child progresses from two to three, from three to four, and from five to six, various mental changes occur. His attention span, the length of time an occupation will hold his interest, becomes increasingly long. He is more and more observant of everything that happens. His curiosity becomes more penetrating. And most striking of all, he sees a greater number of relationships between events and processes.

These changes are reflected in the content and the quality of his dramatic play. In building, for instance, a two-year-old child will spend five minutes piling a few blocks on top of each other and will call it a house. The child then starts some other activity. At three, the same child will build a hollow house with four walls, a roof, and a chimney, and will put his doll inside it. This will take him a good half-hour. At four, he will build a house of several floors with windows and doors. He will add a barn or a garage to his establishment, and a road leading to the door. It will take him a good part of the morning to build this, and he will play with it again in the afternoon. At five the child will design a whole intricate city, with houses and shops, streets, parks, buses, and tubes, and will play with it several days. In this way, through his various creative play activities, a child gradually incorporates the knowledge he is acquiring daily from his observations of the world around him.

Parental Help

LEARNING THROUGH DISCOVERY. As we have seen in the previous section children under six learn about the world chiefly through two main processes. The first is by exploration: they observe, they experiment, and they ask questions. The second is by the re-enactment of everything they have discovered, both through dramatic play and through the various creative materials they have at hand. In this play they recombine in a great many new but appropriate ways the knowledge they have acquired. For instance, having once learned that one of the unchangeable facts about trains is that they must always run on rails, they vary the kind of train they use, the kind of load it carries, and the places it goes to,

but they always furnish it with rails to run on. In this manner their curiosity, their wish to express themselves, their desire to participate, and their sense of the dramatic all find satisfaction.

Parents can help their child in this exciting business of discovery in several ways. They can let him try things out for himself as much as possible instead of showing him how. When he is given a new car, for instance, his parents should master the almost irresistible impulse to show him how to ride it, and let him experiment for himself. Perhaps he will spend a whole week rotating its wheels and pushing it around without ever trying to ride it. However, the time will come when he will discover its full possibilities, and the fact that he has found them alone will contribute to his initiative and independence. In this way the child will not feel pushed toward activities he is not physically or mentally ready for. If the child is timid, the temptation to help him and often push him is almost irresistible. Usually this is overdone, however, and his timidity is only increased by urging him on to an activity that he is not ready for. It is usually enough if the adult stands by, guards the child from hurt in new ventures, such as using a slide or jungle gym, and gives help only when asked or when really necessary.

Naturally there are certain instances in which the child, particularly if he lacks the stimulation of other children of his own age, should be allowed to draw on his parents' experience, and will profit by their suggestions and help. It is good for a child to learn to use the slide himself, but if he shows no initiative in this direction over a period of weeks, the mother may help him to climb the steps and sit on the slide with his legs in the right position. Having learned how to go about it and having acquired the necessary confidence, he will soon be doing it alone. Likewise, the child of five or so who has never painted anything but designs may suddenly acquire a new impetus if his mother accedes to his request and paints him a picture of a house or a bridge or an airplane.

Parents can help the child to answer his own questions instead of giving him glib answers. When a three-year-old child asks for the first time, "What makes the radiator hot?" the mother or father, as the case may be, may say, "Let's find out"; and then as soon as possible, while the child still remembers his question, a visit can be made to the basement. The pipes should be followed down, if possible, and their connection to the furnace pointed out.

While he is in the cellar, the child may ask about the coal. "What is that?" or "Who brings that?" or "How does that get in?" On their next walk the mother may look for a lorry which is unloading its coal. With rapt attention the child will watch the shiny black coal slide noisily down the chute into the cellar. He

will usually want to linger long after the parent's interest has been exhausted by this commonplace sight. Here again, parents may help by giving their small children sufficient time to see and understand instead of hurrying them. By this method of following things through, of seeing where they come from, where they go to, what they are used for, and what the outcome is, many lessons in cause and effect are learned.

When a child is taken on a journey, it is not necessary to point things out to him. Instead he should look by himself at that which attracts his interest and curiosity. All too often there is a continual flow of exclamations from the adult: "Oh, Johnny, look at this!" "Oh, Johnny, look at that!" This merely confuses and distracts the child.

Another thing parents may do is to choose carefully the experiences to which they expose their children. It is always a temptation to show a child the sensational and the dramatic; but it is far more useful for him, particularly in this complicated machine age, to see the simple things first. A small footbridge over a stream is a better introduction to a child's understanding of bridges than a huge bridge over a river. It is easier to grasp the uses of a small country station than those of a large city terminus. A small boat is more comprehensible than a huge liner. The same thing is true in watching the making of something. It is more instructive to see a man sawing wood than to see it cut by an electric saw. It is better to see a smithy soften the metal horseshoe in his forge than to see a steel drill in operation. It is more advisable to show a child the steps that are taken in building a small house than to let him watch the erection of a large block of flats, involving steam shovels, derricks, riveters, and a small army of workmen.

Country parents have to make an effort to find enough examples, town parents to find sufficiently simple examples, to illustrate the daily processes of life, the building of houses, the transportation of materials, and the making of goods which are essential to our daily living. It is only by understanding these simple processes that a child can acquire a sound grasp of the complicated world in which he lives.

In choosing experiences which are appropriate and profitable, parents should be guided by the child's natural interests and curiosities. In this way they will avoid forcing knowledge on him which he is not mentally ready to grasp.

Naturally, parents cannot always answer questions in a graphic fashion. When they do give an answer to a question, however, they should try to make it as simple and short as possible. Often they will be able to make the child answer the question himself by

turning it back at him or giving him an analogy. "Where does the snow go when it goes away?" asks a little girl. "What happened to the snowball you brought into the house in your pail?" replies her mother. "But where does the outdoor snow go when it melts?" the child persists. "Where does the rain water go?" the mother asks; or, if this seems too difficult, "Where does the water go when you water the flowers?" and so on and on. Gradually the child finds that he himself can discover the reasons for many things. In this way he lays the groundwork for logical thinking based on his own concrete observations of what goes on.

Learning Acceptable Social Behaviour. Children find it difficult to learn the rules governing good manners. They find them arbitrary and without reason. Why should one interrupt one's play to say "good morning"? Why is it necessary always to say "please" and "thank you"? Why may one eat a slice of buttered toast with one's fingers but only touch a slice of cold chicken with a fork? Why are certain words like "damn" and "hell" used by one's parents so bad to repeat? Why should one not speak of the lavatory or undress in front of visitors? Why is it so horrid to pick one's nose, or scratch one's head if one feels like it? Why does one have to shake hands with people one does not like and share one's toys with a child who comes in just for the afternoon?

Parents can teach their children by example that consideration for others is the basis of all good manners. Other people's feelings, sensibilities, and property are to be respected. Even the small, egotistical child of two, three, or four can begin to grasp this idea if the parents themselves practise what they preach and are truly considerate of others.

"Do you like to have people talk to you when you come into a room? Well, then, let us greet Aunt Mary and tell her we are glad to see her."

"Do you like me to grab your soap and your towel away from you while you are using them? Then don't grab my thimble while I'm using it."

"Do you like to be shouted at, or do you prefer to be asked pleasantly to come to lunch?"

Quite young, a child can understand this reasoning, but even more than the reasoning he remembers the manner in which he himself is treated. If he is shown consideration and respect, he sees the reason why good manners are desirable, and although he may often forget to say "please" and "thank you" when his mind is otherwise occupied, he will gradually learn to behave graciously and thoughtfully.

In teaching their children consideration for others, parents often forget to show consideration for their children, especially in the way they speak to them. When a four year old is in the midst of his description of something exciting that happened in the nursery school that morning, his mother interrupts with "Come here and let me button your shirt! You look so untidy going about like that." Parents who interrupt in this way, who contradict their children, who interrupt to correct their grammar ("Don't say, 'I were going'; say, 'I was going'.") and who give orders to them as if they were speaking to a dog ("Come here, I tell you! What do you mean by walking away like that?") would never dream of speaking to their own friends in this way. If the children are to be courteous, then in the first place they must be treated courteously.

A child's story often seems to an adult tedious and pointless, but to the child who lacks the proper vocabulary to bring out its dramatic value it is important and thrilling, and it is only fair that he should be listened to with some show of attention. His grammar is faulty, but the time to correct it is not at the crisis of his story. He may be wrong in some of his facts but, instead of interrupting him, these can be corrected later after the tale has been told and appreciated, in a casual way without reference to the story.

A certain number of commands are necessary in dealing with children, but most parents would be surprised if they realized how few are necessary. Most commands may be expressed in the form of a request which will be gladly carried out by a child without that feeling of resentment which compliance with a command often breeds. It is well to remember, too, that a child's memory is extremely short and that he cannot easily handle more than one command at a time. "Run upstairs," a mother tells her child, "and fetch me your coat to mend. And wash your hands because it is nearly time for lunch. You'd better shut your windows—I think it is going to rain. And bring my thimble too. It's in my work basket in my bedroom." The child departs, a little confused, to say the least. "Oh," the mother calls after him, "and my scissors. They're on my dressing table. And don't forget to do your hair before you come down!" In thirty seconds the child has received six different orders—and who will blame him if he forgets at least four of them?

Consideration toward a child is the first step to teaching him consideration for others.

ENCOURAGING VERBAL EXPRESSION. Children learn to talk at varying ages. Most children have mastered quite a number of words and phrases by the time they are two. There are some,

however, who do not start talking until they are two and a half years old. If they seem alert in their reactions, the lateness of their language is no cause for concern.

It sometimes happens that a child has been left alone a great deal; or he has been talked to very little, or very fast, or in baby talk; so that he has had small opportunity to learn. In other cases twins or children near the same age develop a chatter all their own. Since their mother understands their squeals and gestures sufficiently to provide them with all they need, and since they can communicate with each other, they lack the same incentive to talk as a child who seeks communication with a variety of youthful companions outside the home, or who must explain his needs to people who do not know the meaning of his signs and gestures.

Children may be encouraged to talk well and early if their parents speak to them slowly and say words rather than phrases. They may teach them the words for all the surrounding objects first, handling each object as they name it, or pantomiming the action as they refer to it. They may also repeat these same words frequently, and later limit themselves to short, simple sentences. They should never use baby talk as this retards the child's language and often his social adjustment, besides making him self-conscious by giving him the idea that his mistakes are cute and amusing. Children also become self-conscious when they first start to talk if there is the adoring, fatuous repetition of all the child's remarks as soon as he makes them. "Look at the wawoplane way up in the sky," says Johnny on their Sunday walk; and his mother says dotingly, "Did you hear? Johnny said, 'Look at the wawoplane way up in the sky.'" At this everyone laughs and Johnny feels he is irresistibly cute and smart.

Children usually feel extremely sensitive about being corrected or teased or laughed at when they mispronounce a word, and they may not try to say it again for a long time. To avoid this, parents can adopt the habit of repeating their child's words after him in the right way if he has made a mistake, without any tone of criticism or remark about it, and the child soon corrects himself.

Until he is six, the greatest help to his language development is his first-hand experience with objects and their uses, for in this way the meaning of the words he learns to speak is based on mental pictures of tactual or visual or auditory experiences. "Coal" is something he has touched; "train" is something he has seen, heard, and been on; "car reversing" is an event he has witnessed with his own eyes.

Having once learned a word, a child often repeats it over and over again. Sometimes he even makes a refrain out of it. "I go

round and round and round and round," sings the little girl many times in succession. "Horse pulling cart? Horse pulling cart?" the little boy inquires every time he sees a horse and cart on his morning's outing. This is the child's way of practising his vocabulary. When he puts it in question form, he is making sure that he has learned his lesson right. Sometimes a child asks the same question so many times that his mother becomes impatient with him. Instead of becoming annoyed, however, she may help him by turning the question back to him, for he is only trying to make certain of the sound and meaning of the word before he attempts to use it himself. Thus Jill asked ten times, "What's that, Mama?" pointing to a new pencil sharpener that had just been unwrapped and attached to the wall. Each time her mother told her the name, and she also gave her several illustrations of how to use it. The tenth time her mother said, "You tell me what it is." Jill answered very bashfully, "A pencil sharpener." This kind of timidity about new words is likely to occur when a child has a slightly older brother or sister who is articulate and who likes to laugh and tease the younger one if he mispronounces a word.

Problems in Learning

LOGIC, MEMORY, AND IMAGINATION. "I want my child to be logical, I want him to have a good memory, I want him to be imaginative. Is there anything I can do to further these qualities in him before he is six?" parents frequently ask.

Memory, imagination, and logic can all be furthered in indirect ways. Young children have a remarkable memory for the things and events which really catch their attention and interest. Laura at two and a half described to her aunt an event that had occurred three months previously. "I went swimming at the beach," she said. "I held a rubber horse. All the air went out of the rubber horse through a little hole and it went under the water." This was an accurate description of the event. In the remarks of all young children there are numberless examples of acute observation and memory extending back over surprisingly long periods of time.

In contradiction to this capacity for remembering things long past is a child's seeming inability to remember events less than a day old. "Who was at the party, what did you do?" asks the mother encouragingly. "I don't remember," answers the child. There are a variety of reasons for this apparent lack of memory. A child may not want to answer because his powers of description are limited, the efforts at narration are arduous, and the obligation to tell all is resented. It may be that he has an aversion to talking

about unpleasant events; or, again, he may really have forgotten an event which was confusing and overwhelming, or one which produced emotional tension in him. A two-year-old child who has greatly desired to take a trip in a fast motor boat may, having had his wish, never refer to the experience again because of the fear he felt while it was going on. On being questioned about it later, he may show that he has forgotten it. In the same way, a four year old who has just had his tonsils out will refuse to mention the hospital or the doctor in his conversation. From his behaviour he obviously remembers it all too well.

Since he has such a keen memory for events which really interest him, parents may further encourage the child's native powers of observation by allowing him to see and examine in a calm, leisurely, thorough manner those objects and events that attract his attention.

Children show a capacity to think and reason correctly at a surprisingly youthful age. Rachel, when asked at the age of two years and eight months where she had acquired such large eyes, replied, "Food makes me grow big." At two years and five months, Alec was one day washing his mother's arm with a flannel. Very carefully he washed a large scratch which had coagulated blood on it, then he looked at the flannel. It happened to have a bright orange rust spot, which he had not noticed, right at the place where he had been using it. He looked puzzled and asked, "That red," pointing to the arm, "that orange," pointing to the rag; "why?" Thinking that the blood had come off on the flannel, he could not understand its sudden change of colour from red to orange. When he was four and a quarter, he was scolded for urinating near his play-room and told it would make a bad smell. He replied in his defence, "The guinea pigs live here and they smell bad, so it doesn't matter if I do it here."

What hinders and retards most children in their thinking and makes them seem irrational is either misinformation or an insufficiency of facts and knowledge on which to base their reasoning. For instance, a child who sees a cow being milked for the first time may ask, "How did the milk get into the cow from the bottle?" If the child's only experience with milk has been the milk bottle delivered daily at the house, if he has never seen a cow being milked or a female animal nursing its young, his remark is not stupid or illogical but merely shows lack of knowledge. Parents may help their children to think clearly, not only by the obvious logic of their own talk and actions, but also by giving them opportunities to follow through in an ordered fashion the activities of those around them. In turn let them see the cow being milked, the bottles being filled, and the milk being transported. In this

way they will accumulate one by one the bricks with which their thinking processes will be built.

It is the same with imagination as with memory and logic. Parents cannot supply it to their children, but they may further its development by allowing them to experiment and do things in new and different ways, if they so desire, instead of always imitating others and sticking to the hidebound, conventional ways. When a child is painting, let him portray what he desires instead of copying some model that may mean little or nothing to him. Likewise, in music, drawing, and story-telling, the child's own spontaneous and undirected expression should be encouraged.

CONFUSIONS RESULTING FROM WORDS. If a child is to learn to think clearly, he must learn to observe facts accurately, and he must bring those facts together in correct relation to each other. The boiling water in the saucepan is the result and not the cause of the brightly burning fire. In many ways parents may give their children help in avoiding confusion and establishing mental order.

Words are the most common source of confusion. If a child is bright and asks searching questions, if he likes to be talked to and read to, many parents are tempted to go beyond his powers of real understanding in the things they tell him and the books they read to him. Soon he becomes lost in a maze of new words and ideas. He shows his confusion by expressing mistaken notions and asking fantastic questions.

This confusion can be avoided by limiting both reading and explanations as much as possible to subjects which touch upon the child's first-hand experience, at least until he is five years old. If, for instance, a girl of four has never seen a desert, a camel, or an Arab, it is not sensible to read her a story about a desert expedition for it will bring up many questions. " What makes a desert ? Why don't camels need to drink very often ? What are oases ? " asks the child, At that age it is much more appropriate to read her a story about a house and a farm. This will reinforce and extend her knowledge about things nearer home. She may discover, for example, that contrary to her previous ideas, horses like to eat oats and hay rather than chocolate cake.

Later, when children are more thoroughly acquainted with their own environment, they will have a basis for making comparisons, and stories of far-away people and far-away lands, and their knowledge of strange customs, will become useful and informative.

All young children like picture books in which they can identify objects they know. They like to point to " cup, baby, bed, dog, car." Later they like stories in which they recognize the experiences related : stories of a child taking a bath or making a snow

man or taking a ride in a car. Both with the pictures and the stories the child is reinforcing his own newly acquired knowledge. For this same reason he likes the repetition of certain words or phrases in the story itself, and he also likes to hear the same story many times over.

If watched closely, the child's own interest is a good guide to the stories and explanations appropriate to him. As soon as his attention lags or he starts asking too many questions, it is time to stop.

FAIRY TALES. "How about fairy tales and make-believe stories?" parents ask at one time or another. Children under six are likely to find, for somewhat different reasons, that these are confusing and also frightening. Because young children are still so inexperienced in the way the world works, they are not particularly surprised if beanstalks grow very tall overnight, for perhaps there really are plants like that somewhere. They are not astonished by magic carpets that fly, because after all airplanes and airships fly. Thus fairy tales only serve to make the ways of the real world more difficult to puzzle out.

It is better to withhold fairy tales from children until such time as they have a fairly good grasp of the facts, the whys and wherefores of their environment. When they feel secure in their knowledge of how things really are and function, they are ready for and should have fairy tales (especially the classics) which often provide them with much vicarious satisfaction. Some children who have been well grounded in reality show little interest in the illogical, magic realm of fairyland; but most children, while recognizing the unreality and impossibility of these stories, relish them and have little difficulty in separating them clearly from the everyday world about them.

Another reason why fairy tales are not desirable until the age of five or six is that the evil witches, wicked sorcerers, and fire-breathing dragons frighten imaginative children when they are very young. They really believe in them, and when the wind rattles the panes at night or the stairs creak, they become terrified.

It is not only the supernatural that frightens children. Often they dislike any story involving aggression. Michael at two and a half was much attracted to the pictures in *Peter Rabbit* and asked to have the story read to him. When his mother reached the part where the cross Mr. McGregor chases and wants to kill Peter Rabbit, he grabbed the book away from her, and it was two years before he allowed her to read it to him again, always saying, "Not the book about the cross old man." In the same way he formed a violent dislike to the Babar elephant books because the

first story started out with Babar's mother being shot by a hunter.

Though parents delay the reading of fairy tales until five or six, they do not have to be tiresomely factual. Fully half of the story books written for children are personalizations of animals. Before starting to read a mother can say, "Dogs don't really dress up and talk, do they?" "No," says the child, with a knowing laugh, and the story proceeds.

Little boys and girls also love to take flights of fancy, and they think it is highly amusing to reverse the established order of things. If a mother, with a little wink as a signal, tells her child a preposterous story about the dogs that flew and the snow that burned, the child will think it is hilariously funny and add embellishments of his own.

Parents who are very factual worry about Santa Claus. Since they must not lie to their child, they sometimes ask themselves if they should tell him there is no Santa Claus. This does not seem necessary. Usually at about six or so, children have discovered by themselves that Santa Claus is a pleasant hoax, but exchanging a knowing grin with their parents they play at believing in him for several more years.

A conversation between John and his mother illustrates the kind of logical questions that arise in the minds of all children when they are told a make-believe story seriously. Out of a clear sky one day when he was four and a quarter John asked, "Where does Santa Claus live?" His mother replied, "They say he lives far, far north, no one knows just where." "How can the postman take letters to him then?" "What letters?" "The letters children write to him telling what they want for Christmas." "I don't know." "How does he get his toys from the toy shop? Does he telephone for them from the north? How do the reindeer get on the roof? And how does Santa Claus get down the chimney?" To the last question his mother replied lamely, "I've never seen him do it, I don't know." At intervals during the next few months John continued his questions. Finally his mother told him that Santa Claus was only a pretend person which grown-ups had invented for the fun of their children and for their own fun. To her great relief John was not at all disappointed but whooped with delight and amusement at the thought that his daddy sometimes dressed up as Santa Claus at Christmas time. He continued the myth with gusto, telling his younger sister about Santa Claus with mock gravity.

INAPPROPRIATE EXPERIENCES. Particularly in towns children are likely to suffer from the confusion created by too many experiences, as well as inappropriate ones. At nursery schools young

children are frequently taken on educational tours to see post-offices, market places, and other points of interest. It has been found that jaunts of this sort are neither talked about nor reflected in the children's play until several days later. This shows that a child needs time to assimilate a new experience.

For this reason excursions should not be too frequent. They should also be well chosen. A circus is too overwhelming at this age. The child may have a good time while he is at the circus, but during the next few weeks his energies and his activities are given over to the chaotic and meaningless play which reflect the preposterous stunt world he has seen.

Similarly large zoos, fairs, and amusement parks, all of which bear little or no relation to anything he knows, are of questionable value as an experience to a child and only serve to confuse him. Museums are also confusing unless the visit is limited to seeing only a few things.

Movies, even if they are children's movies of Pop Eye the Sailor and stories of a similar nature, serve to excite a child and overstimulate him; and in addition, they are not really understood. Besides this, most movies have terrifying episodes which give the child under six needless fears.

CONFUSIONS RESULTING FROM IRRATIONAL ADULT BEHAVIOUR. Adults who attach great importance to good manners confuse a child if they themselves do not observe them. A mother feels she may tell her daughter to shut up or interrupt her while she is talking to someone; but if the child either tells her mother to shut up or interrupts her, she is severely reprimanded. A father may think nothing of swearing in the presence of his son, and he may often put his feet on the desk; but if the boy swears or puts his feet on the desk, he is scolded. This convinces a child that manners are usually quite arbitrary and depend on the unpredictable whims of grown-ups.

Capriciousness in the emotional realm is even more confusing and disturbing to a child. If a mother or father is indulgent and loving one day and severe and cross the next, often seemingly without reason or with insufficient reason, a child feels lost. If his parents seem changeable in their love for him, he feels uncertain of them and often of himself. He may not dare to give his love fully and openly for fear of being rebuffed; and, having discovered that the only person he may safely love without fear of hurt is himself, the child may come to care more for himself than for other people. This tends to make him self-centred instead of outgoing toward others and will affect his relationships with other persons both then and later in life.

CONFUSIONS RESULTING FROM COMPLICATED RELIGIOUS TEACHING. Religious teaching may be a source of much confusion to a child. Of course parents usually impart to their children as simply as possible those beliefs which they themselves really hold. On the other hand, they should not hesitate to put off explanations involving abstract questions by saying " That is very difficult to understand. When you are older, I will explain it to you."

Parents with religious backgrounds often unknowingly create in the minds of their children a sense of having sinned when they have been naughty or bad-tempered, and create an exaggerated sense of guilt and fear of God's punishment. Their vivid imaginations often elaborate the sense of sin and the nature of punishment, or they may come to desire punishment to relieve them of their sense of guilt at the same time that they dread it.

The most constructive religious concept that parents can give their children under the age of six is the Golden Rule. As all young children are completely self-centred at the start, this concept is hard for them to learn. Gradually, however, and much more through parental example than by command, they begin to grasp the significance of " Do unto others as you would have others do unto you." The personal meaning of religion to the child comes through what he senses is its meaning to the parents.

FORCED LEARNING. Because most people do not realize how much young children learn through observation and creative play, or because they are anxious to give their child an early start, they are often anxious to teach them to read, write, count, and speak different languages, beginning when they are very small.

The learning of a foreign language before a child has gained proficiency in his native tongue is confusing to him for obvious reasons. He has to learn to understand and pronounce a double number of words. Often, as in English and German, the construction is different. In this way too much of his attention is diverted from learning by observation and play to mastering a language. A child is also likely to feel inferior to his contemporaries when he finds that he cannot express himself as well as they can. By the time he is four or five, however, a child is usually well enough grounded in his own language to be able to start another tongue with ease.

Reading, writing, and numbers are confusing to most children until they are about six, because symbols are difficult for them to grasp before this age. The concept of the written number is particularly difficult for young children.

There are several reasons besides the confusion it causes which make reading inadvisable before six, even if the child memorizes

his letters with great facility and is anxious to learn. In the first place, it is a waste of the child's time. The first year a child learns to read he usually becomes deeply immersed in it, to the exclusion of other things. Until he is six, there are many occupations more appropriate and beneficial to him. He needs to be bodily active during most of his waking hours. He should continue to focus his attention on the outside world where he still has much to learn through direct observation and in play with other children. The books written for children under six are not for the most part very enlightening. Lastly, the child over six learns to read with so much greater rapidity that it seems a waste of effort to force him to labour over it earlier.

There are two other dangers. This first is that reading before six sometimes causes strain to eye muscles, which are not yet strong and fully developed. The second is that the adult in his teaching enthusiasm is likely to push the child beyond his powers and his interest, and this may create in the child an aversion to reading which he carries over to his school years. On the other hand, if he is deprived of normal social activity with his own age group because of his intellectual pursuits, he may find considerable difficulty in getting on with people in later years.

CHAPTER IX

THE CHILD'S RELATION TO FAMILY AND FRIENDS

Authority — Companionship — Fears and Anxieties — Family Relations.

Authority

WHAT IS A GOOD CHILD? A child who has energy, initiative, and determination, one who has alertness, curiosity, and an eagerness to explore, is richly endowed, and these qualities will be invaluable to him throughout his life. These very characteristics, however, may make him more difficult to manage in his early years. His zeal to explore may interfere with his parents' comfort, and his tenacity tends to make him rebellious of commands and requests. Parents who succeed in teaching their children to be co-operative in the daily business of living, without either repressing their initiative and curiosity or arousing their rebelliousness, have achieved a highly desirable kind of goodness.

Unfortunately, many parents think of "good behaviour" mainly in terms of their own convenience, and approve of a child's conduct only if he conforms to adult standards of manners by doing what he is told to do quickly, quietly, and without argument, and never opposes the adult will. The extreme docility and obedience which this kind of "good behaviour" requires can be achieved only by continually punishing or threatening to punish the child who obeys through fear. These methods eventually are bound to curtail the child's initiative and repress his natural curiosity. Later in life he is likely either to be extremely resentful of any authority or else to follow the leadership of other people blindly.

By gaining a real understanding of the various reasons why all children naturally behave at times in wilful, contrary, or aggressive ways, parents are better able to decide by what methods they may teach their children to act in an acceptable manner without sacrificing inherent qualities which will stand them in good stead later.

The first half of this section is devoted to an examination of the various kinds of difficult behaviour which all children go through at times, and the reasons for it. The last half suggests ways in which parents can deal with aggressive behaviour on the part of their children and the means by which they can successfully maintain necessary authority and control.

TROUBLESOME BEHAVIOUR NORMAL TO ALL YOUNG CHILDREN. Children often seem perverse to their parents when they are not being intentionally naughty, but are only behaving in ways natural to their years. For instance, a young child has a need for almost perpetual motion, an endless curiosity, and an urgent desire to experiment. "Sit still," says an exasperated mother to her two-year-old daughter who, while she has been trying to dry and dress her after a bath, has reached for the lotion and accidentally upset it, has patted her mother's newly waved hair with soaking hands, and has flopped the wet sponge on her dry underwear. "Sit still," says the father of a four-year-old boy after the first fifteen minutes of a drive during which the child has handled every knob on the dashboard of the car, and has then begun to twist and bounce and wriggle on the seat. The trouble is that parents forget how utterly impossible it is for any child to remain still and quiet for more than a few minutes at a time in this period of experiment and query.

In addition, the young child has a very short attention span. His mind wanders to many things while he is dressing himself or putting his toys away, and he needs to be reminded frequently of the task at hand. He also forgets what he is told. Fifteen minutes after he has been cautioned not to play on the wet grass he is likely to chase a butterfly or a bird across the lawn, completely forgetting in the excitement of the chase that he has just been told to remain on the path. Again, there is no substitute for patience. The child does not mean to be naughty, but he is so carried away by his interest of the moment that the earlier adult request has really slipped from his mind.

Besides this, he likes to show off. "Look at me," he says as he does stunts, dresses up, runs about naked, or makes faces in the mirror. The child's desire to display himself may often be inconvenient and irritating to the adult, yet the child is not being purposely annoying. He has not learned to take himself and what he does for granted. He needs the adult's attention, praise, and approval to give him confidence and pleasure in himself and what he does. If he is always scolded for showing off, the desire will persist in later, less appropriate years and he may then become painfully shy and self-conscious.

At times a child's lack of co-ordination and resulting clumsiness make him accidentally troublesome. "Let me help, let me do it," he shouts, and he tries to carry the pan full of shelled peas to his mother, but trips on the way and scatters them all over the kitchen floor.

Again, children's primitive sense of humour and high spirits

lead them to actions that are frequently disagreeable to their parents. They like to clatter a saucepan on a hard floor and seem to find the noise as funny as their parents find it disturbing. They think it amusing to bump their heads or bodies against an adult's; it seldom seems to hurt them, and they laugh gaily while the grown person feels jarred by the impact. They are usually much amused by anything that has been spilled, broken, or upset. Sometimes they become silly. They giggle, throw themselves about until they are in a semi-hysterical state, and are not responsible for the things they do. Their high spirits and excessive energy also lead them to disturbing and destructive actions. "I'm a clown," shouts a five-year-old boy as he bounces on the couch until the springs squeak, and then spins around the room, imperilling the lamps and tables in his burst of energy. Sometimes this hysterical state in children is the result of fatigue or excitement. They cry and ask for innumerable things, none of which they really want.

This lack of co-operation in a child is increased by the fact that he has little understanding of the reasons for the routines and prohibitions that are imposed on him. Cleanliness, tidiness, punctuality, and the preservation of property, have no real meaning for him during the early years. He sees no reason for washing his hands, for putting his toys away, or for going to bed at a certain hour. Thus, his lack of understanding, his short memory and short attention span, and his urge to do and be and discover are all hindrances to the well-ordered existence his family are usually trying to achieve for him and for themselves. There is therefore no need for parents to feel discouraged or defeated if they are not able to teach their young children to become controlled and co-operative individuals overnight. They learn this only over a period of years, in large part through copying their parents' attitude toward them.

Parents often complain that when their child becomes really absorbed in doing something he likes, it is extremely difficult to presuade him to leave it when the time comes for some other activity. This concentration should be encouraged and does not mean that the child is wilful, for all young children are intent on their own pleasure. Their immediate wishes are all-important to them. They want to do the thing that is fun or that feels nice and keep it up until they are tired of it. When they are deprived of an enjoyable pursuit, or it is cut short, they feel bitterly disappointed because, living in the present as they do, they find it hard to see that the next occupation they are asked to substitute for the present one may likewise be fun in its way. They also find it difficult to visualize a near future in which the existing pleasure will be

repeated. "To-morrow" or even "this afternoon" has little meaning for a small child.

When Lucy and John were two and four, respectively, they were allowed to take all their clothes off on hot summer days and run through the sprinkler on the lawn. They both loved this improvised shower bath, and when the time came for the water to be turned off they were always disappointed. However, the promise that the bath could be repeated on the following morning and the suggestion of some other enjoyable activity would soon console John; but Lucy, because she was almost two years younger and had not learned either to postpone or find substitutes for the pleasure of the moment, would cry in a broken-hearted fashion for some time.

The acceptance of frustration which is inevitable is more difficult for some individuals than for others. Just as children differ in their tastes, in their physical stature, and in their mental capacities, so do they differ in the intensity of their wishes. The more energy, the more emotion, and the more determination a child brings to his living, the harder he strives for his pleasures and satisfactions, the more difficult is it for him to accept either denial or the cutting short of the thing he wants to have to do. For instance, one child will try to extricate his car from behind the door of a shed where it has become jammed in by a pile of big wooden blocks. After a few minutes of work, during which he has not succeeded in budging it, he will give the whole thing up and go to the near-by slide. Another child who wants the car will work with such vigour and apply his faculties to the task so completely that he will succeed in freeing it, although he is no older or stronger than the first child. A third child unable to do what he wants with the toy will turn in fury on it, or will try to get an adult to move it for him. The strength of purpose will lead the second and third child to make much more of an outcry if they are crossed in some activity which is close to their hearts.

Adults should make allowances for a child's temperament when they apply rules and regulations, always remembering that the strong, determined, intense individual finds it much harder to curtail his pleasures for necessary routines. The strong-willed child should be treated with particular patience and wisdom, for it is important that he should learn both the need and the advantages of adapting his wishes to existing circumstances. In time he will come to realize that the adult is not trying to dominate him but is directing him in a reasonable manner. In this way he will not form a habit of fighting all adults for the impossible wish of the moment, but will learn to direct his energies toward attaining acceptable satisfactions and pleasures.

Mary and Dorothy, two cousins aged five, were both determined little girls. Mary, who had been cared for by an understanding mother, applied her determination to her work and her games. She would persevere in her efforts to construct a special kind of building or to paint an airplane, until she had successfully carried out her idea. Dorothy, whose care had been entrusted to a variety of nurses while her mother worked in an advertising office, showed equal intelligence and talent, but she devoted a large share of her energies to opposing her nurse's commands. As a result, every routine action, such as going out and coming in, going to meals, and going to bed, was preceded by an emotional argument which diverted her time and thought from her creative play. Being frustrated in a normal desire for the companionship and attention of her mother, she expressed her anger, naturally enough, on the nurse, and was more preoccupied with resentment than with what she was doing.

WILFUL DISOBEDIENCE. Children are not only unco-operative and disobedient in unintentional ways; frequently they are quite deliberately naughty and rebellious. When a child acts mischievously, he is often prompted by high spirits and the desire for excitement as well as a desire to act aggressively to a greater or lesser degree. A forbidden occupation gives him a thrill. Opposing the adult's wish gives him a sense of power. He wants to try out his own strength. He is anxious to see how far and how long he can have his way and how much attention he can command. Thus, Janet at two would scribble all over the walls and furniture with a coloured crayon, with occasional glances at her parents to see if she was being observed. When her mother discovered what she was doing, she would take the crayon away and scold her. This, however, would only bring an unrepentant laugh. She would then watch her mother scrub the marks off the wall and would murmur, "Naughty, naughty Janet" in a disapproving tone of voice but with a look of great satisfaction on her face, until she finally realized that she would be deprived of the crayon and get no other reaction from her mother. At three Janet went to a party where she saw a little boy defy his nurse. That evening she refused to go to bed. Her mother said, "I'll have to lift you into your bed if you won't climb in yourself." Janet replied, "Then I will scream and scream." As Janet shared a room with her brother and knew that noise after the bed hour was forbidden, she had always gone to bed very quietly up to that time. From then on for a period of several weeks, however, she frequently refused to go to bed. Her mother finally resolved the question by putting her in a room by herself, saying to her, "In this room you may scream, or stay

up and bounce up and down the bed if you wish to, as the noise you make will not disturb anyone." She put her daughter there with the light off every night she made a fuss, until, in a short while, Janet was convinced that this form of defiance did not pay.

When an act of mischief is not noticed by the parents, a child is often disappointed and calls attention to it himself. This is in part because he feels robbed of his satisfaction in having defied the adult, and in part because he does not know whether or not he will be punished and, if so, how severely. For instance, when Giles was three he would often climb out of his crib at naptime and take a toy from the shelf. He would then climb back into bed and play with it instead of sleeping. When his mother came in to get him up, he would hide the toy under the covers. If she pretended not to notice he would soon tell her, looking both rather pleased and anxious, and would then ask, " What are you going to do to me ? "

At other times a child will openly defy some reasonable request. He shouts, " I will not put my coat on, I will not go out." He behaves in this way not because he objects to going out, but because he wishes to pit his strength against that of the adult. He also enjoys making a scene and having a real fight, for it gives him a sense of power both to oppose his parents' will and to see them become wrought up over his behaviour. He likes the excited and emotional kind of attention they bestow on him at such times. One day when Paul was four, his mother asked his aunt to bathe him and put him to bed while she did some work at her desk. Although Paul liked his aunt very much, he made a terrible scene about taking his bath. He shrieked and howled for no apparent reason, while his aunt stood by helplessly. Eventually he calmed down and allowed her to wash him. As she tucked him in bed, he said disappointedly, " I cried very hard ; why didn't Mother come and scold me ? "

AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR. When one considers the endless number of things a child is told to do during the course of a day, many of which he is too young to see the necessity for, and when one counts the times he is crossed in his wishes, it does not seem surprising that he often and quite normally resents adult authority. When a child does feel angry, he shows it both by word and deed. At a surprisingly young age he learns to express his fury vocally by abusive language and dismays his parents by his bloodthirsty threats. At three when John became angry with his mother he would shout, " I'll poke your eye out, I'll knock your head off " ; yet he had never heard such remarks made by anyone. By four he had enlarged his vocabulary. " I'll take a saw and cut you in little

pieces, you dirty thing! I'll take an axe and chop you up!" were his favourite battle cries. Mere words are often not a sufficient outlet for a child's rage, and he resorts to physical violence. At such times he seeks to inflict injury. He will brandish a small nursery chair or throw toys. He will hit, kick, bite, pinch, and spit. He will also express his anger by the destruction of property. He may, throw water, upset a lamp, or hurl something out of the window.

If a child has not been spoiled and his parents have a reasonable attitude, such bursts of anger are not frequent but are to be expected at times. If, on the other hand, parents are arbitrary and try to force a child to do their bidding, the child's wrath and his desire for revenge at the humiliations he feels he has undergone spur him to more and more belligerent behaviour. For this reason the spirited child who is ruled by threats, punishments, and coercion is always more aggressive, unless his spirit has been broken and he has been cowed into obedience.

The child who is resentful of parental authority, however, often does not show it directly. If he is afraid of his parents, he does not dare reveal his anger to them either by word or deed, but expresses it when he is away from them, often by bullying other children or by being destructive, or by the type of play acting that has been described above in which he acts out on a toy what he is going to do, or gives vent to it in monologue. The opportunity for such expression without comment or criticism expressed or implied is exceedingly important.

A child behaves in a belligerent way not only when he is resenting authority but also when he feels jealous of the time and attention his mother devotes to his father, and as a result may resent him and show it, if he dares, by rough and defiant acts when he is in his presence. The same is true of a little girl who has developed a great affection for her father, and as a result resents her mother. An understanding of the cause of this behaviour rather than a moral attitude toward it helps to correct it. The aggression toward the parent of the same sex should be passed over. Likewise, if a child is jealous of a new baby and feels supplanted by him in his mother's affections, he may become combative and dictatorial both at home and at school; and later, when the baby is older and starts playing around, he may show his jealousy by plaguing and hurting the younger child. This is discussed in the section Relations between Brothers and Sisters, later in this chapter.

When he first goes to nursery school a child who feels uncertain of himself because he is smaller, less able, or new to that particular group, may either hang back and be very shy and frightened, or he

may become very self-assertive and full of fight. Eventually, when he has made friends and gained more confidence, he relaxes and becomes more sociable.

The summer Bill was three he first became acquainted with the son of a neighbour, a boy called Tom who was six months older. On several occasions they fought over toys. Tom hit Bill and made him run away. The following winter after an absence of four months Tom came to visit Bill. This time Bill pitched into Tom and made him run away. The day after the visit Bill said, " Last summer Tom hit me and I was scared of him. Yesterday I hit Tom, now he's scared of me." The following summer Bill was the more aggressive of the two boys and usually started the argument that invariably ended in a fight. It was only toward the end of the season, when he had really learned that he could hold his own, that he became more relaxed and friendly.

We see, therefore, that a child's most aggressive acts, even though they are intentional, usually come from causes beyond his immediate control, for a high-spirited child cannot help feeling angry when he is coerced or humbled, and he retaliates in the only ways he knows how. Nor can a child control his feelings of jealousy and fear which also promote his truculence, although for different reasons.

THE SPOILED CHILD. Aggression and rebellion are common in the child who is spoiled. Having or doing what he wants is all-important to him, and asserting his will over the adult's has become a necessity and a pleasure. He feels that he is loved if he gets what he wants, and disliked and rejected if he does not. Because his aggressive and wilful behaviour makes him feel guilty, he needs continual reassurance that he is loved in spite of his bad behaviour. Most children who are badly spoiled reflect the emotional problems of their parents. It may be an indication of uncertainty or anxiety in the parent, or of a need that the parent is seeking inappropriately to have satisfied in his relation to his offspring.

Parents may learn to distinguish a spoiled child from one who is merely determined, by the reasons which prompt him to assert his will, and the frequency with which he does so. If a child makes a great fuss about leaving the boat he has been building for the past hour and will not go to his lunch until he has put the last funnel on, he is not spoiled, but is only showing the same kind of earnestness that a mechanic might show who is just finishing the repair of an engine. If, on the other hand, a boy has been fooling and tinkering at the workbench for some time without doing anything, and suddenly, just as he is asked to leave, becomes determined to build

a chair or a table, he is showing a desire to assert his will for its own sake or to annoy his parents rather than to finish the job.

DEVELOPMENT OF REASONABLE ATTITUDES. The general approach to the problem of reasonable behaviour in a child takes for granted a reasonable attitude on the part of the parents. They may go far toward obtaining their children's co-operation in the necessary routines of daily life by simplifying them and making them agreeable and understandable. They may also encourage the observance of prohibitions by making them as few and as reasonable as possible. Blind obedience on the child's part obtained through force and fear of punishment is entirely inconsistent with the development in the child of independent and reasonable thinking and action. Too much authority enforced in the early years tends to develop a timid, gentle child into a repressed adult who is a complete conformist, and it usually transforms the strong-willed child into a rebellious person. Parents who have discovered that example is much more important than precept in teaching young children avoid a dogmatic attitude. They try not to use force in obtaining obedience because they do not wish to instil the idea that might is right. They avoid the "eye for an eye" kind of behaviour so that their children will not grow up with a belief in direct retaliation as a desirable method of conduct.

Instead, wise parents seek to teach their children by keeping the requirements simple, by being reasonable and encouraging in their attitudes, by using only appropriate punishments, by taking pains to diminish the causes for aggressive behaviour, and when the expression of aggression is necessary by giving an opportunity for it through play and acting.

KEEPING THE REQUIREMENTS EASY AND SENSIBLE. Many people make the mistake of having too many rules and requirements for a young child. He is supposed to leave his play and come immediately when he is called, yet no grown person would like or accept such abrupt treatment. He is expected to wash and dry his hands thoroughly when told to. He is supposed to dress himself by the age of four or thereabouts. Great emphasis is placed on good table manners All this makes life extremely arduous and often unpleasant for him.

If, instead, standards are made easy and understandable to the child, all these daily routines become much more agreeable. When a child is given five minutes warning before stopping his play, he does not feel he has been jerked away from the middle of some absorbing game. If he is allowed to amuse himself with the soap for a few minutes while washing his hands, and is not scolded for having overlooked a little dirt, he will not mind these frequent

ablutions. By not giving him the whole responsibility of dressing himself, of struggling with pull-over shirts, buttons, and shoelaces, while all this is still difficult for him, much strain and irritation will be avoided for the child and the mother. When a child is allowed to eat without being continually reminded that he should not stir and splash his soup, that he should use his fork instead of his spoon, and that he should chew with his mouth closed, he will enjoy his meal much more. Thus, by allowing a little room for fun and experiment in all the daily tasks, the way is made pleasanter.

As already stated, there should also be as few prohibitions and rules as possible, but these should be observed consistently unless there is a reasonable need for an exception. For instance, a child should always wash his hands before meals, but he shouldn't be asked or expected to stay clean during his play hours. He may be taught to be reasonably quiet at certain times, as when there are visitors, but he should be permitted to make as much noise as he wants while he plays. While being taught a respect for other people's possessions, he may be allowed to do as he wishes with his own toys.

Again, a child who understands the reasons for the things he is asked to do, or who at least gets the feeling from the manner and the tone of voice in which he is asked that the request is a reasonable one, is much more tractable than the child who is given point-blank commands which antagonize him because they seem arbitrary. The adult's explanation may usually be given with an injunction: "Hurry up and eat while your lunch is warm for it will taste better." "Go to bed and to sleep so that you will be rested to-morrow and will be able to take the long walk we are planning." "You would not like me to splash water on your pretty dress, so try not to splash water on mine." These are all reasons a child is willing to listen to and eventually learns to understand. What is more, if he has perceived the need for a certain kind of behaviour, he is much more likely to practise it later of his own volition, thereby establishing a desirable habit. When John was three and three-quarters, he called out after he was tucked into bed one night, "I want to brush my teeth. I want to brush my teeth." "But you did brush your teeth," said his mother who had returned to the room at his outcry. "Not after the sweets Daddy gave me. I don't want to have holes in my teeth. The dentist would have to put gold lumps in them like yours." On the other hand, the child who has never grasped the reasons underlying the routines he is made to practise will neglect them as soon as supervision has been removed.

SUGGESTION AND ENCOURAGEMENT INSTEAD OF COMMAND.

Parents who use suggestion and encouragement instead of arbitrary command as a means of teaching their children usually succeed in bringing about desirable behaviour without sacrificing pleasant relations.

On a certain morning a child may not wish to dress or be dressed. By suggesting the various activities he may engage in after breakfast, his interest can usually be aroused and his contrariness forgotten. Another time a child may not wish to stop playing and go to lunch. A different way of arousing his interest may be tried. "I wonder if you can guess what we are having for lunch?" inquires the adult. "Chicken? Peas? Custard?" asks the child, and soon he runs to the dining room to satisfy his curiosity.

If a child starts some undesirable or destructive game, such as splashing water out of a basin or throwing his toys around the room, the adult may suggest a more appropriate activity and even help him start it. This is a more effective way of discouraging the undesirable pursuit than a curt command to "stop it." "Here, Bill," the mother may say; "you know you mustn't splash water like that. Why don't you water the flowers instead?" And presenting him with the watering can, she may then turn the tap off and empty the basin. At first he may not want to give up his initial occupation, but when he sees that his mother is firm in prohibiting it, and if at the same time she has some new occupation to substitute for it, he will usually be reasonable about changing to the more acceptable activity.

Sometimes if a child has bumped himself, if he is unhappy because he has broken some treasured toy, or if he feels aggrieved because some outing has had to be postponed, the adult may try to divert his attention to some other channel. When the child is very young, the adult may say, "What is the noise I hear out of the window? Look, it is a bright yellow car blowing its horn." And soon the interest is directed to what is going on outside. When the child is older, the parent may ask for help in some occupation he knows the child likes. "I need some help in opening this parcel. Could you get your scissors and cut the string?" or "I have to wash some gloves. Would you like to help me melt the soap flakes and make suds?"

There is another time when diversion can often be employed with success. "I don't want to leave the beach and go home," says the little boy determinedly. "Hurry up," says his mother. "Put your shoes on and I'll race you to the bus." In this way, by means of a diversion, she gets the necessary co-operation.

This last kind of temporizing is useful on occasion, but it can be overdone by the parent who is afraid of ever creating an issue.

Particularly if a child is given to making scenes to have his way, he must learn that there are times when his wishes cannot be considered and that he must do what he is told. "We have to meet Daddy at the station. Stop playing now and put your coat on, for we can't make him wait."

"What if the child who is hurt or disappointed or determined on having his own way cannot be diverted?" parents ask. If he cannot be diverted, then he will either cry or storm until he gets over it. However, particularly in cases where he is hurt or disappointed, a diversion will shorten the length of his crying.

At other times a child needs encouragement and approval. For instance, a three year old may start to put his socks on, but they become twisted. The parent who gives a word of encouragement and possibly a little help may persuade the child to persevere in the task he would otherwise give up. All too often the mother becomes impatient and takes over the whole job of putting on the socks. This is disheartening, not only because of his own lack of skill but also because of his parent's lack of belief in it.

While it is true that rules, regulations, and routines must exist in every home, nevertheless the parents should be willing to make exceptions to these when the occasion warrants. No matter how irrational the child's wish may be, when he feels very strongly about it, parents should try to grant it (at least in part) if it is harmless. For instance, suppose a little girl is given a large doll for her birthday. Her mother may have established a rule that only one small toy may be taken to bed, as it has been found that large toys or more than one plaything get in the child's way when she sleeps. However, if she feels passionately about taking the large doll to bed with her, an exception may be made to the rule rather than have an upsetting scene, because the wish is so understandable and not really harmful. Likewise, if a child is deeply absorbed by some new activity, even though it is his lunch hour or bedtime, it is only reasonable to take into account the unusual degree of emotion and interest involved and agree to change the schedule by ten minutes or so.

It is obvious that suggestions, compromises, and parental approval are of help in dealing with children. Yet to use them consistently requires patience, ingenuity, self-control, imagination, and a sense of humour on the part of parents. Often parents tire of the time it takes to handle their children by these methods and are tempted to issue abrupt commands, which, if not obeyed, must then be reinforced by threats of punishment.

A good illustration of the two methods of dealing with children is shown in the case of two families who lived in adjoining houses

in a small suburb. Their children were of almost identical ages. The McCumbers had a girl of five and a boy of two and a half. The Goddards had a boy of four and three-quarters and a girl of two and a quarter. The children played together daily and the mothers had so arranged matters that one day Mrs. McCumber, and the next day Mrs. Goddard, would give all four children their midday meal at her house, so that each mother was free on alternate days to go to town and do her shoping or lunch with some friend.

When Mrs. McCumber gave the children lunch, things went smoothly. She would look out of the window and observe what they were doing. If they were watering the garden she would call out to them, "You have five minutes more to water. When you have finished that row, turn off the hose." In three or four minutes she would again stick her head out. "Remember, just that row," she would warn pleasantly; "then come in, there is a good lunch waiting." Pretty soon the children would pile in, the older ones often dragging the younger by the hand.

Mrs. Goddard did things differently. "Lunch time!" she would call suddenly in a peremptory voice. "Put your things away and come in this minute." Whatever they were doing the children would always beg for more time. "We haven't finished yet," they would say. "Come in this minute!" Mrs. Goddard would command sharply. "Lunch is already half-cold. It's not going to taste a bit good." Then, if they did not come, she would try to hurry them further. "Come this minute or you can't go out after lunch!" The children usually came in then, but looking sullen and angry. Although Mrs. Goddard was a well-meaning and conscientious mother, her negative approach alienated both her own and her neighbour's children.

Dealing with Direct Rebellion and Aggression. To avoid rebellious and aggressive behaviour as much as possible one should make sure of providing outlets for children's overflowing energies, competitive spirits, and destructive and belligerent impulses. The importance of free, vigorous, outdoor activities and the freedom to play in dirt and sand has been stressed. Appropriate indoor materials and occupations have also been suggested: papers or rags to cut and tear, cushions that can be kicked and stamped on, clay to pound and knead, paints to smear on large sheets of paper, and above all carpentry work for boys and girls who are four or more.

Story-telling and play-acting are two other useful outlets for children who are feeling belligerent. Reading or making up stories about naughty boys and girls amuses and delights children,

and they will beg for more. If asked, they themselves will make up tales about bad characters, either of the human or animal species. Not to put a premium on naughtiness, parents may end the stories they tell with a mild moral, showing that mischievous actions eventually bring trouble to the doer. This kind of story-telling and play-acting enables a child to live out his wishes in a helpful, imaginative way, and allows him to dissipate his feelings of guilt about having such wishes by showing him that he is not alone in his badness and that the parent does not seem to think it so terribly bad or unforgivable as the child had imagined.

Punch-and-Judy shows are loved by children for the same reason, and it is interesting to note that they have even been used by some doctors with groups of problem children with helpful results. As in play-acting and mimicry, in which the child pretends to do all sorts of outrageous acts, there is a satisfactory outlet for suppressed aggression. By these means he gets rid of his angry thoughts and feelings by living them out either by acting or seeing others act them out with no resulting blame or punishment to himself so that he can forget about them.

At the end of an afternoon during which Ivan, aged four, had been extremely belligerent and destructive, his mother suggested at story-time that instead of her reading to him, he tell her a story. "About what?" he asked. "Oh, about a bad little boy or a bad little bunny," she answered. He laughed delightedly and started right in. "The bunny jumped over a fence and he dug the flower bed up, and he made a hole in the flower bed, and every night he used to hop in the windows and scratch the screen and wake everything, and then he would hop on the chairs and grunt on the chairs, and then he used to throw the lights down and break them, and he used to throw the magazines out, and then he went and tore the children's clothes." Ivan then laughed uproariously and repeated three times, "I told you a funny one, didn't I?" He then started again, "A bad little boy knocked the clocks down, and knocked the lights down and broke them, and he blew the candles out, and he kicked his mother and he spilled the perfume, and he stuck his fingers in his mother's fish." "Why was he bad?" Ivan's mother asked. "Because he didn't like his mother any more. Because she kept saying 'stop that.'" The mother listened and was interested and receptive without injecting any ideas of her own.

Another way of reducing a child's aggressive actions is to allow him to express his anger in words, as was discussed above. Many people, however, are shocked by utterances of a young child, not realizing how little he either understands or means what he says.

"I'll kill you," yelled an angry three year old to his father, while the visitors looked horrified. The father appeared indifferent to this attack and asked, "What will happen to me then?" "You will be a statue and they will put you up on a big round stone in the park," the child replied in all seriousness. Usually the child who threatens to kill has an even less realistic idea of death. In one breath a boy will say, "I will kill you," and in the next he will add, "Then you won't bother me till to-morrow," showing he has no real conception of what he is threatening.

Besides giving their children these various outlets for their aggressive impulses, parents may prevent much deliberate mischief and naughtiness by giving them sufficient attention when they are good and obedient, instead of waiting until they force it by behaving badly. Occasionally if a child is not feeling up to par, or if he has exhausted his fund of ideas and interests, he needs more of his mother's or father's time and care. When Johnny appears bored with all his toys and previous occupations and seems unable to find anything to do on his own initiative, that is the moment when his mother should try to produce some new interest or amusement for him and direct his mind along some other channel. Sometimes an inexpensive but appropriate present will rouse his flagging imagination. At other times the child who suddenly behaves in this way may be feeling emotionally upset, and may need a little more loving, personal attention for a short period. However, it is inevitable in the very nature of the adjustment to life itself that the child should feel and act aggressively at times. It is impossible to prevent this since it is a normal part of his development. Later on in life, if the child's feelings of aggression have not been repressed and he has had no guilt about them, he can learn to think honestly and fearlessly about conflicts that arouse his anger. Instead of only being emotional and wanting to strike out blindly, he can think through the issues involved in the conflict and reach a reasonable solution or course of action.

It has been seen that a child derives satisfaction from fighting a grown person over some issue, and that he enjoys a feeling of power when he has succeeded in rousing the adult's emotions. By avoiding direct issues, sensible parents may often prevent an unnecessary clash of wills. If they do not allow themselves to show anger or emotion but remain calm and objective when their child acts in a contrary or aggressive fashion, he finds little satisfaction in prolonging or repeating this kind of behaviour. When a child shouts belligerently, "I won't come down to lunch!" and his mother does not argue with him but tells him that if he wants lunch he had better come down very soon or it will all be gone, and then

goes down without him, he finds that the fun of defying her has disappeared. On the other hand, if his mother tries to drag him down by force he is likely to work himself up into a paroxysm of rage and will fight her tooth and nail. She must remain firm, however. When he appears later, after the lunch is over, she must not relent and give him his meal, or his end will have been achieved and the same defiance will be shown on future occasions. In this same way, if a child spits at his mother and she tells him mildly to go in the garden to spit, most of the incentive for repeating the act is gone. If instead she shows disgust and annoyance, and threatens him with punishment, or actually does punish him, he becomes vengeful and immediately tries to retaliate. When Roger was scolded and told he was naughty, he would immediately answer back, "*You* are naughty, *you* are bad," becoming very angry as he said this. At other times when Roger was threatened with some punishment, such as having the skipping rope taken away from him if he hit his sister with it again, he would threaten back, "If you take it away from me I'll kick you, I'll throw you out of the window."

Above all, parents should avoid arousing a child's antagonism and rebelliousness by arbitrary commands and rulings. Even the mildest of children resent being forced to do something or denied a pleasure because the person in authority is moved by a whim or enjoys exerting his authority. "May I take my tricycle out?" a five-year-old boy asks his mother. "No, to-day you have to walk." "But why—why can't I take it out?" "Because I don't want you to," retorts the mother in a final tone of voice. She may have had some excellent reason for her refusal, but unless the child understands the reason and the mother seems just to him, he is bound to feel not only disappointed but angry.

A reasonable attitude, a reasonable tone of voice, and an unfailing sense of humour on the part of the grown-up do wonders in avoiding arguments and scenes and in obtaining co-operative behaviour on the part of the child. Sometimes when a child is about to behave in an undesirable fashion, when he first refuses to wash his face before going to the party or is about to scatter the tall block buildings all over the nursery floor with a well-administered kick, his mother can appeal to his sense of humour. She may say, "Come, look at yourself in the mirror, don't you look rather funny with one black cheek and one pink one?" Usually he will look at himself, begin to laugh, and then go off to wash. Or she may say, "How would Mr. Smith, the builder, look if he knocked down on the pavement all the bricks that are piled around the new building, and what would the policeman say to

him?" Struck by the absurdity of Mr. Smith behaving in such a way, the child laughs and his momentary whim is forgotten. When a mother laughs, she should be careful to laugh with the child and never mockingly at him.

By giving a child physical outlets for his energies, by allowing him to spend his wrath in words, by giving him help and attention when he is at a loss what to do, but not giving him the satisfaction of becoming excited at his actions, by making him feel the reasonableness of what he is asked to do, and by having a gay and amused attitude about the do's and don'ts of life, parents can greatly reduce the child's aggressive urges which arise from inner anger.

FIRMNESS AND DISCIPLINE. In teaching their children acceptable behaviour, parents need firmness. They may help their child as already suggested, by adapting their requirements to his capacities; by using suggestion and compromise on occasion, and by giving his aggressive instincts certain outlets. In addition they may also help him by being firm as well as fair in the demands they make and the prohibitions they establish. When a child tries to hurt people he must be stopped. When he wantonly destroys property not his own he must also be stopped. When he uses certain things which have been forbidden him, such as knives or matches, they must be removed from him. When he refuses to conform to reasonable routines such as washing, eating, and going to bed, he must learn that certain consequences result. When he makes unreasonable demands and reinforces these by tears or howls, he must discover that his demands will not be fulfilled because of his outcries.

Parents who have as few rules as possible but are resolute in enforcing these help not only to teach their child the proper way of behaving, but help to give him a great sense of security. Every child is afraid of his own destructive impulses, and if he knows that the adults around him are helping him keep them in check, he feels safer and more comfortable. The mother or father who becomes helpless and upset over a situation, and lets the child have his way merely because he has made a fuss, is doing the child a great unkindness. Again, when a child wants his own way, he feels troubled if the grown person does not demonstrate his superior strength and control and stop conduct on his part which he knows is forbidden.

APPROPRIATE PUNISHMENTS. All children behave at times in ways that cannot be tolerated by those in authority. On such occasions they should be punished in a manner suitable to the offence.

Before a child is punished, he should always be given warning

that a certain act or omission on his part will incur a penalty. Too often children are disciplined by an irate parent for some deed they did not know was forbidden, or for some accident. A first carelessness should not be penalized, yet one frequently sees a mother slap her child for tearing his clothes by mistake, or for unintentionally breaking an object which he had previously been allowed to play with.

When a child has to be scolded or punished, it should be made perfectly clear to him what actions on his part brought about the punishment. Never on any account should he be made to feel unloved or unacceptable because of his behaviour, as this can give him great anxiety. "Mother doesn't love you when you act that way," says a mother to her little girl, who has just torn her picture book to pieces; or the mother becomes cold and distant. Such behaviour terrifies the little girl who, from now on, whenever she is in a destructive mood fears that she will forfeit her mother's love. "Only bad, horrid boys fight," a mother tells her boy. From then on, the little boy feels wicked whenever he exchanges blows with other little boys.

Punishments, when necessary, should also be administered immediately. The child who has deliberately broken a vase in the morning should not be told he will be punished before he goes to bed. If he is very young he has forgotten his misdeed by evening and cannot understand the correction. If he is older, he is kept in suspense all day worrying about the nature of the penalty. Also, when punishment has to be inflicted, it should be of such a nature as to show the child as much as possible the consequence of his acts.

If a child throws toys at his parents or his brothers and sisters, the most effective penalty is to confiscate the toys for a day, on the grounds that such behaviour is hurtful and dangerous. When a child kicks, his shoes may be removed. The child who deliberately spoils some household object may be banished to his own room and not permitted in any other part of the house for the rest of the morning. If a child makes repeated scenes about going to bed, he may be allowed to stay up late some evening. It should be explained to him, however, that since it is now the grown-ups' time for dining and talking, he will have to remain in his room. He should also be told that he will have to stay in bed longer the next morning, as all children must have a certain amount of rest. At first the child will be overjoyed at delaying the bed-time hour, but soon he will become bored and tired of his vigil. He will call, but his parents will tell him they are still busy dining. By the time they do come to put him to bed, he is quite miserable. One object lesson of this sort usually lasts for a long time.

After a child has been punished for a misdeed, the adult should then completely forget it. Sometimes parents, in the mistaken hope of keeping him from repeating his act of naughtiness, continue to talk about it long after it is over and have an unforgiving attitude about it, which only irritates and worries him uselessly. They should remember, instead, that a child who has gone through even a small emotional crisis may need to be comforted and reassured. He may wonder whether his disobedience has made him less loved. A smile, a hug, a kiss or a few minutes of his parents' attention will quickly dispel these fears.

Thus, the child comes to think of punishment not as a kind of vengeance visited upon him by adults when they are angered by his behaviour, but as a set of reasonable restraints imposed on him when he acts in unsocial and uncontrolled ways. If he misuses his materials and tools, they are taken away from him until he shows a real willingness to try to employ them in a safe and proper manner. If he throws his food around and eats it in an unattractive way, he forfeits the pleasure of eating with his parents or of having his meals in the dining room where there is a rug to be spoiled. If he insists on being bumptious when there is company, he is made to stay in his room at teatime and misses the cakes and biscuits he likes so well. In this way he gradually learns that it is to his advantage to co-operate rather than to act in a contrary fashion.

When a child has been punished in a very severe way, he feels so resentful and so antagonistic to the parent who has castigated him that he usually loses all sight of the causes that brought about the correction.

Unruly behaviour of almost any sort is best punished by a short period of solitude, which has the double advantage of allowing both the child and the parents to cool off and think it over. Parents may say, " But I can't leave him alone. If I put him in his room he comes straight out again, or else he kicks the door, or he breaks things." A moment's reflection shows these are not insuperable difficulties. If a child won't stay in his room he can be locked in, although never for long as he might become frightened. If he kicks the door, the most he can do is to scratch the paint. If he breaks his toys and possessions and they are not immediately replaced by over-indulgent parents, he will regret having done so later, and on subsequent occasions when he is punished in this manner, he will think twice before destroying his own belongings. A child who is punished in this way should not be left alone more than fifteen minutes or so, after which time the parent does well to seek the child out and try to comfort and soothe him, and re-establish a friendly relation. Putting the child to bed as a penalty

is never advisable, as he is likely to associate bed with punishment from then on, and this in turn may create a general aversion to going to bed which may cause future difficulties at nap and bedtime.

Naturally, in every instance, the kind of punishment administered must depend not only on what the child has done, but on his age and his degree of sensitivity. Where a two year old may need a slight reprimand for some action, a six year old may need a real penalty; and while a light correction might be enough for the misdeed of a sensitive child of four, a less sensitive individual might need a definite punishment.

"What about corporal punishment? Is one ever justified in spanking a child?" adults invariably ask. This is because all parents at one time or another have been at their wits ends to know how to control their children's behaviour.

There are certain rare occasions when a spanking or a well-administered slap on the hand is not only excusable but beneficial. A child who has been behaving in a truculent way all the afternoon, purposely doing all the things he knows are forbidden, and who as evening comes makes a terrific scene about going to bed, may possibly profit from spanking. It shows him that his parents really mean what they say, which the child has almost ceased to believe; he discovers that there are bounds beyond which his aggression is not allowed to go; and it makes him feel he has paid for his naughtiness, and thus relieves him of a feeling of guilt, so that often he becomes quiet and relaxed after he has been spanked.

An illustration of a beneficial spanking was the case of Mary, a three year old. She began to wake up in the night yelling loudly. The sound of her shrieks penetrated every room of the lightly constructed cottage they were then living in, and disturbed every member of the family. Her mother would rush in, turn on the light, and try to quiet her. The child would then insist on her mother's staying with her until she had gone back to sleep. At first the mother thought she was having nightmares, and tried to be comforting and reassuring. As this night crying continued over a period of weeks, however, the mother decided she was crying to get attention. "Mary," she said, "I can't have you crying this way every night, for you wake everyone up. If you cry to-night I will spank you." Mary cried and her mother spanked her. She howled and raged during the spanking, but from that time on she ceased making the nightly scene.

Another instance of a similar nature was a little girl of four who after recovering from a serious illness could not be persuaded to resume eating. Although pronounced healthy in every way by the

doctor, and although leading a healthy and fairly active outdoor life, she continued to refuse nearly all her food at mealtimes. Much worried, her mother tried every sort of experiment. She varied the fare, she gave the child very small portions attractively arranged. She had young companions come in to have meals with her. Finally, as none of these methods worked she said to her one day, " Every child must eat to be healthy and grow big. If you continue to refuse your food, I shall spank you as a punishment." The child refused the next meal completely and her mother spanked her. From that time on the child applied herself to her meals and was soon eating as heartily as before her sickness.

A mother herself may benefit from spanking her child. Her irritation over his behaviour may have accumulated to such a point that she has become tense and irritable. The act of spanking him, of finally settling the issue in a definite way, clears the atmosphere. There are other times when a quite young child insists on touching something forbidden. Although he may have been told not to handle the gas stove, he continues to do so over and over again. A sharp slap may suddenly convey to him as no words were able to that his mother really meant what she said when she told him to leave it alone.

To spank or not to spank is not really the question. It is not really what is done by the parents but the spirit in which it is done that counts. If the punishment is not retaliatory and does not imply the rejection of the child, he senses and reacts to this rather than to what is said or done or to the manner of punishment. It is too much to expect of any human being, even of a parent, not to be angry at times and to punish in haste, but if the underlying feeling between the parent and the child is good, the child gets angry in return, but neither the parent nor child holds it against the other for long. There are some parents, however, who, because of the way they have been brought up or for other reasons, think of punishments as an essential and primary part of the bringing up of the child rather than an occasional and incidental necessity. Any parent who finds himself administering frequent punishments may well question what he expects of the child, how he hopes to achieve it and whether his methods are being successful, or whether they are merely antagonizing the child and defeating his apparent purpose. It can happen that the parent no less than the child unconsciously enjoys the struggle. The parent who by his very tone of voice eggs a child on when telling him " not to do such a thing again " is asking for a fight, and if the child has any spirit the parent will not be disappointed.

Occasions when physical punishment are used should be rare,

however, and with the majority of children who are intelligently taught, such punishment need not be resorted to. It must also be kept in mind that while certain children become quiet and relaxed by a struggle which has ended in a spanking, others become so incensed at physical punishment that they become hysterical with rage. To punish such children physically is a mistake, for it arouses such deep resentment and anger in them that it only promotes further rebelliousness and the need for vengeful behaviour on their part. Luke, for instance, would become intensely angry if he was ever slapped for any act, and would demand revenge vociferously. If allowed to slap back, he would calm himself immediately.

Although a spanking on exceptional occasions may have a salutary effect, retaliatory, tit-for-tat punishment is always bad; yet all too often one sees a mother paying her child back in kind. He slaps her and she slaps him back, only harder, he pinches her and she pinches him, he kicks her and she kicks him. She usually does this because she has lost her temper, but she justifies her behaviour by saying that she wishes to show the child how it feels to be slapped or pinched or kicked. In this way she teaches the child revenge. Also, by adopting his methods, she justifies them in his mind. The child justly reasons to himself, "When I am cross, I slap Mother; if I make her cross enough, she slaps me back; therefore, slapping is something not only children but grown-ups do when they are cross." The best way for adults to teach their children self-control is to practise it themselves in their daily living and in their daily relations with them.

Companionship

ADULT COMPANIONSHIP. A child's development between two and six offers many points of special interest and pleasure to parents who take the time to observe it. By two a child has emerged from complete physical dependence and begins to make his way alone. In his next years he learns to talk and shows a growing ability to observe and think. He is curious and enthusiastic about the whole world. This enthusiasm for life he usually shares with his family to a greater degree than later because he has not yet become so involved in his school life, his friends, and his interests outside the house that the company of his parents has become secondary to him.

Frequently parents miss much of the fun and delight of these early years because they are too busy and too concerned with the problems of instruction and supervision, too staid and matter-of-fact in their point of view.

Parents who really want to enjoy and know their children should not only teach and train them but play and laugh with them and enter into their world of discovery and make-believe. Instead of thinking his parents are Olympian gods who look down upon him with dignity from a great height, the child realizes they are two very human people who do not pretend to know the answers to all things, who occasionally make mistakes, but who do understand what he is trying to say and do and think. Meanwhile, parents have the pleasure of seeing the world through new, keen, eager eyes.

Both in play and discovery it is the child who should take the initiative. It is he who should have the main role and ask the questions. The adult's part is to help the child to discover the answers to his own questions. With this kind of companionable relationship between parents and children, the routines of life do not become irksome and supervision is tempered with fun.

COMPANIONSHIP OF CONTEMPORARIES. A child who associates with his contemporaries learns many things from them. This is particularly true if he knows a certain group of children well; if he has some continuity in his relation with them, and has the opportunity not only of playing but of working with them. This is why children gain so much more from nursery school groups or play groups that meet regularly and are supervised, than from casual park acquaintances who vary from day to day. It is the same kind of difference that a grown person finds between a party composed of friends he knows well and with whom he feels free to discuss many questions, and one where the people are chance acquaintances or strangers, and the conversation as a result is somewhat stilted and formal.

Probably the most important thing a child acquires from other children of his age are standards for his work, his play, and his general behaviour: standards that are appropriate to his physical and mental development. Nursery school children notice each other's work. "That is a pretty picture Mary painted. It's like a real house," one of her friends remarks as the others look at it appraisingly. "Look, Peter made a tug boat with a funnel, and it is dragging a barge behind it." The boys look at Peter with approval, and the next day they try to emulate his work with hammer and saw. Again, they recognize each other's physical prowess. "James climbed right up the apple tree. He's a good climber. Maybe he can get the ball down from the top of the hedge." In this way children learn respect for each other: the child who might otherwise be scorned because he is physically less strong or fleet than the others is admired because he knows how to build tall buildings. Another youngster may not be able to

draw very well, but he knows how to play the drum better than anyone else.

A child who plays with his contemporaries also learns to ask for things instead of fighting for them. He begins to discuss questions with his playfellows and exchanges knowledge with them. Thus John and Tom, when they first began to play together at the beginning of the summer, would grab what they wanted from each other, and this would invariably promote a fight. By the end of the season they were swapping things. "Please, Tom, may I have the shovel? I'll give you the rake." They would also talk over their joint buildings, giving each other information and ideas in the process. "My streamlined engine is pulling lots of goods trucks," John would say. "No," Tom would answer derisively, "streamlined engines only pull passenger trains." When Tom built a railway line with a square turn for the trains, John became very excited. "No, no, no," he insisted. "It must curve this way so it won't go off the lines." And choosing rounded sections, he curved the track.

In these ways children learn both to give and take, to lead and follow. Life is also more amusing and gay to a child who has friends of his own age. He does not always have the strain of living up to adult standards, nor is he likely to feel so guilty about his own occasional lapses from good behaviour when he finds that other children are also naughty at times.

While children of the same age contribute the most to each other in these early years, companionship with children of differing ages is also valuable. A child who spends some of his time with younger children develops a protective sense about them, and a child who plays occasionally with older children learns much by imitation and observation. If a child plays too exclusively with older children, however, he is likely to be always a follower. Usually he is also under something of a strain. Neither condition is good for him. The opposite situation in which a child is always associated with younger children on whom he can continually impose his will is also undesirable, as it accustoms him to relationships in which, without making any real effort, he is always the leader.

It is often difficult to find suitable companionship for children. Fortunately, nursery schools are increasing in numbers, not only in towns but even in rural districts. In choosing a nursery school, parents should have certain criteria in mind. Above all they should make sure that the nursery school teacher has a good relationship with the children, that she is a serene and understanding person, and that she is genuinely fond of the children and they of her. This is

particularly important in these early years because the teacher becomes the mother substitute during the school hours. Another thing for parents to seek is a group where children are really busy and absorbed by various forms of dramatic play and expression. Groups vary greatly in this respect. In some the children become busy and absorbed by their painting, their building, and their creative play; in others, where the supervising adult is inexperienced and does not know how to guide the children, they may be very active, rushing around in a helter-skelter fashion without settling down to any kind of coherent work or play. Again, parents should seek a group supervised by a teacher who allows the children freedom to investigate and express their own interests and ideas and who is not trying to impose some set pattern on them.

There are many mothers who have no nursery school available or who cannot afford one. Such women frequently band together and take it in turn to supervise a group of six or eight children, consisting of their own and their friends' children of similar ages. One morning a week Mrs. A. takes charge of the children in her home; the next morning Mrs. B. takes them, and so on till the rotation has been completed. Another plan is for the mother who has the most suitable garden and a good-sized playroom for rainy days to allow the group to meet regularly at her house, while the other mothers each contribute a little money for equipment, such as wooden bricks and a slide. Then, in the same way as before, they each take it in turn to supervise the group. This latter arrangement is particularly good from the children's point of view because more adequate equipment can usually be provided.

There are great advantages in systems of this sort. It gives the children the opportunity of having many companionable and instructive experiences; it provides each woman with some time to herself; and it gives each mother a good perspective on her own child, as she has a number of his contemporaries to compare him with.

Mothers who attempt to have a co-operative group of this sort should keep certain things in mind. It is not wise to try to handle more than five or six youngsters alone, as that is quite an undertaking for even a trained teacher. They should provide enough materials to keep the children occupied and interested, for otherwise they will be much more difficult to handle and will gain much less from the experience. Besides this, the mothers will do well to discuss together their methods and general philosophy in handling the group, so that there will be a uniformity of procedure. If, for instance, the person in charge of the group on Mondays insists on having all the material put away by the children before they go

home, it will make it easier for the mothers on the following days to persuade the children to tidy up before they leave.

It is particularly important that mothers should agree about their methods of handling aggression. Some people think that children, and especially boys, may be allowed to fight things out among themselves so long as they have no dangerous weapons, such as sticks, stones, or sharp instruments at hand. This is not wise, in these early years, for children are too full of aggression, too easily roused to anger by small things, too helpless at handling their disputes in other ways, too primitive and uncontrolled in their methods when once they start fighting. A small boy of three or four may want the engine of a train which some other boy is using. He may grab it or else demand it in a dictatorial manner, whereupon the other boy will start yelling and push him away. In a moment both boys are worked up to a fever pitch and are fighting each other, using any implement at hand. The first one pounds the other in the face with the train. The second picks up anything available with which he can fight back; one or both run away from the scrimmage, usually hurt and angry, and the animosity roused between them often lasts for some time. Children really want the adults to protect them from their own savage and primitive impulses, and to serve as arbiters in their disputes before their passions have become unleashed. Parents should therefore try to steer a midway course, allowing children to settle their disputes alone as much as possible, but holding themselves ready to play the role of arbiter, and stepping into the situation before a real fight starts. In general, boys are both more combative and rougher in their games than girls, so that mothers with a group composed mostly of boys must expect more fighting.

Relations Between Brothers and Sisters. By the time a child is two years old, he is just beginning to learn how to play with his older brothers and sisters. From then on, they contribute more and more to his fun and learning, particularly if they are near him in age, for he imitates them in numerous ways. Susan, at two and a half, was always imitating the things her brother said and was also copying his way of building, painting and playing.

The older child learns from and enjoys the younger one in different ways. He learns to be protective and take care of someone smaller and weaker than himself. He also learns the art of persuasion. Thus Dick would say to his sister, " Susan, say yes, say yes," when he wanted her to do or give him something, and he would think of innumerable reasons, each better than the last, for her doing his bidding. If he wanted the rubber horse she was playing with, he would say, " Shiny horses are no good, you don't want a

shiny horse, you can have this nice black cow instead." And eventually he would acquire the horse. An older child also likes to show off his knowledge to the younger child, and in this way he often rehearses and thoroughly establishes many facts in his own mind.

A child can have a much gayer and more light-hearted time if there is another younger or older child in the household. The youthful members of the same family unite in a friendly conspiracy against the adult world. They laugh and giggle together; they encourage each other to minor misdeeds; and in these ways they free themselves of many of their rebellious and aggressive urges which single children are more likely to repress.

Parents often become annoyed, and with good reason, at the manner in which their children sometimes egg each other on to silly and even mischievous behaviour, and sometimes find it difficult to control them when they are in such a mood. A temporary separation is usually the most effective restraint at such times.

Although the child of two and over may have made great strides in learning to play with his older brothers and sisters, parents need to be well aware of the relations between their children. The younger child must not be bullied or frightened or dominated by the older child or children, nor must he be coddled or pampered by them. On the other hand, the older child must not be made too responsible for the younger, nor should he be interrupted and annoyed in his work and play by the junior members of the family.

The factor underlying most difficulties between children in the same family is the jealousy they feel for each other. Even when parents are careful and thoughtful, they cannot entirely avoid it. This jealousy is felt by most children under six when the new baby is brought home from the hospital and they first see their mother lavishing her time and love on him. Sometimes jealousy is aroused later when the new baby is more in evidence because he has begun to crawl and play with toys. The more the older child has been loved and cared for, the more he is likely to resent a rival. To complicate matters still further, the younger child, as he reaches one or two, often feels jealous of the older child and tries to keep all his mother's attention for himself

Parents often do not admit the older child's jealousy and refuse to recognize it because he does not express it directly. A three-year-old girl may appear quite fond of her new baby brother, but she may suddenly go through an unusually aggressive phase after his birth, or she may go back to baby ways long since abandoned.

When Jane was three and a half, she went out for a walk with her

mother who also took the twins out in their perambulator. This was the first time she had ever gone anywhere with her infant brothers. The twins received a great deal of notice and admiration from passers-by, whereas Jane received none. When they reached the shops, Jane developed a stomach-ache and wanted to be put in the perambulator and wheeled home immediately. The mother, realizing from her behaviour and expression that Jane was not really sick but felt jealous of the attention the babies had received, suggested that as Jane was now three and a half and quite grown up, she could take a taxi home if she felt sick and that she could pay the fare herself. The mother then telephoned for a taxi man she knew and gave Jane the money for the ride home. That night Jane explained delightedly to her father how grown-up she was. When he asked how her stomach felt she said, "Oh that, that was nothing," and giggled.

Sometimes parents themselves do not realize what a strong preference they have for one child rather than for another. At other times they feel very much irritated by the continual bickering that goes on between two children very near of an age, forgetting that it is really jealousy and the accompanying feeling of uncertainty which makes the children behave in this way.

To prevent a child's jealousy, parents should be most careful to prepare him for the arrival of a new brother or sister. A certain mother, for instance, explained to her three-year-old daughter that there would soon be a new baby in the family. "Margaret, this will be your own little baby sister or brother for you to help care for and play with and love," she was told. When, after the baby's birth, Margaret first visited the hospital she was received with a warm welcome by a mother whose attention was all for her. Only after she asked about the baby was it brought in, and then it was presented to her and she was allowed to look at it and touch it. Unfortunately, this kind of tactful introduction is rare. All too often the mother is worshipfully cuddling the new baby when the older child first visits her after the birth, and thus the child feels supplanted right from the start.

At no time need the mother display much emotion and concern over the new baby in the presence of the older child. She should also try not to let the attention of friends and relatives centre exclusively on the infant but direct it to the other child as well.

Besides this, a mother may devote a certain amount of time each day to the older child alone. This period, even if it is only ten or fifteen minutes, should be spent doing something the child likes particularly and which makes him feel that he has her entire and interested attention at that time. Sometimes a child may like to be

read to or told stories; another child may prefer being sung to; another may like to play a game; another may want to explain in detail the building he has made or the picture he has painted; still another may prefer to talk about what he has been doing, or ask questions or enjoy a little horseplay. The importance of this period lies in the fact that the child can look forward to it and count on it. "Please don't disturb me now, I'm busy," the mother may say. "But after supper I'll have plenty of time and we'll play then."

In this same way every child in a family, no matter what his age is or how numerous the family becomes, should have some period, if only a few minutes daily, of both his mother's and father's exclusive time. This continues to be important throughout the whole of childhood and helps the parents to keep in touch with each child's particular wants and needs and thoughts. Spending time with both or all the children together is also valuable, but it does not give the child quite the same kind or degree of pleasure, nor does it give the parents as complete an understanding of the child.

Even when a mother isn't devoting exclusive time to the older child, she can make him feel in numberless ways that he has not been supplanted by the younger one. She can do much to further his pride in his age by giving him small responsibilities and small treats which he has not had before. He may be allowed to go shopping with her. He may be allowed to have one of his meals with her every day, and to have some special food or dessert which he considers very grown-up, as a weekly treat. He may also have certain pleasurable responsibilities toward the baby such as powdering him, drawing and emptying his bath water, and fetching his change of clothes or napkins. In all these ways the mother and also the father may help the older child to appreciate the fun and the advantages of being more grown up.

However, if a child shows a desire to be made a fuss of after the arrival of a new brother or sister, it is a good thing to indulge him as much as possible. Sometimes without even realizing it, the mother's attitude has changed toward the older child after the arrival of the baby. Being busy with the infant, she suddenly expects the older child to assume the responsibilities of dressing and washing and feeding himself much more than she ever had before. And so, if a child suddenly shows a wish to be spoon-fed or to be carried to bed instead of climbing there himself, he may be humoured for a while. "Shall I feed you like baby sister?" his mother may say laughingly as she feeds him. Soon the child who is thus good-naturedly indulged goes back to his older ways.

If a child is unusually aggressive after the birth of a new baby, he should be treated mildly and not be made to feel naughty

because of his behaviour. Instead, extra time and thought should be given to making him feel loved and secure and self-confident.

Parents are often puzzled to know how to deal with an older child's aggressive behaviour when it is openly directed toward a younger child. The situation can usually be eased if the parents devote more time to the older child. They may also try to arrange the routines of the two children in such a way that their hours and places for play are different. Gradually, as the jealous child comes to feel more certain of himself and realizes that the younger child has not really supplanted him in the affection of his parents, he becomes more friendly.

If, on the other hand, parents make the mistake of becoming angry and of punishing a child severely for his jealous anger, he becomes convinced that he is not loved as much as the younger child, and his increased jealousy is likely to make him more aggressive than before.

Fears and Anxieties

Both fear and anxiety have already been discussed in Chapter V. Between the ages of two and six every child is likely to suffer from a certain amount of underlying anxiety arising from various emotionally difficult eperiences, such as the birth of a younger child, or fear of one parent when he becomes more devoted to the parent of the opposite sex, or fear developing from being unduly scolded for masturbation, getting dirty, and so forth. His anxiety may show itself in irritability, temper, aggressiveness, and disturbances of eating and sleeping.

Parents who have reduced friction and conflict between themselves and their child to the minimum, in feeding, weaning, and bowel and bladder training; parents who genuinely love their child and give him a normal, happy home life are not likely to encounter more than a limited degree of anxiety.

When the child's underlying anxiety is excessive and comes from deep emotional disturbances, it may give rise to more serious difficulties. Some children will develop tics, others may acquire fears that do not yield to reason, others will begin to stutter. In such cases it is best for parents to seek the doctor's help.

Often parents expect a child to be more frightened or upset by the death of a member of the family or of a friend than he actually is. Usually he is not deeply affected unless his parents become overwrought. It is wise, however, for a child to be told in his early years about death in a simple and unemotional way so that he will come to accept it as another natural and universal fact of nature. If he occasionally sees a dead animal, if the death of

acquaintances is discussed in his hearing, if he has been told about funerals and cemeteries when he has seen them and asked about them, when a beloved relative or close friend suddenly dies, he is not shocked or frightened as the parents might expect him to be.

Family Relations

FATHER AND CHILD. A father's role in the upbringing of his child after the age of two is quite as important as the mother's. During this period, when the very foundations of the child's character are being laid and he is forming the impressions that are likely to have the greatest influence in his life, his father becomes his model of man and husband, as well as father. The attitude a man has not only toward his child but also toward his wife, his home, his work and toward life itself is sensed by the child in a very intuitive and complete way.

The relationship established between father and child during these years depends much more on the quality of the time spent together than on its length. One father and child may see each other on an average of only fifteen minutes a day, but in spite of their fleeting encounter they may have a wonderful time and learn to enjoy and appreciate each other. Another father and child may spend much more time together, but because the father is impatient, hypercritical, or unsympathetic, or because he does not take the trouble to enter into the child's activities and thoughts, the two remain comparative strangers.

It is more profitable for a father to spend twenty minutes every day with his child than to devote a day to him every other week-end. This is because the child loves the continuity of the daily relationship and looks forward to it, while the father in his day-to-day contact has a better opportunity of observing the development of skills, language, and ideas which makes the child's progress so interesting. If a father and child only have a limited time together it is also to their mutual advantage to concentrate on a favourite occupation which can be continued over a period of time. They may play trains together, or do carpentry, or have a regular interval for reading or singing.

Often a father is puzzled by the aggressive behaviour of his son between the years of two and six. If he realizes, however, that the boy is passing through a common experience, and that it is just as natural for him to be jealous of his father at this period as it is for the girl to be resentful of her mother, he will make a particular effort to be patient, understanding, and reassuring.

When a man has two children under six who both vie for his time and attention, he should see them separately whenever feasible

and pursue with each his particular bent or interest. Thus a father may devote an hour or so every week to the building of boats with a five-year-old boy, and an equal time to rolling and bouncing balls with his playful three-year-old daughter, to the enormous satisfaction of all three.

FRIENDS AND RELATIVES. As a child grows older, his parents become more and more concerned about his manners and his behaviour toward their relatives and friends. "I don't want to kiss Auntie Kate," cries three-year-old Dorothy when her large, stern, and rather hairy aunt comes to tea. "I won't say good-bye and go to the nursery!" says four-year-old Michael when his friend the major drops in for a drink; "I want to hear more soldier stories." Each of these situations has to be dealt with individually, depending on the age and habits of the child. It is quite possible, however, for most children to develop a consideration for others if an appeal is made to their pride. "I want the major to see that you can obey me just as his soldiers are used to obeying him," the father tells his boy. A child's kindliness can also be called into play. "I know that Auntie Kate looks rather cross, but she has no little girl at home to welcome her. When she comes to tea this afternoon, don't you think you could please her and make her happy by giving her a nice hug?" In this manner, by a little advance preparation the way can be paved, at least in part.

The other problem of maintaining one's own training standards in face of the well-meaning, critical, or indifferent attitudes of friends and relatives has already been mentioned in earlier chapters. It becomes more difficult to deal with as the child learns to understand more of what is being said, and observes to an increasing degree what different people do. Aunt Millicent buys Henry and Paul anything they ask for. Grandfather is always discussing and praising both children within their hearing. Mr. Jones swears frequently and puts his elbows on the table during a meal. What can parents do?

As when the child was a baby, the parents can do two things. They can explain to the relatives their ideas about bringing up their children, and ask them outright to co-operate and not to do those things they consider harmful. And they can develop in their children a gradual realization that every family has its own ways of behaving, and that children are required to adapt themselves to the standards of their own father and mother; but they are not expected to heed every relative and friend who proffers admonishment or advice, or who sets a different example. Eventually children learn that there are differences between adults; that they are not all the same, and that they are not always right. If their

parents' standards and ways of acting have been made to seem reasonable and pleasant to them they adopt them of their own accord. For this reason parents need not worry too much when four-year-old Paul seems spoiled when Aunt Millicent is around, nor need they feel concerned if five-year-old Henry uses some of the words old Mr. Jones does when discussing the political situation.

HOME ATMOSPHERE. It has already been said that from babyhood on, children are extremely susceptible to the emotional attitudes of their parents. They thrive in a home where the mother and father are genuinely happy together and are not overwhelmed by economic or other worries; and where each child gets his share of love and attention without being pampered. They become insecure when they sense discord between the parents, when they discover that their elders are anxious about the future, or when they feel that their parents are either indifferent to them or over-anxious about them. The child's intuitive grasp of the family's emotional situation, even when efforts have been made to keep him in ignorance of it, makes adult pretence useless.

For their own sake as well as for the sake of the children, parents should face the realities of life and make as good an adjustment to them and to each other as they can. If two people are continually worried about their economic situation, it is wiser for them to lower their standard of living somewhat, and give their children fewer of the so-called "advantages," than to live in a maze of worry, doubt, and dissatisfaction. Parents who are in sympathy, who are contented together, and who have an understanding outlook toward life, give their growing children a background of security and happiness which nothing else can equal.

PART IV

THE EARLY SCHOOL YEARS

CHAPTER X

DEVELOPMENT IN LATER CHILDHOOD

Intellectual Development—Interest in Sex—Increasing Independence—Companionship—Problems in Training and Development.

Intellectual Development

IN the preceding chapters the development of the child and his training were discussed in detail, and each phase was dealt with specifically. The child's dependence makes it necessary for the parents to supervise and regulate the details of his life, and the definite training in habits and attitudes which they give him is of great importance. But usually between the fifth and sixth year there is a definite change in the child's life—a change which the parents may regard as natural, but which represents a big step forward in many ways. The routine habits and social adaptation suitable to his years are normally well established by this time. Much of his learning is acquired out of the home, and the supervision and definite training there is gradually diminished. In the last half of the book, therefore, instead of the specific directions found in the earlier chapters there is a more general discussion of what to expect of the young person at various stages, what the changing attitudes mean, how to deal with them and, sometimes, anticipate them.

If there are problems remaining from the earlier years such as bed-wetting, thumb-sucking, and so on, the reader may refer to the discussion of these problems in the preceding chapters. If the methods suggested are not successful, it would be wise to get further help. The new problems discussed concern more directly the child's relations with those outside the family circle in addition to those within it, and questions related to school life.

Starting school life is a serious business and the emphasis on learning through study rather than through play is one mark of the change, although learning through play still continues to be important. The child's eagerness to learn becomes more specific and detailed. He is more concerned with ideas and objects apart

from himself and his immediate surroundings, and he develops a greater degree of self-discipline. In the healthy, happy child there is an increasing high vitality and strength, a growing independence, and a reaching out from the home for new friends and experiences. This means a change in his relationships to his family and theirs to him; his development means a new place for him and a new attitude toward him in the family circle.

In his emotional life his intensity of feeling toward his parents lessens and he adopts a more casual and sometimes critical attitude towards the family along with a greater interest and affection for children of his own age. Interest in babies and other forms of sexual curiosity also diminish. In this decrease in emotional intensity, the in-between period is sharply separated from adolescence, at which time feelings about people again become important. In both boys and girls the first signs of puberty usually appear between nine and ten years of age. These are discussed in Chapter XI.

Broadening Intellectual Interests. In the first five years, the child's expanding mind has been engaged in learning about himself, the people around him, and his relationships to them. He had learned acceptable ways of expressing and controlling his feelings and desires. By five or six, these habits and relationships are more or less taken for granted, and if the child has a safe, comfortable feeling about his environment, he can now be free to turn his attention to more impersonal ideas and to a wider variety of objects and their relationships, as well as to their qualities. The symbols which we use to express ideas, things and places—such as numbers, words, letters, sentences, pictures, and maps—will engage his interest and become fascinating tools through which his world expands. These become part of his equipment for life. Instead of just seeing and asking, he reads, often voraciously for the fun of learning. He may not have seen a forest, but through words and pictures and trees that he has seen, the forest becomes a reality to him.

At some time also during this period, the child's increasing awareness opens up new avenues of enjoyment and he appreciates and comments upon the beauty of natural scenery, flowers, a snowstorm, the stars at night. He makes finer distinctions about things and people as his capacity for observation and understanding increases, and he finds pleasure in expressing these in stories, poems, pictures, and often in jokes. He becomes more critical and discriminating about people and, if given the opportunity, can be extremely frank about them. His mental eagerness and expansion at this time is a great pleasure to the child and the beholder. It may

be seen in all sorts of ways. An example of the kind of thinking that may go on at this age is seen in this story of Jerry, almost seven, who was taken to a playground by his mother. While busy at the sand-box, Jerry got into a tussle with a boy of his own age and size who had helped himself to Jerry's pail. The other boy's mother interfered and separated the boys, making some sharp comments which Jerry's mother couldn't hear. On the way home, however, she noticed that the boy was worried about something. She didn't ask questions but when they were washing up for lunch she made some comment about its being fun to play with sand.

"That was a silly mother at the playground," Jerry blurted out.

"Yes, she was silly to interfere. You two boys could have settled the matter of the pail between you," said his mother, thinking she had got to the bottom of the problem.

"Oh, but she doesn't know about the force of gravity," exclaimed Jerry.

"Really?" said his mother, taken aback for the moment. "That's funny, isn't it?"

"She said to me, 'I'll push you off the world if you hit my boy again.' But she couldn't do that, could she, mother? She doesn't know about the force of gravity."

Jerry's mother remembered that he had recently heard the story of Sir Isaac Newton and the apple falling on his head, and so they had discussed the subject at length, even going to the encyclopædia for further verification. As a result of this talk Jerry sat down to lunch completely confident he was right in suspecting that he couldn't be pushed off the world by anyone.

USING ABSTRACT IDEAS. Abstract words and ideas begin to take on meaning, so it is important not to talk down to the child. A child of five or six will say "Poor pussy," able only to visualize suffering in terms of the object; whereas a child of eight or nine will know what you mean by the word "pity." A sense of justice, often passionate, and clearer ideas of right and wrong, of what is good and bad, become very important. There is increasing understanding, instead of simple obedience, even though reason will, to some extent, have entered into their training as soon as they understand the tone of voice. At this time difficulty with authority is often due not so much to the child's wanting to have his own way as to a feeling that the adult has not understood his ideas. Nothing can make him more miserable than to be denied his newly found ability to use words to express *his* point of view.

ENCOURAGEMENT. The parents' and teachers' attitude towards this eagerness to learn, and towards the beginning of originality in thinking and doing, can have a lasting effect on the child. If he is

laughed at or considered impertinent or rude when he expresses ideas, it takes a great deal of strength and ability on his part to continue trying and not to fall into the habit of saying and doing only what is expected and certain to be approved of. On the other hand, if every little effort is overpraised and shown off far beyond its obvious merits, the child is one of the first to recognize this lack of sincerity. Attention, rather than the fun of doing, becomes the goal. He has little respect for the poor judgment of the adult and in place of the honest satisfaction from work that he and others know is well done, he substitutes and demands an increasing amount of praise and attention. This, however, never can give him the self-confidence that his own sense of accomplishment does. This point is discussed further under Study in Chapter XI.

A girl with real artistic talent found that her parents praised and showed off every little drawing she made, no matter how sloppy or careless it was, so that there were no adjectives left over for her more serious efforts. Her reaction to this was complete mistrust of their judgment and a loss of faith in her own ability. She stopped drawing entirely and resented every effort of her parents to get her to continue. The art teacher at school fortunately knew the situation and explained it to the bewildered parents, so that when the girl started drawing again she was given only honest encouragement, without the overwhelming flattery which had rightly upset her.

FRANKNESS OF THE CHILD. It is sometimes difficult to deal with the startlingly frank and often acute and correct comments of youngsters at this age. If they are uttered in order to show off, they can be dealt with accordingly; but if they are honest and sincere, they must be met with sincerity, and the occasion can often be a starting point for lessons in tolerance and understanding of others. Parents often laugh at the child's first efforts to express himself or at his questions. The child may think of this as ridicule and learn to keep his ideas to himself, or he may feel that it is smart to make the grown-ups laugh. A serious comment or answer addressed as to an equal is appreciated by the child and avoids starting a fear of ridicule or a tendency to show off.

One boy said to his mother, "Don't inter-me-upt." "What did you say?" she asked, laughing. He repeated it and she laughed more, and hugged him and told him he was a funny boy. Later she repeated it to her husband and in the child's hearing. "What do you suppose Jimmy said to-day? 'Don't inter-me-upt.' He meant, 'Don't interrupt me.' Isn't that a scream?" This tendency to joke at the child's sincere efforts to learn is a sure way of making him either show off or shy and hesitant about expressing himself.

THE CHILD BECOMES A CRITIC. The keenness and frankness with which children at this period begin to observe people naturally extends to their parents. Up to this time the child has given little thought to the subject. Parents have been accepted at their own evaluation and their rightness or wrongness or ignorance on many subjects goes unnoticed by the young child. And then comes a day when the child realizes that his parents don't know everything and even make mistakes! This is no shock if the parents have a sense of humour and proportion about themselves and have no need to seem all-knowing and all-powerful. Gradually he comes to recognize that there are some things nobody knows, that mistakes are natural and rarely irreparable, and that it is part of life to accept this. A child, like an adult, respects the persons who say, "I'm sorry, I was wrong about that," or "Yes, you are right, I made a mistake," in a casual, matter-of-fact way that clearly indicates the parent has no emotion about it, and that it doesn't really matter whether he or the child was right or wrong as long as the correct solution or the truth of the matter is arrived at.

FEAR OF MISTAKES. Unfortunately, many parents and teachers feel that an admission of error or ignorance, particularly to a child, makes them "lose face." They are afraid that they will lose respect or dignity or control, not realizing that a bluff recognized by the child does more to undermine confidence that any number of admissions of ignorance. The child also learns from such experiences to bluff, to be fearful of what people will think if he is found making a mistake, and much natural initiative and courage is lost. Inferiority and fear take their place, so that when a mistake is made the first thought is to cover it up, instead of "How can I put it right?"

One small girl at the stage of imitating all her mother's activities saw her shorten a dress. She promptly cut the hem off a new knitted skirt of her own and proudly displayed it. She was sent to her room for using large shears which had been forbidden and the idea of shortening dresses was explained to her. After a little weeping, she was very quiet and in half an hour she asked if she might show her mother something. She had taken a package of safety pins and with great difficulty had carefully and neatly pinned the hem on to the dress on the wrong side. One need have no fear for such a youngster. She will doubtless make many mistakes and get into various kinds of trouble; but she has intelligence and initiative and courage, and instead of wasting time and emotion over feeling guilty or wondering what dreadful things people are thinking about her, she will be hunting round for ways and means to overcome difficulties and correct mistakes.

Interest in Sex

Although there is this marked interest in ideas and things and people, there is normally little attention paid to sex during these years before puberty. This is particularly true if during the childhood years the sexual interest normal to that period has been satisfied naturally and as a matter of course, as in the case of any other kind of information that the child is seeking. Once having learned the facts he is after, he goes on to something else, with perhaps an occasional question as something new or imperfectly understood comes to his attention. The children are too busy with other things to bother much about it, and sex interest is superseded by social activity and learning.

Since many parents have considerable reservations about speaking to children about sex there are bound to be in every group some children who will start play or discussions about these matters. If the child is well informed, he will join in for a time, but soon get interested in something else. No harm is done if the parents make no issue of it and if the child has no sense of guilt about his behaviour.

If, however, sex remains an unsolved and mystifying problem, there will be an emotional restlessness and self-consciousness and a lack of ease which is not natural at this period. Considerable interest, time, and attention will be diverted to sex which naturally would be taken up with games and schoolwork. Such children will be apt to converse with other children on sexual subjects, be very curious about bodies and their functions, and tend to experiment with each other. Other children of their age, having outgrown this interest for the time being, may be derisive or somewhat contemptuous of a child who insists on dwelling on it.

Often the parents or teachers meet the situation by making the child feel dirty and bad, even an outcast. " Nice " children are not allowed to play with them, or every effort is made to make the child " forget " about sex and take an interest in " healthy " things. It is true that the child may succeed in repressing his interest because of social pressure or punishment, but he will do so at the cost of a possible serious maladjustment in later life in which " sex " and " dirt " and " badness " have become strongly associated in his mind.

Dealing with Sex Interest at This Age. The simple, healthy way of dealing with the situation is to make the child feel comfortable and easy enough to say whatever ideas and feelings he has about the subject without fear of blame, punishment or ridicule. Then set his mind at rest by giving him the facts to clear up any misconceptions and ignorance. The biological knowledge is

important, but so is the meaning of sex in terms of family life and love as far as he is capable of understanding it. His questions and ideas will be the guide to the sort of information he needs, and the adult's answers will be satisfying in so far as they are truthful and without any emotional hangover from *his* childhood of what was considered shocking or vulgar. Then the child, having got these questions and uncertainties out of the way, can turn to other interests and curiosities, though from time to time more questions may come.

It is often hard for certain parents to change their attitude in this matter. If they have avoided answering the child's early questions and realize that as he grows older he is showing an increasing sex curiosity, their embarrassment may increase until they feel inadequate to handle the situation. The book mentioned in Chapter IV—*How a Baby is Born* by Karl de Schweinitz—is one which might help in a situation of this sort. This can be read to the child or by the child himself and his questions answered in as matter-of-fact a way as possible. Also, as was suggested earlier, giving the child a pet will help a great deal. A cat with kittens or a dog with puppies will be absorbing, and his questions about them can be answered to clear up his uncertainties about babies.

Sometimes so much shyness or guilt has become associated with the subject that the child is too embarrassed to read the book or want to listen to the parent. In this case the books may be left around without comment and usually the child will pick them up if he is sure that no one sees him. Or better still an older person not a member of the family, such as the family doctor, may be given an opportunity to talk it over with him. The embarrassment, if marked, is usually much less with anyone not in the immediate family circle.

One mother solved the problem easily to her own great surprise. She had been much too confused and troubled about sex to answer her child's questions naturally in the earlier years. As this woman later became more at ease in her mind and more understanding through some help she had obtained, her eight-year-old daughter let the mother see that she was concerned about sex. She would occasionally ask a question or make some comment and finally she let her mother know that she was masturbating. The mother, not entirely without embarrassment, gave her one of the books mentioned, to which the child paid no attention. Finally, after some months, with the mother's increasing understanding, she took advantage of an opportunity to discuss with her daughter, quite frankly and completely, a mother's and father's relation to each other, and how that brought about her own being. Encouraged

by her mother's attitude, the child asked all the questions she needed to clear up her perplexities. The mother's comment on the talk was that she had never seen the child as relaxed and happy as she was that afternoon. That evening, instead of the usual perfunctory good-night kiss, she hugged both parents hard and said, " I love you so much." Since then, from time to time, she has asked questions casually. The outstanding result, however, was a marked decrease in day-dreaming, masturbation, and anxiety, and a much more active interest in play with other children.

Increasing Independence

Along with developments in the intellectual sphere the social and emotional interests of the child also undergo a change. The emotional dependence on the parents decreases as social life with others of his own age increases. It gives a good safe feeling to the child to know that the parents are there, since he often needs and asks for help; but it gives him pleasure, too, to know that they won't intrude. " John doesn't love me any more," wails the demonstrative mother, which of course is not true. What she resents is that John doesn't need her as much as he did and is turning towards new relationships and interests beyond his home. This diminishing need fosters the self-confidence which has started to develop earlier. The child begins to be able to meet social situations on his own and wants to play with other children without the help or supervision of an older person.

" Let *me* do it " is the frequent cry of the over-protected child who is never left alone a minute. As one girl of eight said, " I want to begin to grow up, so I must have experience. Mother makes me feel like a baby ! " When asked what kind of experience she wanted she said, " To go to other girls' houses. I won't forget to put on my sweater and I'm careful when I cross the street; honestly, I always look both ways and wait five minutes before I cross. If I have to be watched all the time I might as well be a baby and then at least nobody will scold me and they will let me do whatever I want." She was ready and eager to assume responsibility; but having been denied it she was resentful and spiteful and often acted like the baby her mother was trying to keep her, by wetting the bed, sucking her thumb, and being unreasonable.

How Much Independence Can Be Given. It is true that it is often impossible in large towns to allow children to play alone on the streets. The best substitute is free play in schools or parks or playgrounds, where the supervision is so unobtrusive that the child is not made too aware of it. This can also be achieved at home or in a back yard. It takes little experience or imagination

to realize how much town children appreciate the freedom of the country for a summer holiday. Summer camps for children as young as this are often a poor substitute in that they tend to continue the supervision and routine the child has been under during the winter. An effort is usually made not to do this, but the natural feeling of responsibility for such young children makes it difficult.

PHYSICAL PROWESS. Boys become markedly stronger than girls at this age and take great pride in it. This is important to them and they should be given the chance to use all their powers in growing toward physical independence. A punching-ball is a grand outlet for surplus energy, and nothing helps a timid boy more to gain self-confidence than a father who teaches him to box. It gives a boy a fine feeling of confidence to know that he can bat well enough for the boys to want him in their team.

A father who recognized this need in his seven-year-old boy decided to help him to develop. When the boy was still under a year old he had had an operation and had also had several serious childhood illnesses that had left him quite frail. This had made it difficult for him to compete with boys of his own age. When he started school he learned to read with avidity and took refuge in books because he did not feel able to keep up with other boys physically. The father made a point, without discussing it with the boy, of boxing and wrestling with him, teaching him the various techniques. He played ball games with him and in so doing, without being obvious, taught him to catch and bowl. They also played tennis and swam. The boy steadily developed in strength and prowess. Within two years he was making an excellent social adjustment and felt entirely competent with boys even larger and older than himself.

OVERCOMING PHYSICAL FEARS. Sometimes the lack of confidence is due to competition with another member of the family who can easily outdo him. In one family, a boy of seven was over-cautious and more backward in physical accomplishment than his five-year-old sister. She would jump from higher places than he and was much more daring in learning to swim. His inferiority was making him bad-tempered and sullen and unsociable with his group. His father bought a trapeze which could be hung on two hooks in a doorway. Every afternoon when he got home from work, he would spend a quarter of an hour teaching the boy stunts, being careful not to frighten him or urge him too much, holding his wrists and helping him until he gained confidence and asked to try it alone. It took about three months. No word of criticism was spoken; failure was met with help or the suggestion "Try it again," and each evening ended on a note of achievement. Care

was taken to see that the sister played in another part of the house and did not witness the practise periods, and she was discouraged from using the trapeze by placing it too high for her to reach. The boy slowly conquered his fear and learned to swing by his knees and turn a somersault, and finally he gave a circus performance for the family with his father as the barker. The confidence gained in this way, with tactful, inconspicuous help, spread slowly over into other activities, and at twelve this child is a good swimmer and plays an average game of cricket and tennis. His sister continues to be an outstanding athlete, but both she and other children respect her brother's efforts and accomplishments.

Companionship

IMPORTANCE OF COMPANIONS. Children usually begin to enjoy loosely organized groups when they are about six, and signs of such sociability come earlier if there is a chance for it to develop spontaneously. Children learn much from each other and they like to be with their own sex and age group—not only in school but in playtime—so that they can play with and compete with their equals. Children who prefer or insist on being with older or younger children usually have fears that keep them from the companionship of their own age. For instance, they may be afraid that they cannot cope with children of their own size or they may be so accustomed to being spoiled that they want to be with smaller children whom they can boss. An older group will sometimes protect a younger child and provide an excuse if the child does not do as well as they. Often an unusually bright child, whose intellectual development has been too much emphasized and who has not learned to play, is bored with children of his own age. But even he will welcome them if he is permitted to experience the fun of physical prowess and active games without undue supervision and is allowed the satisfaction of feeling competent in these activities.

GANGS. Group play contributes to the growth of children in learning to give and take, and to wait their turn and co-operate. They learn to be leaders and to follow a leader by shifting from one to the other a dozen times in the course of an hour, in learning to accept defeat, as well as to enjoy the actual physical prowess involved.

This development, however, may bring about special problems of two kinds. The parents may be disturbed by the make-up of the gang or by the type of play they prefer. Some of the children may belong to families not known to the parents and of obviously different social backgrounds. The child of course can see no reason

for exclusion on such grounds. The fact that their English is poor, their manners absent, or their clothes shabby is of no importance to him if they have a lot of ideas for games and dare-devil activities.

It is important for him to begin to learn that there are all sorts of people in the world who are available as companions and friends and to begin to form ideas about them in terms of a sense of values. These values, of course, depend on the parents' ideas, but if they are to be accepted by, and not just imposed upon, the boy, they must be such as he can understand and appreciate. In other words, if his companions lie or steal as part of their regular habit, or are definitely asocial, the child has a sufficient idea of behaviour by this time to appreciate a discussion of them from this point of view. It is not our purpose to suggest what values parents should impose on their child, but it is necessary for them to give their thoughtful attention to these values and not be thoughtlessly conventional and expect the child to comply.

Sometimes the " gangs " contain members that the parents feel justified in considering undesirable companions, or they may not be sufficiently acquainted with some of the children to feel confident in allowing their own children to play with them without an opportunity for observation. If there is a place in the house or garden where the " gang " can meet (even occasionally) in which they may feel free to have a perfectly good time in their own way, with perhaps refreshments as an inducement, the parents can have a chance to see the group in action without themselves being intrusive. Or the father may take them all on a picnic.

This plan worked well in the case of a seven-year-old boy who informed his father that he had joined a " club " whose president was twelve years old. The father didn't know anything of the president and couldn't discover what the aims of the club were. He told his son, however, he thought it was a fine idea and suggested the club should hold its next meeting in the garden; cakes and lemonade would be provided for all the members. In this way, the father met the whole club, all of whom were children about the same age as his own boy, with the exception of the leader.

The leader was a sly, weak boy who evidently enjoyed the companionship of much younger children whom he could boss and bully and play the hero to. On his home ground, however, the seven year old was so confident of himself that he resented the bossing of the self-appointed leader, and the leader, too, evidently had a suspicion that under adult supervision (even though this was incidental and casual) bullying would not be tolerated.

For the next few days there was no further mention made of the club. One evening the father said to his son, " How's the club

going? Have you had any more meetings?" And the boy answered, "Well, we've got a new club now, and I'm the president." "But what about the other president?" "Well, you see, Dad, all the other boys and I thought he was too old for us, and too rough, so we've made a new club of our own and they've made me the president."

Often a boy who has been over-protected and kept from associating with others who are considered tough feels physically inferior and inadequate, because he has not had a chance to compete with those whom he sets up as his physical superiors. Often these are bullies and easily defeated—a fact which the protected boy never discovers and thereby misses a valuable lesson. On the other hand, even if they are stronger than he is and he is defeated, he has at least faced them and learned that defeat is bearable. This experience can be made to serve as an incentive to develop so as to avoid defeat the next time. It can also serve to teach him to cope both physically and in other ways with all sorts and conditions of men. Over-protection merely leads to a sense of inferiority.

It is often distressing to parents to see their children playing games involving robberies, hold-ups, and war. They may fear that this will develop a taste for aggressive aud unsocial behaviour. On the contrary, such games afford an excellent outlet for the inevitable aggression of this period, and they also express the revolt, possibly unconscious, that the children feel against the social ideals that are being imposed on them. These games offer an opportunity to live out in play what they cannot live out in reality, and when this impulse is fully satisfied they get bored with these activities and go on to something else. If they are allowed freedom to play as they please without criticism, there is little danger of their committing serious misdemeanours. There is a clear line between mischievousness and serious misdemeanours which usually involve spite or a desire to see what they can get away with because of unduly severe restrictions. Sometimes the restrictions are imposed by the attitudes of the parents, and sometimes by the poverty of the environment.

Relation to Brothers and Sisters. Playing only with an older brother or sister often results in the younger child's being continually led. Sometimes there is hero worship of the older child which keeps the younger from playing with other children and developing his own bent. Parents often do not see the necessity for outside playmates if their children play together constantly and amicably, but as a rule there is a constant leader and a constant follower—the leader not learning to follow and the follower not learning to lead. Such an arrangement may later lead

to serious difficulties. One bright girl of eighteen unaccountably broke short her university career. She had been the almost constant companion of an older sister until she went away to school, and had adored and followed her round like a puppy. When the older sister studied medicine she decided to do the same. Her failure at the university followed her introduction to pre-medical subjects in which she had no real interest. Having until then done little but copy her sister, she was at a loss as to what to do on her own. Actually she had an entirely unrecognized artistic and practical ability which later made the study of architecture a pleasure and a success.

There is also apt to be much less hypersensitivity with playmates outside the family, and even backward children can find a place for themselves. Children take reproof, criticism, and suggestions from their equals much better, and the standards set by themselves are loyally followed, since conformity to their friends is of first importance. A parent's idea of tidiness may mean nothing in their lives, but a suit different from that of the other fellow can be a nightmare at this age as in adolescence.

Problems in Training and Development

REACTIONS ASSOCIATED WITH AUTHORITY. Difficulties are especially liable to arise when parents and teachers are unduly stern because they feel unsure of themselves. They do not feel wise or capable enough, and hence need to have their confidence constantly restored by unquestioning obedience and agreement. They say this is "demanding the respect that is due them." Actually it is their own need for reassurance that they are right, which they try to satisfy by forcing agreement or obedience through their authority over those under them. In many household fear masquerades as respect. The child who "respects" a parent too much to express an opinion or idea of his own is just afraid to.

A child appreciates authority that is an expression of a wish to help when he has conflicting desires or is puzzled because of ignorance or lack of experience. He resents authority when he feels that it springs from a need to dominate or to express power. In the same way, correction or "punishment" need have no connection with domination. It need have nothing to do with getting even or "showing the child" or making him suffer so he won't forget, but can be a reasoned approach by which the child learns through cause and effect. The reaction to discipline depends largely on the emotion associated with it in the parent or teacher. Even though there is anger, children accept discipline if they recognize its fairness.

An experiment on quite a large scale illustrates clearly the different results obtained by fear and domination as contrasted with a pleasant, co-operative attitude on the part of authority. A large class of young school children was divided into two groups. One group was organized in a democratic way in which most of the work was decided upon by the group in conference guided by a teacher who was friendly, interested, and secure in his work. The second group was put under a domineering teacher, who completely ruled the class, allowing no initiative and controlling every activity himself. Both classes covered the same work and were observed over a considerable period of time.

The children in the first group were cheerful, free, in good spirits almost all the time, got along well with each other, and accomplished a lot of work. The second group also did good enough work, but they were whining, unhappy, disagreeable-looking, and did a great deal of fighting. They teased and plagued the weakest member of the group until he left, and then they found another victim. It seemed a necessity for them to bully someone as they were being bullied. If there is no one to impose on, some children under these circumstances will simply retreat into themselves, make themselves as inconspicuous as possible, repress their resentment and anger, and seem weak and incapable.

A thousand times a day the parent who must be master (whether aware of it or not) tells the child in no uncertain terms, "Don't do this," or "You must do that," or "Do it because I tell you to." Often the commands are totally unnecessary and are merely an expression of the parent's unconscious picture of himself as the boss. It is certainly more effective both in immediate results and in the eventual personality of the child to say, "Johnny, I have a headache. Will you please stop banging the door?" If Johnny still refuses, it is necessary for him to learn that he cannot stay with people if he is not reasonably considerate of them, and the alternative is to stay by himself in his room. He may be angry at having to do it but he will know that it is fair. In a situation in which Johnny has been given a black eye by one of the tougher members of his crowd, it is a help if the parent, instead of saying, "Don't you ever let me catch you playing with that boy again," sits down and talks it over with the child. What does he want to do about it? This in his anger and fear he usually cannot decide by himself and he is glad to talk it over with a dependable adult. Does he want to be stronger so that he can cope with such a situation later himself? Maybe he needs to be helped to learn what a bully is and to decide whether the boy was just being a bully or whether the fight was a fair one.

CRITICISM. Criticism is inevitable but in dealing it out one can criticize what the child has done, and not the child himself. Otherwise he cannot help feeling that your criticism is a rejection of himself. Instead of feeling that he has made a mistake that can be remedied, he feels that he is no good; he therefore gives up trying and continues the bad habit. If you call a child a thief, it is not surprising if he continues to steal, since that is what thieves do and he has been told that he is one. But if the stealing is talked over with him so that the child feels that he has made a slip and not done something sinful it soon stops.

Parents are constantly saying, "You bad girl!" "You're a very naughty boy!" "How dare you do a thing like that?" "Aren't you ashamed of yourself?" "Don't you know any better than that?" "Don't be mean!" "Don't be selfish!"

All of these remarks, and others like them, constitute criticism of the child himself and make him feel that you dislike him, that you are fastening on him ugly characteristics of badness, shame, stupidity, meanness, selfishness. You actually do not intend to do any such thing. The thing you are criticizing is the thing the child has done, and you should be careful to say so. "Don't tease your sister any more. Teasing is a mean thing to do and you're not a mean boy." Or, "That pencil doesn't belong to you so you shouldn't have taken it."

Much criticism can be avoided if the child is allowed to work up to his capacity and to feel that it is better to tackle a hard problem and get it only partly right, than to skim through an easy one. It is important for the parent not to take the perfectionist attitude, not to expect adult achievement at this age, but to commend the child for his effort, even if the best result is not attained. Some parents feel that if they praise a child or accept his efforts, he will stop trying; or they feel that if a task is not perfectly done each error must be pointed out, without giving credit for what has been done well. This naturally leads to constant nagging, with the result that the child's attitude becomes "Oh, nothing ever suits you."

If you expect too much, you kill the interest of the child, just as you do if you expect too little. Undoubtedly parents will make errors in judgment as to how much the child can do; but they will learn by experience and if they keep in mind their own child's individual ability, an occasional mistake is not serious. The child's capacity in any one thing can be judged only in terms of that child and not in comparison with other children. Criticism or comparisons without regard to taste, interest, and abilities can be both unwise and cruel. Such comments as "See how polite Jimmy is!"

or "Why can't you behave as well as your sister?" do not spur the child on but leave him feeling angry and inferior.

INFANTILE HABITS. The continuance of infantile habits into this period, as shown by various childish tricks, is usually due to lack of confidence and understanding of the parents, or to the carrying over by the parents of habits acquired during their child's infancy. They may quite naturally not realize that the child is a rapidly developing personality, for the changes are at times surprisingly swift and at other times relatively slow. The change from babyhood to boyhood or girlhood is sometimes well advanced before the parents are really aware of it, especially as the periods are overlapping. The child may be quite independent one day, or even one hour, and quite babyish the next because he had not found himself in his new role. It takes patience on the part of the parent to understand these changes.

This is particularly true the first year of school. There is less of a jump if the child has been to nursery school, but still there is a real difference between this and the school for older children. Parents who do not understand the increasing capacities of the child and his wish to use them may therefore unknowingly hold him back. They may fail to give him the chance to play with his own age group where he can develop leadership and co-operation. By doing too much for him and by withholding a sense of their confidence in him they prolong his babyish habits. As one eight-year-old girl said, "Every night I pray that I won't wet the bed and then I wake up in the morning and find the bed wet. I get so discouraged, I feel just like a baby and think, 'What's the use of trying? I suppose I must be a baby.'" When she was reassured about this (and it took time as she had been called a baby and treated like one throughout her eight years) and given much more freedom and experience, including taking care of her own bed, she began to act like an eight year old and the bed-wetting stopped.

THE CHILD SETS THE PACE. The confidence that comes from being allowed initiative and responsibility is a real psychological help in growing up. Even if your son does not wash behind his ears, it is more important for him to wash himself than for him to be kept spotless by someone else. If he is doing a complicated puzzle, don't get impatient at his slowness. Getting the puzzle solved is not as important as his own attempt at the solution. Many parents make the mistake of expecting adult rapidity of performance from the child. They become exasperated if he doesn't show a degree of self-discipline which is beyond his years. Trying to wriggle out of a situation, helping oneself to a cake if one is hungry or if it looks especially good, are temptations to which even

grown-ups have been known to succumb. If the parents avoid expecting too much, the child will be proud of what he can do and eager to accomplish more. Things that are important to the adult may make little sense to the child or his companions, and it takes patient teaching to inculcate reasonable habits and standards. Dirty hands and faces, wild hair, torn shirt, slammed doors, lost slippers, broken toys, clothing on the floor, forgotten homework, loud radios, dawdling, laziness—these are not sins to an eight year old. He just can't see their importance. After all, fairly soon he will want clean hands. And appreciation of his own appearance and of the convenience of order becomes his greatest stimulus, rather than attempts to teach him that they are virtues in themselves.

It is more effective to let him suffer the effects of his carelessness and untidiness than any amount of nagging or "I told you so's." If his shoes can't be found he stays in, if the bat is lost he can't play cricket, and the house is not turned upside down to find them for him.

BABYISHNESS. Sometimes in spite of the best intentions and even knowledge of the parents, this transition from childhood may cause difficulty because of emotions of which they are not even entirely aware. Certainly they are often blind to the significance of the difficulties that may arise in the future. They may for instance have experienced such an amount of satisfaction out of having a baby that they are loath to let him begin to grow up. He is an ornament in the household and an amusement. He knows that little is expected of him and that his parents really enjoy his dependence even though at times it may be a nuisance. So it is simpler and much easier just to be cute. His attempts at trying to do things himself may be laughed at, ignored or prevented. He gets no help or encouragement and therefore keeps on with his babyish habits which do win him attention. Later on this attention from adults changes to expressions of annoyance at his babyishness, and the child is bewildered and angry.

Sometimes he gets no encouragement in his first steps toward intellectual development, which he needs as much as he needed help in his first attempts to walk. Independent thinking and action on his part may make his parents' job harder than if he stayed dependent on them. But making his own decisions and accepting the results is the only way a child can ever learn to develop beyond the state in which he acts only on impulse. If decisions are always made for him, impulse is his only resource when he is not under control. He never learns to exercise an inner discipline. Before long, such a child finds he cannot compete with other children and so he doesn't like to play with them, may try to become teacher's

pet, wants to stay with his parents, is given to showing off, and may start or continue bed-wetting, thumb-sucking, tantrums, and similar childish habits. These children naturally develop a feeling of inferiority and this also prevents them from getting along with their own age groups.

AN EXAMPLE OF PROLONGED INFANTILE BEHAVIOUR. An example which is more exaggerated than one usually sees illustrates several aspects of this situation. Lucy is a much-desired girl with two older brothers. She was born eight years after the birth of the second brother and was pretty, gifted, intelligent, and vivacious. Her existence was not that of a growing, developing individual, but she was looked upon as an object of pride and joy by her parents. She was their much-admired plaything and whatever she did was considered cute and utterly irresistible. Her shortcomings were overlooked almost completely by her parents and by the two elderly servants who had the same attitude toward her. This state of affairs continued until she was about seven—although the school had trouble with her from the start.

Her parents now began to feel that she was becoming a nuisance. They were aware of the critical eyes of their friends when she childishly stamped her foot and pouted, refusing to obey the simplest requests and talking in an affected babyish way. They felt a little uneasy, but the situation did not become really difficult for them until she was about eight. Then the school decided to assert its authority, because although she was well above average in ability, she did as little as she thought she could get away with, and caused a continual disturbance in her classes. Her work was slovenly and her attitude one of bored indifference. Concentration on work rarely lasted more than a few minutes. She was always a trouble-maker at school doing all sorts of silly things to get attention. When her school fellows began to be bored with her silliness and left her out of their plans, she couldn't bear their criticism, but at the same time didn't know what to do about it. In her confusion she finally stole money to buy sweets to give to them in order to gain their appreciation and attention. She would never enter into any competitive games, was a bad loser, and was terrified of taking any real initiative for fear that she would fail.

It was obvious that the child had arrived at this unhappy state—unhappy for her and all concerned—because she had been given the idea that her only role in life was to be cute and pretty, and then everyone would think she was charming and pay her a great deal of attention. As this role had been so successful in her early childhood, she was at a loss when it began to fail. Her only solution was to act more and more like a three year old since at that

age it had worked so well. Her parents had not provided her with an opportunity to win approval or attention or to get satisfaction herself from accomplishments. When asked if she wanted to grow up she quite frankly answered, " Oh no ! I'd rather be three years old than anything else. Then you can do anything you like and you don't have to do anything else and nobody scolds and everybody pays attention to you."

This was handled in the school by an insistence that no work was acceptable unless it was the best of which she was capable. If five sums were done correctly and two were wrong—when it was obvious she could do all seven right—her paper was simply handed back to her. When, however, she did do responsible and adequate work, she was given due credit and everything possible was done to increase her satisfaction in it. At first she was rebellious, talked loudly about " mean old teachers," and tried to stir up the children. She was then sent home from school and told she couldn't come back until she was willing to fall into the ways of the school, that they couldn't have children there who didn't care about making it a comfortable place for everybody, teachers as well as girls. This was a great shock because she was very fond of the school and the fact that anyone could possibly really not want her had a most sobering effect. It was her first realization, in spite of all that had been said to her, that her behaviour and attitudes had something to do with her acceptability.

The parents recognized their responsibility in the situation when they understood that the core of the problem lay in their thinking of the child as a plaything for them to enjoy, not as a person for whose development they were responsible. As this became more clear and they realized that they were getting considerably less pleasure out of the babyishness they thought so charming at four, they were really horrified at what they had been doing, although the change in their attitude came slowly. One must understand that it was not what the parents said or did which was most important but what they felt—that is, the way they said and did things was what got across to the child. When they no longer considered babyish behaviour attractive and took it for granted that she would behave in accordance with her age, her development started. Naturally it took time to accomplish the change.

Expert Help. Fundamentally such an immature child is not happy. The only truly happy child is the one who is growing and learning and accomplishing. Children such as the girl we have described vaguely strive for satisfactions by getting their own way and having attention centred on them, but when they are shown constructive ways of getting real satisfaction the change is marked.

A situation like Lucy's may occur where there is an only child, but it is well to remember that a child may have brothers and sisters and yet be in the position of an only child, either because of the gap of years or because it is a much-desired girl or boy. In Lucy's case, although the parents were highly intelligent and worked to change the situation, the aid given by a child-guidance expert trained to handle such situations was of considerable help in hastening the change and removing the strains and tensions. An impersonal outsider, to whom the study of human relations is a branch of science and an art just as surgery or medicine is, can throw light on the problems which those involved in them are unable to see. It is not just "common sense." People and their relationships are, or can become, enormously complicated, and if unfortunate habits and unhappy relations arise that the family cannot alter by their own efforts, an experienced person from outside may be helpful.

CHILDREN WITH PHYSICAL DISABILITIES. The child with any physical disability presents a special problem, particularly if it is one which cuts him off from normal activity, such as serious heart disease, lameness or lack of co-ordination due to a birth injury or illness. The attitude the parents take towards this disability is of incalculable importance to the happiness and adjustment of the child throughout his whole life. Effort should be made not to express pity for him by word or tone of voice. It is better still not even to feel sorry for him, but to help him develop every capacity he has, and to believe in and find satisfaction in these capacities. If those about him are preoccupied with pity, they are guided by emotion rather than by a clear-sighted view of what can make the child happy. He will be over-protected and made a fuss of, rather than developed and strengthened by the effort to make the most of what he has. The child will mirror the attitude of those about him. If his physical care and deprivations are an ever-present source of anxiety and preoccupation to the parents, the child will be self-centred, exacting, unhappy, and frustrated. Again, we have all of us seen people with marked disabilities, such as paralysis, which we completely forgot after a short time because the persons themselves had forgotten them and because there was so much of interest in their personalities.

Sometimes other children are cruel in their comments or curiosity. It may be necessary to protect the handicapped child from this until his parents and immediate circle give him the self-confidence, inner security, and acceptance of his situation which will be appreciated and admired by other children no less than by adults. If the child cringes or shows that he is sensitive to his

disability, then other children are likely to be either cruel or over-protective.

SHYNESS. Apart from obvious physical handicaps, there are other difficulties that may be present but have been considered unimportant. These may become increasingly acute when the child goes to school and leads a less sheltered life. Shyness and awkwardness may become evident, whereas earlier it may only have been noticed that "Johnny is always a little quiet and backward with people."

Two completely opposite attitudes are often taken toward these children. The one proposes to "harden" the child by forcing him to meet people and situations, no matter how difficult for him or how much he suffers; the other, to shelter him from everything that is difficult or trying, to be over-sympathetic and protective. Sometimes the same child is subjected to both methods, the father adopting the first and the mother the second. He hears many arguments about the subject and naturally his difficulty increases.

If the situation is serious, professional help is indicated both for the child and parents, especially if the parents' points of view are different. An impartial adviser is needed to get them working in the same direction. If he is a person to whom the child also can talk freely of worries and fears which he may never have put into worlds even to himself, it is of still greater help. These shy, self-conscious children have a perfectly normal wish to be prominent and to show off as all children do. But for some reason, often forgotten or hidden away in their early childhood, they feel that it is wrong to want to be attractive and noticed. Or they may fear that they will be criticized and pushed back, or are sure that they cannot act creditably. Sometimes they are afraid that if they act freely and with initiative, the protection to which they have grown accustomed will be lost to them. Still other children have associated attention with temper tantrums which they may have grown out of, but being fearful that they may sometimes lose control, they protect themselves by excessive quietness and shyness which may continue into adult life.

One of the most helpful methods of dealing with this situation is to give the child opportunities to do things he enjoys before other children or with them, especially if they are useful and contribute to the group or entail responsibility. For example, he may be put in charge of the plant or animal life in the school for a time. If he has a special talent or ability, opportunities may be made in an inconspicuous and casual way for him to use it either individually or as part of a group. This should never be urged on him.

STUTTERING. Stuttering and shyness often go together, and later in life, if serious, stuttering is one of the most difficult symptoms to cure. At times it is associated with forcing a left-handed child to use his right hand, which is never advisable, but it is often primarily an expression of an emotional conflict in which the child is afraid to express his real feelings. It often becomes more evident in the early school years, but the first signs of stuttering usually occur at about three years. He should be allowed to feel that no matter what he thinks or feels or wants to do, no matter how angry he gets, he can come out with it and still be acceptable. He should not be punished or humiliated, but reassured that his outbursts will be taken unemotionally and every effort made to help him understand his feelings. If the last is not always possible, let him feel that such emotions are not so dreadful, and give him harmless ways of expressing them—a punching-ball, boxing lessons, toy guns, for example.

A girl of six who had been a mild stutterer since she had been able to talk was sent to a school in which a great deal of freedom of expression was encouraged. At the same time changed circumstances permitted the mother to spend a great deal more time with the child who became increasingly at ease with her. After some months the mother noticed that the child was acting much more aggressively toward her, becoming contradictory, self-assertive and saucy. The mother, realizing that the girl was somewhat suppressed and bossed by an older sister, took it lightly and casually and made no issue of it. To her surprise, she noticed that the stuttering decreased and finally disappeared. The aggressive behaviour gradually wore off during the next year.

CHILDREN'S WORRIES. While our traditional picture is one of the carefree lightheartedness of childhood, those who know children realize that their worries, though often short-lived, are very serious while they last. And for the sensitive child they may not even be short-lived. Children, like grown-ups, vary greatly in their sensitivity to troubles and in their ability to reason through a problem and to accept or shake off worries. If a child has seen parents deal with a difficult or disagreeable situation by calmly thinking out the causes and what can be done about them, he acquires the same approach. Another child, seeing a situation met by worry and confusion, is likely to meet his own problems in the same way. The more matter-of-fact child will tend to worry less in any circumstances.

Unusually imaginative children may build up small incidents in their minds into extravagant episodes over which they worry out of all proportion to the cause. This may be due simply to the fact

that the mother doesn't realize that her reprimand is sharper than she meant it to be or than was justified, perhaps because she was annoyed at the cook and her anger carried over, or because she was tired and had a headache. When this happens it is a simple matter for the mother to explain to her child that she was tired and therefore cross and did not mean to be so harsh over something unimportant.

The child needs in his worrisome situations an older person on whom he can depend to listen patiently and understandingly. No parent is patient day in and day out—parents are just as human as everyone else—but if the child knows that by and large he can trust his parents' tolerance and kindness, the other times are not so important to him. This teaches tolerance too. One youngster waked up screaming at night over a bad dream brought on by fright because she had helped herself to some sweets and lied about it. When her mother came in somewhat annoyed at being awakened and asked what the trouble was, the child in her fright blurted out "earache." This added another lie to her burden but got her some of the care that momentarily made her feel less frightened because of her guilt. The lies soon troubled her again, and she was cross and unhappy until her mother made her feel enough at ease for her to tell the whole story. Bedtime is often a good time to talk over the day—pleasant happenings as well as mistakes—and if both parent and child are relaxed, unhappy things are likely to pop out, and be resolved, to the child's relief.

PARENTAL WORRIES AFFECTING CHILDREN. Children are also apt to be keenly aware of their parents' worries and moods, even though the elders try to cover them up and the children give no sign of having noticed. A six-year-old girl visiting her godmother asked, "If anything happened to mummy and daddy so we wouldn't have a home any more, could I come and live with you?" When she was assured that she could, she said nothing more and had a happy week-end. The parents, who to all outward appearances got along reasonably well, were planning a divorce but were sure that the child could not have known of their discussions or feelings. However, it was obvious from the child's anxiety that she had sensed the disturbance.

Casual parental differences are sensed by children very early (as well as later when they seem more indifferent to them) and may be exaggerated in the child's mind. Financial difficulties that burden the parents can be a real, though often unexpressed, burden to the child, and anything that is given him can make him feel uncomfortable or guilty. Parents preoccupied by their own worries may not notice the effect on the children and may fail to give them

a little necessary understanding. It is not half so difficult for the child if he knows the truth in illness or in other crises, as he worries about what he guesses and imagines from facial expressions and overheard conversations.

FIRST EXPERIENCES WITH MONEY. Another important step in these early years is the first experience with money. This responsibility has both personal and social implications and often has deep emotional overtones. Very early in life and at all income levels it is possible and wise for a child to get experience in the handling of money, which includes the management of expenditures and a sense of relative values. The small boy of five, with his allowance of threepence a week, can exercise a choice between sweets and marbles, and learn that since only one is possible, he will have to do without the other—always providing that someone does not spoil the whole process by buying him whatever he demands or makes enough fuss for.

The responsibility for choices should be left with the child, although a discussion of them is often helpful if there is no pressure on him. Even saying, "You can do what you like but I think you'd better buy this," is apt to make him think you will disapprove his choice and he takes your suggestion without being convinced. Permit him to waste his allowance, to save it for a definite object, to hoard it, lose it, give it away, borrow for a week or two in advance, do anything with it he chooses to do—without censorship. But always let him take the consequences, for only by having this wider experience can he learn to accept the inevitable fact that he cannot have his cake and eat it too. If there is any borrowing, a simple account book will be found to save much discussion and will start a good habit.

The amount, of course, should be appropriate to his age, but should be given to him regularly. From threepence to sixpence a week is a good start at the beginning of school life. It can be slowly increased depending on the family's circumstances and those of his schoolfellows, although he may have to learn that he has to do with less than others. By the time ten or eleven years is reached, the boy and girl ought to have enough money to cover certain definite expenditures for fares, lunches, recreations, and charities.

A child sometimes steals because he has not got as much as the other children and feels embarrassed at not being able to keep his end up. Sometimes, of course, it comes from deeper psychological reasons, such as spite or resentment, sometimes because of lack of love and attention. In these cases, the situation should be carefully studied and sometimes a very little help will put things right. Often the money is symbolic of something desired. For example,

one plain young adolescent stole money only from very pretty girls and bought rouge and powder. Another child, a little boy of seven, stole money only from his father and only after he had been beaten by him. The money always went for sweets, which was a consolation for the lack of affection from his father and a way of getting even.

Many children say they have "found" some money and often there is much discussion as to whom it belongs. The simple expedient of putting all such "found money" in a special bank for charity or spending it for something the entire family shares usually results in a marked decrease in the frequency of the "finding" of money. It usually needs no further action to break this run of "good luck." Since it is easy for money to be lost out of children's pockets, the simple expedient of a zipper purse is helpful.

SHARING THE FAMILY BUDGET. The school child's share in the family budget can be talked over with him, even though he does not handle all the money spent on himself, and cannot always understand the reasons for the various items. But he will have a sense of being part of the family group in this important matter and be less demanding about his own wishes. The child who knows that his share of the family income is a certain definite sum is much less likely to beg and tease for an extra gift than the child who feels that what is spent on him depends on the parents' whim of the moment. He also feels that what is spent is in proportion to what is used on the rest of the family, and that this division is arrived at objectively and fairly. He will take for granted whatever deprivation may be necessary, especially as he recognizes that other members of the family put up with similar deprivations. He also gets an idea that money in itself has value only according to its use and that a seeming unfairness if more is spent on one child than on another is not unfair at all but is due to special needs.

ATTITUDES TOWARD MONEY. There is some danger, however, in over-emphasizing money and talking too much about it. If it is made too important, it can cause as many difficulties as if no attention is paid to it. Budgeting need not be rigid, and though it is only approximate it can be simply a part of a well-regulated life and neither more nor less important than any other activity of family life. When children first get the idea of value and costs, they are usually much interested in them and in the processes of buying and selling. Often, to the embarrassment of the parents, they discuss with each other and with guests the cost of everything in sight. They may also ask what people earn and how much they save. This is a normal interest in a new subject, and when they

get some understanding of the use of money and relative values, it gradually drops out of the conversation unless it is kept up by the parents.

Parents who are careful and sound about money often expect their children to learn only by their example, but wise spending rarely comes without experience. Or they may teach their children only to save, not realizing that this is but half of what they must learn. Some parents, in an effort not to make the mistakes with their own children that their parents made with them, do not take their own specific situation into consideration. An attitude towards money that was reasonable in a preceding generation may have no meaning in this, as is illustrated by the case of a woman who had been brought up in early childhood on a poor farm and later by a widowed mother on a very limited income in a large town. Money was always scarce and became unconsciously a too-important value in her life. After her marriage she was quite well-to-do, but all her life she was dogged by a feeling of guilt and extravagance if she bought anything that was not absolutely necessary, even if it were within her means. At the same time she had a great desire to be reckless combined with the same fear of an impoverished old age that she had seen in her grandfather's and mother's home. She was generous toward her children, and then, feeling guilty, would be as niggardly and economical as her own mother had had to be.

On the other hand, one often sees in hard-working families with an impoverished background the joy that comes to the parents in being able to lavish some extravagance on a child that could never have been possible in their own youth. If their extravagance is out of proportion to their income, this raises false expectations and ideas in the child and may result in resentment when it cannot be continued.

It is plain that the matter of money has many implications other than the acquiring and spending of it. For instance, running into debt is often a child's way of getting even with a parent. If it happens, it does little good to lecture on the horrors of debt, but it can be most helpful to find out what grudge the child holds, and also what the parents' attitude is toward money. If the child gets the impression that his father regards money as the most important thing on earth, then making his father pay his debts is just the best way of getting his own back that he can find.

The child takes over the family's ideas about money as quickly as he does other things. If the family wants money in order to add to its importance or social position, or if it means power to it, the children are apt to have the same values. If to be poor is to be a

failure or a disgrace, no matter what the circumstances, money becomes to the child something that must be obtained at all costs. If money is a compensation for a feeling of social inferiority, the child learns to desire it for that reason. It can easily seem an end in itself rather than a means to provide reasonable comfort and pleasure. He may never realize that effort toward its acquisition beyond a certain necessary amount may mean the sacrifice of all other values in life as well as a comfortable enjoyment of it. It is more important to a child to have a companionable father in modest circumstances than a tired, irascible, seldom-seen parent supplying him with the best schools and holidays.

The child's development in these years includes great strides forward as a member of society. Learning to work and play with others of his own age attains great importance. Such organizations as the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides are a great help in furthering this. The new world that opens through books and schools is an impetus to his development that goes with him throughout life. His emotional force is expended to a large extent in these new experiences. The parent who understands this and gives him free scope will be doing the child a real service in advancing him toward maturity.

CHAPTER XI

THE FIRST SCHOOL ADJUSTMENTS

Study—Choice of School—Special Problems.

Study

FORMING STUDY HABITS. The importance of the first four or five school years has often been underestimated. Actually they are of far-reaching importance because work habits, study habits, the capacity to concentrate, can most easily be crystallized in this period for both bright and average children, and be of lasting value. Work should be difficult enough to keep the child interested and to give him the feeling of self-confidence that comes only when he has work to do that requires effort and the exercise of his powers. This self-confidence doesn't come from solving easy problems. If the work is too easy, the bright child becomes bored and lazy, and poor study habits are started. With such a beginning he does not learn to study, he gains no confidence and gets on without real effort. The brightest pupils may later have grave difficulties in school. They have acquired a reputation for being bright and intelligent without having had to exert themselves to gain it. Thus they have no confidence in painstaking effort because they have never learned to try it. They are afraid that if they work hard and fail, then their own and others' belief in their brilliance will be destroyed. However, if by not studying they do not put their ability to the test they can always fall back on the excuse, " Of course if I had worked, I could have done it."

ADJUSTING WORK TO CAPACITY. The question of what can be done about school work if it is too easy or too hard and if there is no other available school is often difficult. Advancing or retarding the child a class may take him out of his age group or size, which may also be a disadvantage. On the other hand, if the work is too easy and he is large for his age or gets on well with older children, advancement might work out well. Sometimes a discussion with the teacher may result in supplementing the work done at home or in school, if it is too easy, or in providing tactful help if too hard.

In many schools the division of the class into three groups, advanced, average, and slow, which are not so named to the children, has a distinct advantage from this point of view. If done

tactfully, it does not create a feeling of inferiority in the slower child. Alice, a ten-year-old girl whose main interest is drawing, realizing that she was in the slow group in arithmetic and feeling of her own accord that she could do better, worked her way, with difficulty but persistence, in three months from the slow to the fast group. The confidence gained put her on the crest of the wave, and continued even though she says she still hates the idea of arithmetic. But the social pressure that helped her to achieve accuracy in a subject she disliked and continued to dislike, and the pleasure and satisfaction of having mastered it, provides an experience in self-discipline and results in a confidence that is invaluable.

Another method to help children to achieve work up to their capacity is to vary the passing mark for different children. The ability of the child is estimated by tests and observation and discussed with teachers. For the teacher's reference the passing mark for one child will be 90 while for another it may be only 75, depending on their capacity. The children are unaware of the difference in marking, as no marks are ever given out and the children are simply told whether their work is acceptable or not, and if not, why not. If a bright child complains about not being passed when he knows another child has passed whose work is obviously inferior to his, he is told, " You happen to be better at this subject and therefore ought to do it and ought to take pleasure in doing it well." Each child competes with himself rather than with others, and the comparing of children of different interests and different kinds of mentality is prevented. Teachers, no less than parents, may unfortunately compare the artistic child with the mechanically-minded child, for example, to the detriment of one or the other.

CONCENTRATION. In discussing the ability to concentrate, it is important to remember that normally this increases steadily during these years. The younger child likes short stories repeated over and over again, and he likes to make things that can be completed in a relatively short time. This gets boring after a while, however, and longer books and longer jobs are more fun. With the bright child, ability to concentrate longer is noticed earlier, especially if he isn't bothered with interruptions or unwanted help. The uneasy, overactive, high-strung individual, who is not happy unless he has attention from someone at frequent intervals and who wants to be constantly diverted, cannot concentrate easily. If the time during which he stays interested does not increase there is usually an emotional difficulty, but there may also be physical or mental factors that need investigation and correction.

If this problem arises or if there is other continuing evidence of poor schoolwork, there should be a careful study of the possible causes as soon as the difficulty is recognized. The "Oh, he'll outgrow it" attitude may keep the child at a disadvantage for years, and make the correction many times harder than it would have been if intelligently attempted at the start. This does not mean that an occasional slump in work or lack of interest need be a cause for worry; it may only be staleness, but if it continues it is better not to ignore it.

SCHOOL AND HOME. Education is a two-way affair and to an increasing extent school and home are co-operating. It is no longer "interference" if the parent comes to school of his own accord, nor is it necessarily true that the teacher sees parents only to complain about their children. Their problems with a particular child are apt to be the same and can best be solved co-operatively. Even if the child is getting on well as school, the parent should keep in touch and not wait for trouble before visiting. A complete picture of the school situation cannot be gained from the child himself, no matter how honest he is. Well-timed visits, preferably by appointment, are a great help. Parents can find out from the teachers if the school work is too easy. Good marks may not be any indication of real education. The standards may not be high enough to require any effort on the child's part, or the marks themselves may mean too much to him.

Choice of School

A typical parent of an unusually bright five year old said, "It doesn't matter where we send Jane to school. She is so bright and quick and imaginative she will get on anywhere." She is the very type of child who, because of her quickness and attractiveness, will not develop her real capacities, unless she is sent to a school where she will have the company of her equals in ability and enough material to keep her interested and working up to her fullest powers.

If a private school is selected, obviously it should be chosen with the interests and abilities of the child in mind and not just because of its social standing or reputation. For instance, one private school with an excellent and well-deserved reputation for method and scholarship has a very stiff entrance examination. Mary who was of barely average intelligence and was not getting on well at a small school was coached up to the standard of this one just because it was so "good." Of course she could not keep up and another failure was added to her list. Some schools try to avoid situations like this by testing the children both for ability and

for achievement before accepting them or deciding what form to put them in. Children like Mary may be referred to another school whose requirements are more in keeping with their ability. Otherwise, the situation is very unfair to the child. It is no more her fault that she has an average brain than that she has black hair instead of blonde, no matter what her parents' tastes or ambitions may be.

Special Problems

Of the many special problems that may arise in education only a few can be touched upon in such a general book as this.

THE DULL CHILD. There is, of course, the child who has less innate mental capacity than the average, and it is in these early school years that the problem of the dull child often comes to the attention of the parents. The child who is not quite as bright as others may escape special attention until he has been at school for a time. There his inability to concentrate or his confusion and worry and poor reports attract the attention of the school and his parents to the situation. A study by a psychologist of his native capacity, or intelligence quotient (I.Q.) as it is called, will determine to a large degree whether the problem is one of an emotional disturbance or lack of intellectual ability. If it is the latter, it is important that the child should not be pushed beyond his ability or be put in competition with others who are quicker and brighter.

The dull child may have many compensations for his lack of intellectual capacity. He may have a charming disposition and can be a happy and successful human being if he is not made to feel stupid and different and inferior. He may be clever in the simpler mechanical trades and be a real asset to his family and friends through his disposition and character. He may also have or develop an excellent memory. Such children sometimes do well in school subjects that can be memorized, such as spelling, reading, and simple arithmetic, but are not quick at reasoning and dealing with abstract problems, for reason is the last of our intellectual powers to be developed. Therefore if development does not continue, these children show up badly in subjects that call for the exercise of these powers, algebra for instance, and are often left behind in the higher forms though they may have done well enough lower down in the school. Special tuition helps up to a point, but a school in which they will be assisted in developing their special abilities at their own speed is the greatest aid.

Many problem children from all classes of society who get into difficulties come from this group of children. When ridiculed and made to feel stupid, their self-respect demands that they assert

themselves before their fellows, and stealing or leading a gang into trouble is often the only way they can show that they are somebody. While this is taken more seriously in adolescence it is by no means uncommon under ten. This is the time, before habits become too deeply ingrained, to recognize the situation and to offer substitute satisfactions at proper schools and in such groups as the Boy Scouts. There are many schools now in existence which offer proper and effective training for these children who can become useful citizens.

Dull children cannot solve their problems, no matter how long or how hard they try; but these children must not be confused with average or bright children who seem to have a slow mind but who, on observation, are seen to be more thorough and accurate workers. Children who are thorough may take longer, not because they are stupid, but because they want to be sure they understand the lesson or problem and want to do it as well as possible. In our craze for speed, these children are too often passed over and those with the quick minds get all the attention, though their work may be careless and their understanding superficial.

Two sisters, two years apart in age, illustrate this problem. The older had a bright, quick mind and did well without thorough preparation or even real effort. Because of this facility she skipped two forms and was four years ahead of her sister who was considered rather slow and not nearly as bright. Actually, as later developments showed, the younger had an exceedingly good mind, thorough and intellectual, fundamentally interested in and thoughful about ideas. She merely happened to be working more methodically in order more thoroughly to master her subjects.

Parents and teachers often wait until the child does badly at school before offering special help, but leaving things so late makes readjustment more difficult. If the parent has been in touch with the school, the teacher is more likely to recommend or arrange for help before the child fails. The parents' interest often stimulates the teacher's initiative and interest.

READING AND SPELLING DIFFICULTIES. One educational problem that affects about 10 per cent. of school children might be mentioned in passing. The new method of teaching reading by teaching words and phrases instead of the alphabet as was formerly done (and is still done in some schools) works excellently for the majority of children. A few children who happen to be neither strongly right- or left-handed have difficulty in learning to read and write by this method. It has nothing to do with their intelligence and as the reasons are rather complicated they need not be gone into here. Such children, however, continue to have difficulty in

distinguishing between such printed letters as b and d, or p and q, for example, after the other children have learned them. "Bab," for instance, may spell for them either "bab," "bad," "dab," or "dad." They will all look alike to children with this difficulty, which is called strephosymbolia. These children sometimes also confuse 6 and 9. Other confusions are also possible. The remedy is usually quite simple if taken early and if there are no complications. They must be taught the alphabet in the old-fashioned way and learn their letters by writing, studying, and pronouncing each one separately, and repeating this process until the distinction is clearly made, especially between those letters which are confused.

In a few rare cases, a child will be found who sees everything upside down or reversed, so that he looks from right to left instead of from left to right and tries to write that way. A strongly left-handed child may write backwards at the start, but this does not necessarily mean that he is seeing backwards. He has to adjust himself to a system of writing and printing designed for the right hand, which he can usually do with a little special training at the start. The more serious cases require special expert teaching and take considerable time, but the simple type as described can be easily taken care of at home or in school by practice on the alphabet, using reading, seeing, and writing together. The newer word or syllable method of learning to read and spell is efficient and practical for all other children.

In an investigation of a number of children at a private school, one eleven-year-old girl who seemed very slow in learning was tested to find out if she had the ability to stay on. Tests involving reasoning, memory and quickness that did not involve reading were passed brilliantly and rapidly. Tests that had to be read were slowly and painstakingly undertaken and caused inexplicable misunderstandings. Further study showed that she had quite a degree of the confusion in reading described above, but because of her high native ability and effort she had been able to guess just enough of what wasn't clear to pass unnoticed. Retraining in reading was notably successful although slower and more difficult than if it had been done earlier. The change showed not only in her schoolwork, but in a new self-confidence and ease and gaiety that indicated how great a strain she had been under.

When a child with good sight and hearing has unusual difficulty with reading, this possibility should be examined before he is labelled "slow" or "stupid." It should also be mentioned that nearsightedness or impaired hearing may often go unrecognized before the school years and sometimes is not found for a consider-

able time after the child has been attending school. Many children are considered stupid when the real reason is that they have been unable to see the blackboard, or to hear the teacher plainly.

RACE PREJUDICES. In the early years human values are simple, direct, and uncomplicated by prejudices. But when the child goes to school and extends his social life, all the prejudices that we are heir to begin to make themselves felt—and often to his bewilderment. Sometimes they come from without, sometimes from within the family. To children, the terms Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant, yellow, white and brown, have no meaning—only as they happen to "like" David or Mickey or whoever it may be. And whether the child finds that he is considered inferior by others, or that he is expected to consider others inferior to him and not to take them as he finds them, it marks the beginning of a totally new outlook on people as members of groups or races and not just as individuals. This may happen when he is so young or may be so much a part of his environment that it may seem as if he were born with it. For example, a boy brought up in a well-to-do home may find to his great surprise that a working-class boy can be good company! Or, again, a child may suddenly find himself derided as a Jew, a fact which he had always taken for granted as much as the colour of his eyes and without reference to his personal acceptability. Families of broad sympathies are often distressed to find their children adopting the prejudices and intolerance of their schoolfellows.

In any event the child is faced with one of the realities of life that cannot be ignored. Injustices and intolerance are part of living, and in one way or another the child must learn that most of us come in contact with such things at one time or another in our lives. The effect they have lies not only in the limitations they impose, but more deeply on the personality of the intolerant, as well as of the one against whom it is directed. Parents who realize this and show it by their own clear thinking help their children to face the issues honestly. They foster self-respect that prevents intolerance and makes for a sense of the human values in all people. Their children will eventually find their balance and develop a sound basis for judgment of people and of their ideas that will go with them through life.

Along with a widening experience with people and through reading the child gets an idea of ways, life, and standards very different from his own. His natural reaction is one of curiosity and interest. This will do much to add breadth and interest to his life, unless he is taught that whatever is different from his way of living or is of another group or race is necessarily wrong or inferior. A

child does not need actually to be told this—he gets it from the atmosphere in which he lives.

School is more than reading, writing, and arithmetic. By the time the child is approaching adolescence more waking hours are actually spent in school than at home. The three R's can be learned at home but not the give and take of social life with a group of his own age working and playing together, nor the discipline, teamwork, obedience, and leadership that the child is exposed to with his contemporaries. Its importance demands more than the casual attention of the parent. Even though he has confidence in a particular system or school, his intelligent attention to the child's progress and activities may mean the difference between success and failure in his child's school life. This includes the child's social attitudes and adjustment as well as his scholastic activities. It also means that success in this period of his life will carry over into his adolescent years and make them easier and happier.

PART V

ADOLESCENCE

CHAPTER XII

DEVELOPMENT DURING ADOLESCENCE

Physical Changes—Emotional Development—Social Relations—Problems in Development.

ADOLESCENCE cannot be defined in a sentence that will give a clear understanding of that complex state. It is a period of uncertain beginning and ending (some people never outgrow it!) that cannot be dated. It is a state of mind as well as a period of swift physical change, whose processes start several years before they are obvious and whose effects are shown in physical, mental, and social development. It is started by changes in the glands of internal secretion, not just the so-called sex glands but others also, and their secretions go to all parts of the nervous system. No part escapes their influence, not even the thought processes. In the social sphere the new adjustments are no less apparent. The dependent relation to the family diminishes as the importance of friends outside the family circle increases. School becomes more important as it more directly prepares for the fututre.

Physical Changes

The adolescent changes are apt to start earlier in girls than in boys. The obvious ones, such as breast development and menstruation, may begin as early as eleven years. Boys usually change between fourteen and fifteen years and this is marked, not only by the outward bodily changes, but by the development of semen and the appearance of emissions at night, the so-called "wet dreams." But actually changes within the body start a year or two before other more apparent physical signs, and often the parents, not realizing this, are at a loss because of unexplained differences in behaviour and in the increased amount of feeling that young people may show even toward the most unimportant things.

While in childhood normal differences in weight and height are not likely to be great, in this period variations are marked. Some children shoot up rapidly and attain almost their full growth at

thirteen or fourteen years, while some seem scarcely to grow at all for a year or two and then at fifteen or sixteen grow rapidly for a year. It is, therefore, not possible to have an "average" weight that means much. The general condition, firm musculature, physical endurance, good colour, and a rested, fresh look mean more than a scale. Girls are usually heavier and often taller than boys of the same age and look more mature.

It is well to remember that at this time of early adolescence, just before or during the onset of menstruation or change of voice, the youngster may get somewhat run down, not only because of physical changes and quick growth but also because of emotional tensions. He may be unaccountably moody, irritable or highly strung and while easily over-tired insist on keeping going on nervous energy. At times there may be some hysteria, at others apathy. It is important if this happens that he should have plenty of sleep and outdoor life, relief from undue responsibility, and an understanding of his problems and worries. Discouragement is all too likely in these circumstances, and a poor physical condition, if allowed to drag on at this time, may be difficult to overcome later. A thorough physical examination is also important. It is helpful if the responsibility for hours of sleep, exercise, diet, and whatever is necessary for getting into condition be left to the individual. At no time is supervision, which usually deteriorates into nagging, more resented or more useless. A talk with the family doctor, without the parents' presence, is often a help.

A girl of thirteen who was about to be left behind for a term because she had not kept up with her work, was seen in the late spring. She was 5 feet 7 inches tall, a thin, listless, anæmic girl who slept poorly and had grown extremely fast during the past year, during which she had started to menstruate. She had previously been quite strong, taken part in dramatics, and had been an excellent athlete and a member of a number of teams. She had an hour's journey to and from school. Her strong sense of school loyalty had kept her trying to go all out. After the doctor had talked the situation over with her very frankly and in detail, she rearranged her time-table, omitted all competitive play, and became a boarder for the rest of the year. She stuck to a nutritious, easily digested diet and worked well under special tuition. The school helped to make things easier for her and by the following year she was in good health and keeping up with her group.

Emotional Development

On the emotional side we see a definite change from the preceding period, during which the interest has been turned mainly outwards

and the personal, emotional part of life has been less important. As the child enters upon adolescence, he shows an increase of feeling about everything—his parents, his brothers and sisters, his friends, his social life, and everything that concerns him. This increase in feeling, in quantity like the early childhood years, but in quality quite different, is related to the glandular changes that are taking place.

ATTITUDES TOWARD SEX. Part of this difference in feeling is due to sexual development. It is important that the child should realise that his sexual sensations and feelings are normal and natural. Many parents dread the idea of this awakening in their children largely because they themselves have been brought up to think of sex as something inherently wrong or leading to evil at the first opportunity—the snake in the garden of Eden—even though intellectually they may deny this attitude. As a matter of fact, if the adolescent is freed from fear and guilty feelings, there is an idealism about sex and love and marriage (even in the sexual delinquents) that puts to shame the fears and suspicions of the elders. Regardless even of how the adolescents may be acting, it is the general experience of understanding workers with young people that they want to think honestly, realistically, and finely about sex. Nothing diverts them from this course more quickly or certainly than being made to feel guilty or indecent about their sexual impulses or thoughts, as well as their acts. The feelings are normal and proper; adolescents would be abnormal if they did not have them. The problem is not the rightness or wrongness of the sexual drive. That is natural and instinctive and is no more a moral issue than is any other instinct. The problem is its control, which is a matter of learning the nature and possibilities of the sexual instinct, and not one of repressing it through fear and guilt.

As a thinking human being, it is up to the boy or girl to decide what he does with these feelings. They are there to be expressed, but when and how he will express them is the problem of every adolescent everywhere, unless he has almost entire freedom as in some primitive tribes, or is completely controlled by rigid custom.

A large part of the training of adolescents consists in the development of that higher part of the brain which recognizes, understands, and controls the emotions, rather than lets itself be controlled by them, as animals are. It serves no good purpose to repress them and refuse to recognize their existence, a course which some people attempt. In the understanding and training of his emotions the adolescent needs help, just as he has needed help in learning to control anger and other instinctive reactions. Even if he is very hungry, he still remembers his table manners. In adolescence this

training is continued to include the sexual urges which begin to be prominent in his thinking and feeling, because they are so much a part of his personal make-up.

OUTLETS FOR EMOTION. It is obviously important to give children outlets for these emotions in ways which will be approved of and satisfying, instead of forcing them to repress their feelings entirely because they are made to think them wicked or sinful. Crushes and "calf love," the unending giggling and secrets, the interest in poetry, sentimental novels, and movies, are all part of the age—expressed earlier and more openly by girls than boys.

The girl's preoccupation with clothes and cosmetics is a normal expression of her desire to be attractive, and advice in becoming more so is always appreciated. Her interest in babies is expressed by interest in younger brothers and sisters or in other people's children. Courses in baby care and training in school at just this time are good. The interest in caring for babies usually precedes any apparent interest in boys and often is marked at ten or eleven years after dolls are outgrown. A little later a boy's protective attitude towards his mother and towards girls, sometimes rather shyly shown, begins to be more noticeable, as well as interest in dancing and other social aspects of life. This chivalry and the growth of idealism is an important social expression of normal sexual feelings. The creative impulse also manifests itself in artistic and constructive work, and because of its value as self-expression at this time, and perhaps also as a permanent hobby, it should be encouraged. Writing, painting, photography, wood carving, nature study, building model airplanes, and other constructive efforts are of real value.

FACTUAL KNOWLEDGE OF SEXUAL MATTERS. It is of course of primary importance, no matter how many outside interests the young person has, that there should be no question about the actual facts of sex and its relation to his own feelings. It is to be hoped that both boys and girls have been taught the facts of sex in the years before adolescence. Parents who have failed to do this should not neglect it any longer. If they are afraid that discussing sex will cause it to "prey on their children's minds," they should remember that clear understanding is the one sure protection against impulsive and heedless action—the "going too far" that they dread. It is half knowledge and ignorance that lead to curiosity and experimentation. If the parent has personal difficulty in discussing it and there is no one else available, a book such as *Being Born* by Frances Strain is excellent.

It may be of interest to know that in a home for delinquent adolescent girls, whenever there was an unusual amount of sex talk

and too free behaviour with boys, it was found that the surest way to stop the talk and regain a normal healthy attitude toward the boys in school, at the dances, and during recreation hours, was to sit around after dinner and have a free-for-all discussion. It was kept on a completely impersonal level. No one's behaviour was discussed and no confessions or tales on others were allowed. Each girl's own ideas were freely expressed, discussed, and criticized by the others. Sometimes an opinion was asked or offered, or a question brought out the answer from them. The result was always a less tense and happier group of girls who had more real pleasure out of their social contacts.

MASTURBATION. There is practically always a return of masturbation during this period and it is entirely normal and usual. Studies made in both boys' and girls' colleges show that practically all normal boys and girls do masturbate at some time or other, and doubtless always have done so, with varying degrees of frequency. It is agreed by all modern authorities that it is harmless, and practical experience proves it. But harm can and does come when the young person has been led to believe that it is harmful or sinful. The feeling of guilt or the fear that it will make him weak, insane or impotent can do a great deal of harm. The very word "self-abuse" which is often used shows the false light in which the practice has been placed. In the normal young person with no unsatisfied sexual curiosity or guilt, and with plenty of opportunities for social activities and work, there is no danger of excessive masturbation.

DAY-DREAMS. Phantasies, all kinds of imaginings, are common and normal at this age. Usually much time is taken up by day-dreams of the opposite sex, by ideas of marriage and of starting a family. The more completely the young boy and girl have opportunity for pleasant, easy social relationships with each other, the more normal and concrete these day-dreams will be. At first they often centre about some film star or book hero, or some older person barely known, or a creature entirely of the imagination, but as opportunities arise and self-confidence increases, these dreams impossible of attainment tend to be replaced by day-dreams of real people whom it is possible to know and to become attached to in reality. It is natural in this period of finding out about oneself, and of forming new relationships to others, that the ideal and the dream, as well as the real figure, should change frequently.

Other day-dreams have these same differences. Much time can be spent very pleasantly wishing for impossible happenings, dreaming of miracles, and making believe that the impossible can happen. A certain amount of this is natural, but a good part of

day-dreaming can equally pleasantly consist of thinking about an idea that can become a reality and considering ways and means of bringing it about. Much of the so-called laziness of this period is really day-dreaming and quite natural. The more evidences there are that it is constructive, the better. For example, a girl may be mooning about the house apparently unwilling or unable to put her mind on anything. But if she pulls herself together and as well as day-dreaming makes a new dress, does her hair differently each day, and tries out new cosmetics, then one knows that it is not just some impossible he that is being dreamed about, but a real person about whom she is making and carrying out plans to do something, which is an entirely healthy preoccupation.

Or a boy may seem to be interested in nothing but his own thoughts (if any, according to the family), and then eventually it appears that he has been working out how to get hold of the remains of a car that once went and make it go again.

Social Relations

Relation of the Adolescent to His Family. The changes that the adolescent is undergoing are due not only to the glandular changes and the resulting physical and emotional development, but also to the changing situation of the adolescent in his family and his own world. Up to this time his family was in a very real sense his universe. He might leave it, but the sense of its presence and of the sureness of his return was part of him. But with the beginning of his maturing, whether he is aware of it or not, the urge to leave its protection is present and in conflict with the habit of security and safety that the family has afforded in the past. One sees this throughout nature. Often a mother bird after teaching her young to fly will have to give them a push to get them out of the nest. In the complex situations of modern life many a youngster is afraid to branch out on his own, much as he may want to, and many a parent is unwilling or afraid to give the preliminary teaching and the often necessary push.

For these reasons adolescence often seems a serious problem to parents, much more serious than it need be. It appears to them to be so completely unrelated to childhood that it may be useful to discuss these years as a natural development of what has gone before.

The problems of the adolescent do not suddenly spring into being at this period. They have their beginnings in childhood, sometimes in infancy, but they take on new directions and greater force because of new interests, more difficult situations and greater feeling. But just because this is a period of change, someone once

called adolescence nature's second chance to parents, during which mistakes and misunderstandings can be straightened out as the new and more adult relationships develop. It also can be a period of vivid interest to the parents who, in watching these changes, can experience great satisfaction in their child's development. They will see many of their ideas and plans and hopes crystallize.

To see the young adolescent in perspective one must think of the stages through which he has gone in the light of what is ahead of him. His first attachment was to the person who took care of him, usually the mother. With the boy the strongest feeling continues to be turned towards her. He normally tends to want to be like his father, admire him and copy him. He tends to love his mother as someone different from himself—not someone to be like but someone to admire for her very difference. The girl child on the other hand loses the first close attachment to the mother as she comes to know her father and transfers to him a very deep feeling. But she wants to be like her mother, and is dependent on her helpful teaching and example. These feelings, as we have seen, are much less strong in the early school years when normally there is a decrease in all personal feelings.

As the tomboy realizes that she is really on the way to becoming a woman and the boy has a dim feeling of the life and responsibilities ahead of him, the need for guidance, the innumerable questionings and doubts, expressed or not, assert themselves. The girl is once more quite dependent on her mother and the boy looks to his father for help. They need an example and a guide even though they may not be aware of it.

Dependence on Friends. In conflict with this need for parental guidance is the fact that adolescence is also the period in which children must learn to break away from dependence on their parents. Even though this growth towards independence has been going on since infancy, the desire for it is normally greatly speeded up at this time and is shown openly. Advice may be asked for at one moment and bitterly resented, if offered, the next. In the relationship to persons of their own age and sex as well as of the opposite sex, a new or at least a more emotional feeling develops and replaces to some extent the feeling towards the parents. This gives rise to all sorts of contradictions. The parents' advice or approval may be asked for but the very next moment another boy's or girl's idea is seemingly of much greater importance. There is a great need for exchange of experience and the sharing of knowledge with close friends. It is reassuring for them to know that other boys and girls are feeling and talking about and doing the same things. Each can add his sum of experience ot the

others'. This is particularly valued because children are not as afraid of being laughed at by their own friends as by adults or of being considered immature. The endless telephone conversations, the going off to one's own room for hours with a chosen friend, are all part of this situation and are quite normal phenomena, however tiresome they may seem to the adults. Clubs, cliques, and secret societies flourish for the same reason and usually die a natural death as the need for uniting together for a mutual feeling of security passes.

At this age particularly, the boy or girl resents criticism of his friends and his choice of them. Prohibitions usually result in resentment, or in open or hidden rebellion. It is usually wiser to say nothing and make the friends welcome. If they supply a real need to the young person, their social status is unimportant. If objections are made on moral grounds, the boy or girl who has had the example of good taste and judgment will formulate adequate standards of his own. A reasonable discussion of standards without any attempt to impose them is usually helpful and welcome.

Criticism from older or younger brothers and sisters is equally resented. Quarrels with those just older are frequent and natural—the older one wanting to boss, and the younger one resenting it and also wanting and needing to be friends. He usually looks up to the older brother or sister with considerable hero worship that nothing would get him to admit! The root of the difficulty usually lies in the rivalries of childhood, forgotten during the early school years and coming to light again in adolescence, when the uncertainties of the older one make him want to run his own universe and be superior to those in it. So he teases and bosses, and the younger one alternately submits and rebels, and looks forward to the time when *he* has grown enough to get even. By the time that happens, however, both are grown in years and self-assurance, the old rivalry can be forgotten, and mutual interests, if present, keep them together.

Where the child feels that his mother and father have been thoroughly understanding, he has less need for secret sessions with friends and much more freedom in sharing each new experience or in discussing perplexing questions with his parents. Such confidences, however, cannot be forced. If the confidence is there, well and good; if not, it can be slowly fostered by abstaining from questioning and by expressing a feeling of trust in the young person which he will appreciate and reciprocate. He will eventually show this appreciation by taking his parents into his confidence, and the relationship gradually develops an equality in place of dependence.

It is understandable that growing independence may be resented if a large part of the parent's life for fifteen years has been devoted to the care and interests of the child to the exclusion of other interests. But it can be a source of increasing satisfaction to the parents and to the child to feel that the dependent relationship is changing to one of friendship between equals and a sharing of pleasures and interests outside of the house. The parents need not feel that in " losing " their child they have lost a relationship. They have gained, instead, a new relationship toward which they have really been working since the child was born, by fostering the development of a helpless baby into a responsible, dependable, and self-reliant adult.

YOUTH REVOLTS. The so-called " revolt of youth " is the way out for many young people who feel within themselves the growth of their own powers, and at the same time an uncertainty as to their ability to cope with them. They are impatient of restraint, and no matter how bumptious they may appear on the surface, they really are afraid of their own lack of experience. This may often show itself in rapid changes of behaviour which may be confusing, to say the least. Within an hour the adolescent may pass from the utmost self-assertion to a clinging dependence. Young people resent the reins but are afraid that they may not get on without them, and having clung to them too long, they may cut them in a kind of desperation.

In earlier generations, many a rebellion was accomplished by running away to sea or to a new country. As our civilization becomes more complicated escape becomes more difficult. It is the stronger individuals who break away, but they could have been saved the personal conflict, bitter both for themselves and for their parents, if they had been allowed a gradual increase in freedom to make their own way and solve their own problems, even though these are hard. Struggle is natural for growth and the effort obviously can be a real pleasure. No kindness is done by " saving " a child from it, any more than by solving his hard algebra problems for him. But the less that it involves personalities and the more that the effort is expended in the solving of his own problems, the less bitterness there will be. Bitterness never helps toward growth and development, on the contrary it is more likely to inhibit it.

The need of the adolescent for help in freeing himself from his family is recognized by many primitive tribes. There are definite ceremonies at puberty to mark the outgrowing of the young person's dependence on his family. The boys and girls, especially the boys, leave their families to live with their own age group and to be taught by the elders. Later they participate in special

ceremonies after which they definitely join the ranks of the grown-ups. Our confirmation ceremony is a survival of this, but it has of course lost much of this early meaning and importance. This dramatizing of the approach to adulthood is quite different from the dramatization of the problems of the adolescent. The modern child soon catches on to the fact that his parents are making him a dramatic object of conflict. Whether irritated or pleased with the attention, or both, he will be likely to do everything he can to increase it.

The continued dependence of the adolescent is usually a reflection of the dependence of one or both of the parents on the child. The adult may have no one else toward whom his affections are so deep, and he may feel that this one close tie must be kept close at any cost. Or he may have been thwarted in his ambitions and feel that if only the child will fulfil them (no matter what the child's natural bent may be) his own life will be fulfilled. Sometimes the parent has had so little adult experience himself that the only relationship he can conceive is one in which parent and child are mutually dependent.

A surprising number of people seem never to make a distinction between love and dependence. A child reared in this atmosphere will feel that independence would indicate a lack of love. The youngest child in a family may have a particularly unfortunate experience. One or both parents may be extremely fond of children and hate to give up this last one. So this child may be fussed over long after such behaviour is appropriate and may have greater difficulties than other members of the family. On the other hand parents may feel shelved by the growing son's attempt to dominate the family and by his outspoken criticism. Sometimes the mother happens to be going through the menopause with some personal difficulty at this time. She may have a sense of uncertainty about her future, a feeling that her job with her family is over since they are no longer dependent on her, and a general feeling of futility and of being at a loose end. However, this can become the time when she and her husband develop a new companionship and interests which have been dormant because of the demands of the children. This new companionship may take time and thought and effort to develop because of the need for breaking long-established habits.

Prolongation of Adolescence. In earlier times a boy or girl was considered grown up at about sixteen years. The boy was usually earning something and the girl was considered ready for marriage. The prolongation of dependency in the last generation or two is one of the prominent changes in our society. The period

of education for the majority has been lengthened, with the result that financial dependence continues over a longer period. Jobs are harder to get, and a boy going into a profession is often supported by the family until he is twenty-five or twenty-six years old. Unfortunately, there is a connection in many parents' minds between financial dependence and emotional dependence, so that as long as the young adults are supported by the parents, they feel they have the right to order their lives and exact obedience, long past the age when their children should have the opportunity of exercising their own judgment. Many parents also expect initiative and responsibility in their children while still expecting unquestioning obedience—an obvious impossibility.

Attitudes of the schools also have their share in this prolongation of adolescence. In some schools there is a tendency for teachers to prolong the dependence of pupils by carrying supervision to extremes, by limiting pocket money so that the children do not learn how to budget or spend properly, and by mapping out and supervising study periods of pupils sometimes up to eighteen years old. When these children go to university, they are too inexperienced to manage their new-found freedom which has come relatively late, so that they are liable to waste considerable time making their adjustment to it. Or if they do not go to university, their jobs call for more dependability, initiative and judgment than they have had an opportunity to develop.

Conflicts over Prolonged Adolescence. The conflicts that arise from these situations involve in the final analysis an acceptance of responsibility by the child. This means he must free himself from dependence on his parents or parent substitutes. Sometimes he is faced with the harder problem of freeing himself from their domination, and winning the right to reason for himself.

There are three ways (or a combination of them) in which these conflicts can be met. Some fortunate young people early get the habit of thinking out situations clearly and making decisions on properly understood evidence, which is an invaluable aid in this period, as it is throughout life. But if there is too much obscure emotion involved for clear thought, there are two courses open to them. They may try open rebellion, which is usually highly impulsive and emotional and not thought out, but which may be the only way if the domination of the parent cannot be coped with rationally. Or they may resort to repression of their natural impulse toward independence, with consequent underlying resentment, and perhaps hysteria and other neurotic symptoms. Often there is a partial understanding and freedom together with some rebellion or repression.

FRIENDSHIP WITH OLDER PEOPLE. In this period before independence is achieved the young person is usually attracted to older people outside the immediate family circle, and easy friendly relationships with them can be most helpful. These new friends are sufficiently older to inspire the adolescent with a sense of confidence and a feeling that he can depend on their judgment, advice, and help. If he feels it to be necessary, he can also imitate older friends of the same sex, without feeling that it implies the degree of dependence which imitation of the parent does. He also may be less afraid of his friends' criticism and feel more sure of a sympathetic ear. The first " affair " of a boy is apt to be a secret devotion to an older woman, as is that of the girl to an older man.

This interest is entirely natural and is shown sometimes by crushes on teachers and others in responsible positions. There may be some open demonstration of affection but this is a natural part of the young person's development. The interest is apt to be short-lived and unimportant if the child has had a fundamentally secure relationship, especially if the parent of the opposite sex has not tried to keep the child dependent on him. As self-confidence and assurance are gained the crushes diminish because there is less need for parent substitutes.

UNDUE DEPENDENCE. If, on the other hand, the dependence on either parent has been marked or the parents are possessive or exacting, the young person is given little opportunity to enjoy a social life of his own, and normal development is interfered with. In certain circumstances prolonged attachments to persons of one's own sex or to older people may continue to a point where they will interfere with a normal adjustment toward marriage and children, and a homosexual situation, normal to a certain degree during adolescence as discussed in the previous paragraph, may be continued beyond adolescence.

One young woman, extremely musical and with a good sense of rhythm, had always declared that she couldn't possibly learn to dance, and had avoided social contacts with men as far as possible. Her mother had always disparaged her father and men in general, as well as any girls who made themselves attractive or showed any interest in boys. She was possessive and domineering with her daughters and taught them that it was superior to be above such interests and frivolities. At fourteen the girl had danced at a neighbour's house, enjoyed it very much, and had got on well with the boys. When she returned home, her mother's quiet contempt was too much for her. She was afraid that she might want to repeat the pleasant experience. This, in addition to her previous experience of her mother's attitudes, was enough to make her take

refuge in awkwardness and shyness, and to convince herself that she really disliked such contacts and did not want any repetition of them. The result in adult years was unhappiness and dissatisfaction with a social life made up exclusively of women.

Other family situations may result in undue shyness towards those of the opposite sex and sometimes towards everyone, and a fear and avoidance of the responsibilities of approaching adulthood. Also, to repeat what has been said before, if there is little understanding or much misunderstanding of sex or a great deal of fear and guilt associated with it, young persons may be frightened of making even friendly contacts with the opposite sex and have friendships only with their own sex.

Friendships between people of the same sex, of course, go on throughout life and can be very deep and rich. What is meant here is a relationship that is called homosexual, that interferes with normal sexual interests. If such exclusive attachments to one's own sex continue throughout adolescence, it is wise for the young person to have expert guidance from a doctor who will also be able to advise him and the parents in coping with this problem. The parents need help in seeing how they have been holding on to and restricting their child. The adolescent also needs the help that an intelligent, impersonal point of view can give to overcome his fears and guilt and straighten out his misunderstandings of which he may not even be aware.

Factors Leading to Dependence. Various factors may tend to keep the parent and child relationship a dependent one. For instance, a widow or widower or an unhappily married parent may have an only child or a favourite one on whom he or she has avished all the love that would normally be shared with a mate. In one family with an only child the parents were not particularly happy and both centred their affection on the daughter. At nineteen she was a tense, nervous girl, given to flashes of temper, reserved and superior in her attitude. She had never been out with a boy and was supported by her family although they were quite hard up. The parents had " given her everything " since she was a child, and had never directly asked anything of her. But they had been slowly giving up their social life because of diminishing funds and both looked to her for companionship. Young people were not invited to the house, and if any girls came, the father monopolized the conversation. Although she was perfectly healthy, the girl's diet and sleep and clothing were supervised as if she were a child, and she definitely had the impression that she was not strong enough to work. She resented her parents' dependence on her company and their unspoken attitude that she was expected

to show by her constant attention to them gratitude "for all the care" they had given her, but did not know that this resentment was behind her outbursts of temper over other things. She felt that she needed their care and was afraid to show how she felt for fear of being rejected. This fear of rejection was unbearable to her as she had no self-confidence, having been so sheltered and guarded from experiences.

The girls at her school were called "silly" or "vulgar" by her parents if they went out with boys. If she were to act as they did and follow her impulses, she would be in danger of losing the feeling of superiority that really covered her lack of self-confidence. So by making her feel incapable of earning a living and giving her a deep sense of gratitude for their support, together with a feeling that anything sexual was vulgar, her parents were effectively blocking her normal development and keeping her with them. They were quite unaware of what was happening and considered themselves unusually devoted and self-sacrificing parents.

At times an undue sense of obligation or gratitude for financial or other sacrifice, or a feeling that the parents have been so kind and good, makes the adolescent feel that he owes it to them to follow their advice or suggestions or commands. Sometimes the parent unconsciously fosters the feeling as in the above case, but a sensitive and conscientious child may develop these attitudes without any desire on the parents' part. As soon as this is evident the parents can make it plain that whatever they did was their pleasure as well as their duty, and that it is nothing for which the child has to pay in terms of undue devotion.

Uncertainties of the Adolescent. In an entirely different situation the child may not want to grow up even though the parents apparently place no obstacle in the way. This is particularly true of the spoiled, sensitive person who both wants to have approval and to follow his own impulses, and at the same time refuses to take the responsibility for his own decisions. One girl of twenty-four was restless, nervous, and unhappy. She had been engaged several times and broken each engagement off. At this particular time she could not make up her mind about marrying. She was the youngest child and had always been emotional and strongly self-willed, dominating both her mother and older sister who spoiled her. In adolescence, when she started going out with boys, she came for the first time up against disapproval that she could not wheedle them out of. The family were deeply religious and much more conservative and rigid in their social ideas than other families in the fairly gay well-to-do community in which they lived. The girl was unusually lovely as well as highly emotional

and was quite popular. The family's strong disapproval of kissing or any flirtation before a definite engagement only increased her perfectly natural desires and left her full of conflict. As she had done practically as she pleased all of her life, she bitterly resented their disapproval when she did only what all of her friends were doing. At the same time her upbringing made her feel that her family were right and she had a sense of guilt and hatred for herself for having such desires.

She had had no practice in acting as an independent adult and had acquired no confidence in her ability to think through a situation and to act according to what seemed right to her. Instead she retained an insistence that her family *had* to allow her to do as she wanted and that they *had* to give their full approval without which she could not be comfortable. She had always been able to win them over during her childhood, but as she grew older, they would not compromise their strict social standards to indulge her. Growing up, for this woman, meant deciding what her own standards about relationships with men were to be, and being willing to act accordingly as well as being willing to do without the family's approval and devotion, if they could not come to an understanding.

INTEREST IN THE OPPOSITE SEX. The relation of the adolescent to the opposite sex of the same age is like a minuet, with its going forward and stepping back. Adolescents may have a deep or a passing interest in the opposite sex which they often repress because of their fear of being rejected or laughed at, or just because of their own awareness of their lack of experience. It calls for all the parents' tact and understanding to support the child in coping with this stage, not teasing, urging or questioning, but standing ready to give advice or help when asked for.

In no other field are the growing boy and girl more likely to feel inadequate than in the ability to get along with each other and to feel attractive. Obviously they are unpractised and, as has been pointed out before, practical help and suggestions in meeting social situations are enormously appreciated, provided they don't feel bossed but get help when they ask for it. Boys especially need practical suggestions about their social life and are often extremely self-conscious about asking for it.

One boy of fifteen, well developed, jolly and social, but awkward, reminding one of a young St. Bernard, became acutely self-conscious when his voice began to change. He shifted back and forth from a falsetto to a boyish tenor, but with no chest tones. He was sent to a throat specialist who assured the family that his vocal cords were properly developed, but that didn't help the situation. In

talking it over with the boy, it came out that he had always been boisterous and that for years he had been told " keep your voice down." His new natural voice was a deep, fine bass, and when relieved of his fear that it would be too loud and conspicuous and criticized, he lost his falsetto overnight.

REASSURANCE. Reassurance about appearance, and time and thought devoted to the problem of clothes, social activities, and points of behaviour of the thirteen, fourteen and fifteen year old, are of great help and build up a feeling of self-confidence that gets children over this awkward age with the least pain. It is important that they should have the comfortable feeling of being like other children, and not made to dress in younger fashion or in the way mother dressed at the same age. The parent should be aware of how things are done by other children in the group and as far as possible be tolerant of it.

If a young girl goes out with the feeling that the family thinks she looks exactly right and knows that she is going to have a good time, half her battle is won. One mother, who wondered why her daughter was awkward and self-conscious and always remained a wallflower, had the habit of looking her over before a dance, and sending her off with such remarks as, " Your dress looks lovely, dear, but what a sight the hairdresser made of you ! " or, " You really look lovely, dear, but I don't think that I'd wear those shoes again, they make your feet so conspicuous."

Not only is the adolescent sensitive to criticism but he in turn is apt to be very critical, particularly of his own family. He wants to be proud of them as that gives him confidence, and he wants them to be like or superior to his friends' parents. If his family are congenial and hospitable, and he feels that they are acceptable to his own friends and provide a background he can be proud of and depend on for his social needs, it is a great help. Younger brothers and sisters who will not keep up appearances are, of course, a great trial. As is a mother whose hats are unattractive or a father whose clothes are untidy.

NEED FOR A BACKGROUND. In the same category is the importance of an attractive home that the young person can take pride in. His ideas may seem extravagant or outlandish according to the family's standards, but he should at least be able to count on an understanding discussion and not feel that the family's ideas are so rigid that it is useless to talk anything over.

Often if the parents have believed in simple living, the stress the young person puts on outward appearance can be most distressing to them. One young and inexperienced girl, scared of her first parties, quite unconsciously adopted the exaggerated accent of a

popular visitor. If the parents could but realize that such developments were merely signs of the child's lack of assurance arising from inexperience, and only a temporary phase, they would find them less harrowing.

Problems in Development

The adolescent must meet two types of problems—those arising from within himself and those arising from the conditions of the society in which he finds himself. It is inevitable that difficulties should arise, just as they do throughout life for everyone. They are natural and unavoidable and the confidence that comes from the satisfaction of having met them is invaluable later. Apart from the emotional problems discussed above, arising both from within and without, difficulties may arise from an unevenness of maturation which is fairly common in our complex society.

Development of the child is not a simple process taking place in one direction like the growth of a plant, but is made difficult because the physical, intellectual, social, and emotional parts of his development are not necessarily all taking place at the same rate. In other words, a child may be thirteen years old and may have an adult intelligence, but will have only the social experience gained by thirteen years of living. He may perhaps be emotionally rather young and tied to his mother. This child, because he is so bright, may be advanced at school and associating with fifteen year olds. His teachers may expect of him a judgment which they think his intelligence and schoolwork warrant, without realizing that his years and emotional status may not have given him opportunity to develop it. The parents also may expect him to be mature because he is so bright, and at the same time deny him opportunities for independent experience. His inability to live up to these expectations may give him a feeling of inferiority and defeat.

Another boy may be late in developing physically, but of average development otherwise. He may be short for his age and may not show the physical signs of maturity. He finds himself with boys who seem older, whose voices have changed and who appear more manly. He may get into a panic for fear he will not develop, and feel inferior to the other boys for that reason.

One girl, who was singularly ill at ease and shy, had as much expected of her as of a sister two years older who was the same size and only a year ahead of her in school. But the older girl was unusually poised, had considerable experience in running the household, and if anything, was socially ahead of her years though behind in school. Both were more mature in some respects than the average, but each had developed in different ways, the younger

in school work and the elder socially, and to expect the same of each was unfair to both.

It is helpful for parents to consider specifically in what phases of development their child seems behind his friends and schoolfellows, and then definitely plan to help him to catch up. Usually it is wiser not to discuss the matter with him as it may make him self-conscious, but instead to act slowly and tactfully. If a child is over-developed on the intellectual side, a point can be made of giving him confidence in his physical and social accomplishments by seeing that he has opportunities in athletics and dancing lessons, and by having young people in who are congenial. A holiday with others in his own age group is helpful. If he is young for his years, he may be given increasing responsibility.

One boy of thirteen was asked to leave his school because of lack of interest and poor school work. He was about the size of his eleven-year-old brother and had not been put in any teams, but in actual intelligence and capacity to reason he could give points to most adults. He had adult taste and ability in music which had no outlet in the school. The only fun that he had was with a crowd of rowdy town boys whom he would sneak out to play with and with whom he had a thoroughly good time. He was placed in another school where there was less emphasis on athletic prowess and more on development for all, so that his size did not matter. He was encouraged and required to work up to his intellectual level both in his studies and in his music, and pleasant, informal, social activity was part of the school life. He did very well both there and at the university.

Above all else, the adolescent must cease to depend on others for his security and feel that this has become a quality within himself. He should come to realize that in the final analysis he must be prepared to depend not on others or on outward circumstances or material possessions but on his own inner feeling of his worth.

CHAPTER XIII

THE ADOLESCENT AND HIS ENVIRONMENT

Money—Idealism—Limitations and Contradictions—School and Vocation.

FAMILY ATTITUDES. In addition to those situations within the child that make growing up seem at times such a struggle, problems arise that are outside himself but are none the less important and necessary for him to understand and deal with. Such problems as arise out of prejudices, competition, money, social position, and choice of job, all have a vital personal meaning to him. With his increasing needs he may become seriously aware of many of these problems for the first time. If the family have had hard times and the father is under the constant strain of competition, the adolescent may become fearful of growing up and taking on the responsibilities which seem so difficult. Or if the family has been living beyond its means and there is constant worry or discussion about money, the feeling may develop that it is a great burden in life to make ends meet and have the care of others. If the mother seems to carry all the burden of the family, the daughter may share the responsibility and feel the weight of innumerable petty economies, so that she gets a distorted view of the role of the wife in the household and of its difficulties and hardships with apparently so little return. This may make her feel that marriage is a poor thing for the woman. Such factors can be important in the child's unconscious wish not to grow up in those aspects that entail the assumption of responsibility for others, in order that he may remain free of burdens which appeared so difficult for the adults when he was small.

One woman of thirty-five in an excellent position took great pride and satisfaction in it, but wondered why she was vaguely discontented. She insisted that she worked hard and had not married because she was afraid of returning to the poverty in which she grew up. She was the youngest of eight children and she remembered her mother as a tired, overworked, sweet but unexciting woman, old before her time. Her father was gay and interesting, was always waited on, and looked years younger than his wife. Unconsciously, she wanted his kind of life, which seemed so easy to the child, who never actually saw the father at work, rather than a life like her mother's, which seemed so hard. Actually the daughter was working just as hard and got just as

tired as her mother, only it happened to be in business instead of in a home. She got none of the real satisfactions her mother had enjoyed and which had given her a deep contentment and the sweetness and lovableness that her family adored, in spite of her tiredness and lack of gaiety.

Money

The same problems about money occur as were discussed earlier, but now, during this stage, they take on greater importance. The difficulties may show themselves in an irresponsibility about money, an over-carefulness or extravagance with it. In other words, instead of money being a means to an end and the end thought about and evaluated, money can become an end in itself and be given an importance and meaning that it does not possess.

Except in the extremes of incomes, these problems occur without distinction as to class, the actual income of the family having little bearing on the way the family feels about the adequacy of the income. A bicycle for John Smith may be as difficult to get or as great an extravagance as a car for Tom Jones. The fact that money can cost too much is something to remember. Money is not of any use in itself as the old story of King Midas shows, and too much can be sacrificed for its accumulation or even for what it can purchase. The weighing of values starts as early as there is an appreciation of the environment, that is, as soon as the baby decides whether he would rather cry and be scolded or wait for his bottle and be smiled at. The money problem can be thought of in similar terms, as there is usually the privilege of a choice except when one is dealing with the bare necessities of life. Above that point one can often decide whether it will bring greater satisfaction to take a position with more leisure for family and friends and hobbies, or one involving all one's time and much stress and strain even though it means a higher income.

Idealism

The idealism of the young is natural and in their enthusiasm and vigour all things seem possible of achievement. Social and economic inequalities, suffering and destruction in the world about them, all seem to rise anew to their eyes. To some the scene is frightening, to others it is a call for action. In any event, recognition of the lives of others and of problems not necessarily one's own marks the end of the more unheeding, irresponsible thinking and ways of childhood. Or the young person may realize for the first time the deprivations of his family and friends and may wish strongly to do something about it. In some adolescents the

idealism finds expression through religion, in others in politics and a feeling of sympathy for and wish to help the less fortunate. This is the inevitable outgrowth of his awareness of the world beyond his own immediate surroundings in which people live differently and have different opportunities and ambitions. Because this is new to him and years of experience have not dulled him, he is sensitive to it and often eager for action.

The extremist views that may be an expression of this concern are often a source of anxiety to the more conservative parents, but they are a part of the boys' and girls' efforts to understand themselves in relation to the world and an awareness of the feelings of those whose environment is different. Sometimes, also, deeply hidden and unconscious personal resentments are expressed in this impersonal way. If the authority of the father, for example, has been so prohibitive that the child is afraid to rebel or express his resentment towards him, he may find expression for his resentment in revolutionary ideas. The authority of the government is substituted for that of the father, and as he is less afraid of and less attached to the impersonal government, it is easier for him to express his revolt or anger against this than directly against his father. Rebellion against authority can also find an outlet in anti-social delinquent activities.

The idealism, no matter how crudely expressed, needs an outlet and a sympathetic ear. Social service and political activities often provide the opportunity, but whatever outlet the young person finds, the broadened horizon enables him to feel within himself, "I am a man and nothing in mankind do I hold alien to me." He may seem intolerant and hot-headed in his views, and yet the very fact that the interest lies outside himself can mark the beginning of growth away from the narrowness and intolerance of youth to the understanding and acceptance of maturity. This is particularly true if his enthusiasm and feelings are met with mature understanding and not by amusement, ridicule or intolerance on the part of the parents.

Limitations and Contradictions

Fear of Inadequacy. One type of difficulty in the young person comes from a distorted picture of himself or his capacities. He may feel that he has to live up to a picture that parents or teachers have given him of what they expect. Equally unfortunate is the conflict that comes from ideas of themselves that the parents have given the child which, as he grows up, he realizes are not true.

Even though he may not realize it, the parents may have given the child to understand that he is not to make mistakes, that his

duty is to be brilliant or talented or quite perfect in some aspect, and the child feels an obligation to live up to this picture whether or not it is possible or true. Or a father may make the child feel that his mother can never be wrong or must never be criticized—the parent is always right. Or the mother may give that impression of the father, and as it obviously cannot be true, the child realizes it. The child feels guilty and inadequate if he fails to live up to expectations, and disloyal if he sees his parents as they are. These false impressions keep him from attaining the most valuable gift of maturity—the ability to see things and people realistically and not how he thinks they ought to be or would like to have them.

RECOGNITION OF LIMITATIONS IN HIMSELF. Sometimes the child is brought up with an idea of the family's intellectual or social superiority which, on wider experience, he realizes has no foundation. Or he may believe himself superior because of a particular situation. For instance, as a child the adolescent may have gone to a rather inferior prep. school where he had little competition, and easily appeared to be a superior person intellectually, whether his parents gave him the idea or not. When he goes on to school or university he finds himself in competition with his intellectual equals or superiors, and he may have a difficult time in adjusting himself to this new picture of himself in relation to others. Never having had to study hard, he has no confidence in his ability to accomplish by hard work what he sets out to do. He never tries to do his best because he is afraid he might fail. And if he doesn't try he can always say, "Well, I could have done it if I had studied hard enough," and thus keep intact his illusion of superiority.

LIMITATIONS IN THE FAMILY. Instead of on his own superiority, he may be dependent on that of his family. He may, for instance, feel that his father is an intellectual giant, until his own powers develop and he can see flaws in his father's reasoning, or can see him objectively in comparison with other men. He may resent his father's failure to maintain his intellectual status if he feels that he needs these qualities of intellect in his father to bolster himself. The son feels cheated when the father has not lived up to the picture he had assumed.

If the parents have a realistic conception of the limitations of their children and themselves, these difficulties will not arise, for the children will naturally develop tolerance and understanding of themselves and others. The sooner the parents can recognize the need for honesty and accept both their own limitations and good qualities as well as those of the people around them, the more self-confident and assured they and their children will be. Nothing

prevents the development of self-confidence and inner poise more surely than the need to cover up real or imagined limitations.

Limitations in social background may cause the adolescent real unhappiness. Sometimes he finds that the pretensions of the family are not recognized by others. Or the child may have never seen in his home the simple courtesies and manners which his associates take for granted. He may never have been taught how to hold his knife and fork as the others do, or have been trained to rise when women enter the room, and he will be resentful because his parents have not taught him these things, not realizing that his parents may not have been aware of such manners themselves. Obviously parents cannot teach what they do not know themselves; but if they have trained the child to be observant and independent, he won't feel resentful because of lapses in his training, but will set out to learn for himself.

Limitations of Each Sex. Each sex also obviously has its limitations and advantages. There are many girls who consciously or unconsciously want to be boys because they feel that boys have all the luck. The beginning of menstruation can be a great shock to such girls, as it is the final sign and seal of their femininity from which there is no escape. This unhappiness at being a girl may be copied unawares from the mother, if she has been resentful of her own womanhood and feels cheated by life. Or the father may look down on women, consider them inferior, or try to dominate them, so that the girl feels inferior and restricted because she is a girl. Boys in the family may seem all important or have all the freedom, and the girls envy them. On the other hand, boys may feel that girls have no responsibilities, that they exist to be waited on, and that life spells complete ease for them. It may seem to them that girls are always taken care of, whereas boys have to work and earn a living and support a family. Or the mother may seem the more dominant and strong member of the family and this may confuse them. These attitudes may be copied unconsciously from a parent who resents his or her situation, as well as from envy of a favoured brother or sister.

The obvious solution is to recognize that both sexes have their limitations, but different ones; that they both have advantages, also different, and that one's sex is as inevitable as the colour of one's eyes. The wholehearted acceptance of these facts, with their limitations and difficulties as well as their advantages, adds immeasurably to the ease and pleasure of living.

Contradictions in the Environment. Contradictions between the young person's ideas and ideals and the attitudes and actions of

those around him are bound to arise. The more acutely the young person is aware of other people and their ideas, the more problems he is apt to find. Many ideas that he acquired in his early childhood have been forgotten, but they are, nevertheless, a part of his personality and his thinking. Often his behaviour is shaped by them without his even realizing it. Later on he may see a quite different point of view which he thinks he accepts completely. But he may really act in contradiction to his later point of view and more in accordance with the ideals of his childhood without necessarily being aware of his inconsistency. If a boy, for example, spends his early childhood in an austere household and is brought up later in one that is free and easy in its ways, he may come to accept more liberal moral standards, and then some day to his surprise find himself passing censorious judgments on the behaviour of his friends. He probably calls it an "instinctive moral sense," but actually his attitude was learned in early childhood, forgotten, and then formed the basis for action when an occasion arose, in spite of later training. Of course these early patterns can, if desirable, be changed after we recognize their existence and their meaning to us.

In the sexual and religious sphere this is particularly true. A rather nervous girl, brought up with strict ideas in a deeply religious family, acquired vivid pictures of hell and damnation every Sunday of her childhood. Later she went away to school, became a nurse, and gave up many of the ideas of sin that she had acquired in her youth. She smoked, played cards, attended dances, and later was divorced. A subsequent nervous breakdown was traced in part to her deep fear of the punishments that she had learned in her childhood would be hers for such behaviour, even though long since her conscious mind had rejected these ideas. When the hold of her childhood memories and ideas was fully understood by her and their emotional meaning made clear, her nervous symptoms disappeared. Where the conflict between the repressed ideas of childhood and the conscious ideas of later life is resolved, the personality then no longer acts as a house divided against itself but functions as a unit.

CONTRADICTIONS IN THE FAMILY TEACHING. Another difficulty may arise when the young person observes that the way his own family behaves does not agree with the ideas that the parents themselves have taught. Earlier, what the parents said was taken with little or no question. For instance, some children are brought up in early life with a definite religious background; they are expected to go to Sunday school, to be confirmed, and to take communion as an essential part of a well-conducted life. But later they begin

to notice that the parents not only don't go to church but enjoy activities that the children have been taught are wrong. They also find that people who don't go to church may lead lives they can approve of, while the same may not be true of all churchgoers. Perhaps they catch their parents in lies or small deceits. Adolescents begin to see through any inconsistencies or artificial situations in the family life. They quickly recognize social snobbery, dishonesty in ideas or in money transactions, concealed friction between the parents and any false fronts that the parents have adopted. For parents who have not been honest and straightforward with their children, the years of adolescence may become a bitter struggle.

This can be especially upsetting to the child whose training in honesty has been too exacting and for whom no allowances have been made. He in turn has not then learned to make allowances for others and to develop a sense of proportion and tolerance. This does not imply that the young person approves of everything he does not openly condemn; but he is less likely to place himself in a position of a stern judge if any censure he has himself suffered has in general fitted the offence. A child made to feel guilty out of all proportion for helping himself to a sweet or to apples from a neighbour's orchard may never himself be able to see an extenuating circumstance when judging others.

INDEPENDENCE IN SIZING UP SITUATIONS AND PEOPLE. The habit of evaluating ideas and actions in terms of their worth and not only according to a convention, if begun in early adolescence, will be of untold benefit throughout life in small things as well as large. The plight of a girl who had been brought up to believe that men look down on girls who don't expect their protection and care may afford a simple example. She lived in the country, an hour's drive from town. If a young man wanted to take her to dinner and the theatre, she had been taught to feel that he would not respect her unless he escorted her home, which would mean his getting back to town very late, in spite of the fact that he had to be at his office early. Her actual observation, contrary to her past training and her mother's fears, showed her that she must either allow herself to be put on the train to make the journey home alone, with no loss of respect from the man, or else that she must give up expecting invitations.

In relation to vocation, job, type of school, and the subjects studied, a discussion of values is also of serious importance, as so often all of these are selected with little or no idea of the needs of the young person and their value to him, but according to the ideas and traditions of the family and their group.

School and Vocation

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOL LIFE. Before adolescence the child is apt to take his school for granted and the social aspects are relatively unimportant. What is taught is about the same in all schools even though the methods of teaching may be quite different. But during this period the social problems mentioned above have more meaning than before. It becomes increasingly important to most parents that the children should associate with the family's friends and feel on an equal footing with them. It becomes important to the children to go to school where their friends go. One sensitive youngster, a clergyman's daughter, went to the village school because of a limited income, while some of the parishioners' children went to a private school. She saw them at Sunday school but did not play with them on Saturdays or after school because they had their own group and because she took care of younger brothers and sisters while the others had nurses. At the same time the unspoken but clearly felt superior attitude of her family to the village children made her feel different from them and her friendship with them was not encouraged. She was naturally a gay, friendly, sociable youngster with a keen appreciation of people, but she was shut off by her family and the situation from making friends in either group. In later life her need to keep up appearances made life a burden to herself and her husband and her snobbishness continued to limit her natural inclinations.

In another case the parents lived in a fashionable suburb but believed strongly in all children going to the ordinary elementary school; but this meant that their children never went to school with the children of their parents' friends into whose lives they were supposed to fit when they grew up. All three of these children, in spite of the fact that they were sent to boarding schools in late adolescence, had a difficult adjustment to make socially. It helps if the school fits into the picture of the child's future life as far as possible or else gives opportunities for experience with all kinds of people on an easy footing.

If these children, who were sent to the elementary school, had been given a well-rounded, consistently democratic background this problem would not have arisen. That is, if the parents had associated on terms of equality with working-class families, and if the children had felt that class distinctions were really unimportant to their parents in all relationships, then their feelings of difference would never have been formed. If children fit comfortably into the group to which the parents belong, and sense from them a

truly democratic feeling, they will feel comfortable no matter in what society they find themseles.

LACK OF INTEREST IN SCHOOLWORK. An entirely different problem that may arise in relation to the school is a marked lack of interest in academic subjects when young people begin to get boy or girl crushes. It is a natural occurrence and gives an opportunity for experience which is necessary later on, if they are to show true discrimination about people. It may be trying for the parents and teachers, but it is something for the boy and girl to learn to understand and to control, and is not a matter for reproof. A certain amount of day-dreaming instead of geometry is natural.

CO-EDUCATION. This brings up the ever-recurring problem of co-education versus segregation during adolescence. Those who are in favour of segregation say that it keeps the boys' and girls' minds on their studies and prevents them from being distracted by the opposite sex. The view that co-education has the opposite effect is not, however, supported by experience.

Co-education offers an opportunity for boys and girls to see each other in the normal everyday business of life. There is therefore likely to be less unreal phantasy and day-dreaming and much more companionship and reality about their relationships. It tends to prevent overlong dependence on older persons of the same sex. But if parents prefer segregation for their children—and certainly it is often by far the easier way—they should at least see to it that the adolescents have adequate means of meeting congenial young people of the opposite sex at week-ends and during holidays. This is definitely the responsibility of the parents and should start early in an informal way, usually at about thirteen years.

CHOICE OF VOCATION. The choice of vocation is often exceedingly difficult. There are some fortunate young people who know what they want to do, the family approve, and the means are at hand to carry it out. But for a great many without a particular gift or bent or interest, it is almost inevitable that a number of things will be tried, and there is apt to be considerable bewilderment and at times discouragement.

There are obviously two questions to be answered: first, what is the young person best equipped to do by virtue of his native ability, interests, education, and financial opportunities, and secondly, taking these four factors into consideration, what occupations are there available which will utilize them to the best advantage?

The answer to these problems may not be easy to find. No outstanding ability or interest may have been shown or it may be that there is no particular gift, or there may have been no chance of

discovering it. Sometimes a thoughtful review of the adolescent's interests by an outsider is of help, because the adolescent and his family are so close to his problems and take him so much for granted that they have little perspective or imagination about the situation. Vocational tests are available and are useful if the person's background, education, means, and interests are all taken into account. Inappropriate or confusing advice is sometimes given when these latter factors are ignored, as, for example, in the case of one woman of thirty-eight, a stenographer, with a fine mind but without higher education or money, who was seriously advised on the basis of tests to study medicine. Unsuspected talents, however, are sometimes brought to light and if she had been twenty and sufficiently well-to-do it might have been an excellent choice.

This illustration shows some of the many factors that may enter into the choice of work, and how natural it is to make mistakes and try a number of possibilities if a considerable amount of thought has not been given to the question. One boy of nineteen, moderately good at writing and painting and with a long history of school difficulties both in relation to work and to people, experimented with a number of things and finally told his father, "Don't worry about me, I'm not going to become a wastrel. But I've got a lot of problems and I'm not so awfully hot at any one thing, so it will take me longer than most boys to find what I want and can do best. But give me time and I'll find my place." And he will, and it will be something that is right for him.

This sizing up of one's capacity and interest, either by oneself or with help, is the first step and the first consideration. All sorts of factors may make an honest appraisal difficult. It is no disgrace if one tries a number of things before settling down to one. It is much better to learn by experience than by persisting for the sake of proving that one can do it, if the job is uncongenial and something better seems possible. Family wishes and pressure, perhaps unconsciously applied, are sometimes important. It may be of such importance to the family to have sons in the professions, that almost unawares the boy finds himself steered into medicine or law, when he would preferred to work in a garage or on the land. Stories of such situations are commonplace to all of us. One girl of seventeen, whose great ambition was to run a farm, and who had with unusual maturity studied various sides of the problem, was balked by her father who became highly emotional at the mere mention of it. He was the son of a farm labourer, tried to forget it, and was proud of having risen to become a secondary schoolmaster.

Pressure of this type may lead to serious conflicts and behaviour problems. A highly placed civil servant had an only son of modest intellectual endowment and a real mechanical bent. He was thoroughly unhappy at the conventional private schools to which he was sent as a matter of course, barely got through or failed, was always in trouble, and was sullen at home and in the classroom. Lectures and scoldings had been his portion for years, but these, if anything, had made the situation worse. Finally when he was twenty-two years old his father was persuaded to set him up in a garage. The result was a marked improvement in his disposition, his happiness, and his success.

There is no doubt that tradition plays a large part in the choice of a job. For many, a " white collar " or a professional job is a step up, no matter how low the salary, or how dull the work as compared to an overall job. When one realizes that half of one's waking hours are spent at work, the importance of considering satisfactions other than appearance or tradition is plain.

Sometimes one may know well what one wishes to do but practical considerations stand in the way and there is nothing to do but get down to the job at hand. It may be necessary to settle down, for example, to business rather than a profession, and to make the best of it. Few experiences need be a total waste or completely unsatisfying and dull, no matter how they may seem at first. In these circumstances a hobby, perhaps one connected with one's real interests, is of the greatest help and can bring a great deal of pleasure and contentment. So much work in this machine age at best is routine or gives so little opportunity for pride in workmanship or individuality or effort, that interests which provide this outside of one's job become almost a necessity for well-being. Going to a film or a football match has its place, but the role of spectator is no satisfactory substitute for actually playing in a band, being in a team, painting a picture, no matter how amateurish, turning out a piece of carpentry, or making a garden.

These interests, if started in childhood or in adolescence, are a good insurance for a well-balanced life. As a man becomes a watcher of machines and at the mercy of economic forces, he has to find himself creative work and interests outside of his job. Even a happy family life cannot provide the particular kind of satisfaction that is given by a job which utilizes one's abilities and comes from making something that one has thought out and created oneself.

If girls have an opportunity to choose their work, their choice may be more difficult if it involves long training. There is the probability of marriage in a few years, possibly in the middle of training or just at the end. The question of maintaining a home and

bringing up children and at the same time keeping a job is far from settled, and unless it is an absolute necessity to hold a job, its wisdom for most women is still an open question. On the whole it would seem probable that professional training for a woman with real talent or ability and a live interest is not wasted, even though for some years she may drop out of professional life. The discipline and training will stand her in good stead in any field twenty or more years later when the children are grown and when both her mind and body need more activity than her home and ordinary social life give.

Although there has been so much space devoted to problems in these last two chapters, it is hoped that the impression has not been given that this business of adolescence is nothing but a grim struggle for both the parents and the adolescents. On the contrary, no period of life can offer more real pleasure. The children are growing up to adult estate, interests are becoming really similar, conversations and pleasure are more nearly at a level agreeable and stimulating to both, and a sense of companionship between equals begins to develop that goes on through life. The parents' earlier conception of their relationship to the child, with its inevitable sense of responsibility and at times anxiety, begins to change. They can gradually relax as they see their child managing his affairs and doing it with increasing adequacy, developing his own ideas and learning to carry them out, and making a start towards a life, not only of his own, but also as a fellow member of society.

APPENDIX A

ANTE-NATAL CARE

Psychological Approach

A baby's mental and physical health depends much on the feeling of serenity and sense of security that he obtains from his mother during the first few months of life. It is, therefore, important that everything connected with the ante-natal care of the mother and the practical details of her confinement should help towards this end. Only of recent years, however, has attention been paid to the necessity of the right psychological approach to childbirth. The most important book on this subject is *Revelation of Childbirth* by Dr. G. Dick Read (Heinemann, 21*s*.). This deals with the need for relaxation both mental and physical before and during confinement, and shows how it can be achieved. Childbirth may be a strenuous and even uncomfortable affair, but, according to Dr. Read, should not be unduly painful if approached in the right manner.

Training for Childbirth, by Minnie Randell (Churchill, 10*s*. 6*d*.), deals almost exclusively with the physical preparation for confinement. The author is a nurse, midwife and masseuse of many years' experience, and the exercises explained in this book are profusely illustrated, so they are easy to follow.

Both these books give the histories of many cases, and a mother approaching her first confinement cannot fail to obtain great comfort from the experiences of other mothers which are related. Fear of the unknown is a big psychological factor in a first confinement, and it is not enough to offer vague comforting assurances that all will be well, as any woman with imagination and intelligence wants to have a much more definite description of what she is likely to encounter, and how she can best prepare herself for it.

Practical Matters

Practical advice on such matters as accommodation in Maternity Hospitals and the necessary clothes and equipment to provide for the infant is another factor in ensuring a calm approach to the birth.

1. Accommodation

(*a*) HOSPITALS. From the medical point of view, it is generally advisable to have a first baby in a Maternity Hospital or the

Maternity Ward of a General Hospital. This ensures that the latest scientific apparatus will be available and first-class nursing and medical attention will be on hand all the time. Private beds can usually be obtained at a cost varying from 7 guineas to 15 guineas a week. If this is beyond the mother's means, excellent accommodation is usually to be found in the public wards, and women of all classes avail themselves of this. The main difference between a private ward and a public ward is that in the former visiting is permitted at almost any hour of the day, whereas in the latter it is confined to the evening and is for husbands only. Application for a bed in either a private or public ward in a hospital should be made in the first place to the Lady Almoner, with the support of a doctor's letter, unless the doctor himself can arrange entry.

(*b*) NURSING HOMES. A really well run Nursing Home, where Matron has wide experience and a flair for her work, can provide very suitable accommodation for a first confinement. All nursing homes, however, are by no means well run, and the staffing frequently leaves very much to be desired, both as regards quantity and quality. A list of Maternity nursing homes can be obtained from the Medical Officer of Health at the Public Health Department.

(*c*) HOME CONFINEMENT WITH RESIDENT NURSE. If domestic circumstances make it possible, a home confinement can be the most comfortable and attractive of all. A resident Maternity nurse should be in attendance for three or four weeks, while for the confinement a general practitioner with a wide experience in midwifery should also be engaged. With a home confinement baby's routine can be inaugurated straight away instead of being subject to hospital hours, which are often so different to those which obtain in the home. The main disadvantage of a home confinement is the difficulty of obtaining reliable domestic help to run the house in place of the mother. Where there are other children, moreover, it is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain the necessary peaceful atmosphere. Private Maternity nurses charge from 3 guineas to 5 guineas a week, plus board and lodging; their washing is also the responsibility of their employer and can be a considerable item. Their duties include making invalid foods, attending to the mother and baby, dusting, but not sweeping, the mother's room. When choosing a Maternity nurse, it is of the utmost importance to have one who is not only skilled in her job, but is a pleasant companion, as a nurse whose personality is uncongenial to her patient may have a very adverse effect on the flow of milk. It is also important to have one who will not make difficulties with the domestic help

and who will have sensible ideas about the necessity for the encouragement of breast feeding. A private Maternity nurse can generally be engaged either from a private staff of a hospital or from a local Nurses' Co-operative.

(*d*) HOME CONFINEMENT WITH NON-RESIDENT MIDWIFE. This is an inexpensive method of confinement and thousands of babies are born by this means. A non-resident midwife (a list of these can be obtained from the Medical Officer of Health) can be booked to attend at the confinement and to visit the mother morning and afternoon for the first day or two afterwards, and once a day for the following fortnight. There are midwives in private practice and others who are engaged and paid by the Queen's Institute of District Nurses. The fees charged for a confinement vary from 30*s.* to 3 guineas, but in the case of Queen's Nurses can be reduced if the mother is unable to pay the full sum. As the nurse only visits once or twice a day, it is necessary to have a resident relation or a friend or home-help who will look after the mother and baby when nurse is not there.

2. Layette and Equipment

Information about the necessary clothing and equipment for an infant can be obtained from the National Association of Maternity and Child Welfare Centres, 117, Piccadilly, London, W.1. The work of this Association was originally intended mainly for the instruction of working-class mothers. The staff, however, are always very helpful to anyone who seeks information. The list of clothes they provide is practical, and they can give much information about equipment.

3. Books

It is advisable to have a selection of Mothercraft books for reference rather than to trust to only one. Most authors are particularly helpful on one aspect of child rearing, and by collecting a small library one is able to obtain expert assistance from each author on his or her own subject.

GENERAL. *The Care of Young Babies*, by John Gibbens (Churchill, 3*s.* 6*d.*).

This book gives a general outline of the care of the mother before and after pregnancy. It is, however, mainly concerned with the care of the child after birth, and deals with such subjects as breast feeding and artificial feeding, clothes, exercises and routine. It is a very good general guide, and although pre-war and, therefore, of little value when considering present-day diets,

the general advice is just as sound now as when it was first written.

The Single-Handed Mother, by Lindsay Batten (Allen & Unwin, 5*s*.).

This is written by a general practitioner who regards the baby from the angle of the family doctor. It is concerned to show how mother, without domestic help, can manage her own child and on what lines she should feed it. This book is an admirable addition to any Mothercraft library, but it does not deal with a sufficiently wide number of subjects to form a complete guide to Mothercraft.

FEEDING. *Infant Feeding*, by Alan Moncrieff (Arnold, 1*s*. 6*d*.).
Modern Methods of Feeding in Infancy and Childhood, by Donald Paterson and J. Forest-Smith (Constable, 7*s*. 6*d*.).
Mothercraft Manual, by Mabel Liddiard (Churchill, 3*s*. 6*d*.)

These three books deal in considerable detail with methods of breast feeding and artificial feeding. The first two follow broadly the same line, but Miss Liddiard's *Mothercraft Manual* demonstrates the feeding methods laid down by Dr. Truby King some years ago, and which are not now universally accepted, though many hundreds of babies have been satisfactorily fed on the lines here indicated.

Clinical Studies in Lactation, by Harold Waller, M.B., B.Ch. (Heinemann, 7*s*. 6*d*.).

Although this book is primarily meant for doctors and midwives interested in the causes of failure of lactation, it is written in such simple non-technical language that many mothers might profit by its teaching. Dr. Waller, who has had a wide clinical experience among nursing mothers, takes the view that the failure to suckle is more often due to inability to withdraw the milk than to lack of milk secretion. He illustrates his thesis with many examples and throws much new light on to the vexed question of breast feeding.

The Nursing Couple, by Merrell P. Middlemore, M.D. (Hamish Hamilton, 7*s*. 6*d*.).

This is also a most valuable and helpful book dealing with the mutual adaptation of mother and breast-fed baby, more from the psychological point of view, but with much practical advice on feeding and early training. The author favours a less rigid discipline in these matters, and there is no doubt that her theories, based on long and careful observation, demonstrate clearly that both mother and child should derive a deep pleasure from suckling.

APPENDIX B

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS CONCERNED WITH PARENTS AND CHILDREN

1. Ministry of Health

The Ministry of Health is concerned with the care of expectant mothers and children up to the age of five. The Department works mainly through Local Government Authorities who are responsible for Maternity and Child Welfare in their own areas. Contact with the Local Authority is made through the Public Health Department which is generally situated either at the Town Hall (in the case of cities and boroughs) or at the County Hall (in the case of rural areas). The local Health Visitor who is, in certain rural areas, also the local midwife, affords personal contact. Where the Public Health Department is situated in some distant county town, the best way to contact the Health Visitor is at the local Infant Welfare Clinic. Information as to the place of the clinic and the time of session should be found in the Post Office. All questions relating to special milk permits, the distribution of vitamin concentrates and layette coupons come within the province of this Department.

2. Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education functions through the local authority in the person of the Director of Education for the area. Contact can be made at the Education Offices, usually housed in the Town Hall or County Hall. Some Directors of Education take a wider view of their duties than others, but it is becoming increasingly common for such an official to be willing and anxious to discuss any educational matter with parents who are interested. It does not matter whether the parent is willing and able to pay for his child's education or whether he needs to avail himself of free educational facilities, the wide knowledge and experience of the Director of Education is at his service.

3. Ministry of Labour

The Ministry of Labour is concerned with children after leaving school and until they reach the age of eighteen. It functions either through the Juvenile Employment Department of the local Employment Exchange or through the Juvenile Employment Bureau of the local Education Committee. Various training schemes for both boys and girls are available and information can be given on the

subject. The first point of contact is the local Employment Exchange, where information can be sought as to the location of the Juvenile Employment Bureau, if the latter is dealing with juveniles in the area.

4. Ministry of Food

Contact with the Ministry of Food is made at the local Food Advice Bureau and Food Offices. Special leaflets giving sample diets for children of all ages are available here, and advice regarding the purchase and cooking of food is usually obtainable. On production of a medical certificate (also to be obtained from a certified midwife) the expectant mother is issued with a special green ration book and extra clothing coupons. A ration book for the child, when born, is issued on production of an Identity Card, supplied by the National Registration Officer.

5. Home Office

The Home Office is concerned with the protection of children under sixteen against cruelty or neglect; the employment of children before they reach school-leaving age, or, in various occupations, the age of eighteen; delinquent children under seventeen; voluntary homes for children under seventeen, unless inspected as a whole by another department; and adoption of children. The following is an outline of the main provisions of the Adoption Acts.

The law provides for the making of adoption orders transferring all parental rights and duties to the adopters. An adoption order does not however affect the law of succession, and the word "children," if used in a will, does not—unless the contrary intention appears—include an adopted child.

It is for the adopters to apply for an adoption order and the applications are heard in private in the juvenile courts. An order cannot be made without the consent of the child's parents or guardians, unless they have deserted the child or cannot be found or are out of their proper senses or otherwise incapable of giving consent. The court must also be satisfied that the order will be for the welfare of the child.

No body of persons other than a local authority or registered adoption society may make arrangements for the adoption of a child, and an individual participating as a third party in arrangements for the adoption of a child under nine by a person, who is not a near relative of the child, must give notice to the Welfare Authority, and provisions will apply similar to those which apply where the maintenance of a child is undertaken for reward.

Except with the sanction of the court to which application for an adoption order is made, no payment may be made in consideration of an adoption or in connection with arrangements for adoption, other than payments in respect of maintenance made by a registered adoption society or to such a society before the child is entrusted to an adopter.

The Act also prohibits the publication of advertisements offering a child for adoption; or offering to adopt a child; or offering to make arrangements for the adoption of a child, unless in the last case the advertisement is inserted by a registered adoption society or a local authority.

An adoption order can only be made in favour of adopters resident and domiciled in Great Britain and in respect of a child who is a British subject and resident in Great Britain; and restrictions are imposed on sending children for adoption abroad.

APPENDIX C

VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS CONCERNED WITH PARENTS AND CHILDREN

Ante-Natal

(1) FAMILY PLANNING ASSOCIATION, 69, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.

This Association is primarily concerned with providing birth control clinics and gives relevant information and advice on contraceptive methods, but emphasis is given to the proper spacing of births rather than their prevention. Examination for and treatment of infertility (male and female) can be undertaken at some of these clinics, and plans for the development of this vital work are in being.

(2) NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE CENTRES, 117, Piccadilly, London, W.1.

The Association has for its aims and objects the promotion of maternal and child welfare, and the study and prevention of infant mortality. It is particularly interested in instruction in the care of children and mothercraft. It aims at bringing into close relation by means of affiliation, organisations and institutions engaged or interested in maternity or child welfare, and to collect literature, statistics and reports bearing on these and kindred subjects. It is always willing to give information on the subject, and to help whenever possible. Lists of the books and pamphlets published by the National Association of Maternity and Child Welfare Centres may be obtained on application.

(3) EUGENICS SOCIETY, 69, Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.

This Society was founded to study all aspects of human heredity and differential fertility. It publishes a quarterly review, price 3*s.*, as well as many pamphlets, particulars of which the Society is always willing to supply.

Toddlers

(1) NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION OF GREAT BRITAIN, 1, Park Crescent, Portland Place, W.1.

The primary object of this Association is to form a strong body of public opinion in favour of nursery schools, with a view to securing action in providing these in considerably larger numbers than has been possible up to the present. The 1944 Education Act

visualizes the incorporation of nursery schools into the normal educational structure, and this Association may not therefore be of such urgent importance now as it has been in the past. In the interim period, however, before nursery schools are widely available, it will continue to perform a very useful function, and parents requiring information on this subject would do well to consult it. Pamphlets are issued from time to time, particulars of which can be supplied on application.

Older Children

(1) BOY SCOUTS ASSOCIATION, 25, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
(2) GIRL GUIDES ASSOCIATION, 17, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
(3) NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF BOYS' CLUBS, 17 Bedford Square, W.C.1.
(4) NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF GIRLS' CLUBS, Hamilton House, Bidborough Street, London, W.C.1.
(5) YOUTH HOSTELS ASSOCIATION, 16 Meadow Green, Welwyn Garden City, Herts, and 8, Colinton Road, Edinburgh 10.

Food

(1) FOOD EDUCATION SOCIETY, Gordon House, 29, Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.

This Society was founded to instruct public opinion in the right choice of food, and its pamphlets are a useful addition to those published by the Ministry of Food.

Nursing

(1) QUEEN'S INSTITUTE OF DISTRICT NURSES, 57, Lower Belgrave Street, London, S.W.1.

The system of visiting-nurses has increased considerably over the last few years. Few people can afford either to house or to pay a resident Sick Nurse when they are ill, and it is, therefore, important to know where to contact the local District Nurse who will visit once or twice daily to give the necessary treatment ordered by the doctor. Information as to where to find the local nurse can be obtained from the above address, and a small annual subscription will make the nurse's services available at any time.

Psychology, Mental Health and Health Education

(1) CHILD GUIDANCE COUNCIL.
(2) NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR MENTAL HYGIENE.

(3) INSTITUTE OF CHILD PSYCHOLOGY, 6, Pembridge Villas, W.11.

(1) and (2) are now incorporated in the PROVISIONAL NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR MENTAL HEALTH, 39, Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

Information regarding psychological treatment of children can be obtained either from the Child Guidance Council or the National Council for Mental Hygiene. The Institute of Child Psychology deals with the diagnosis of psychological trouble in children through play therapy.

(4) CENTRAL COUNCIL FOR HEALTH EDUCATION, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

The officially recognized body in the field of health education. Leaflets, pamphlets, posters, films, lecturers, and expert advice can be provided on all aspects of health education.

(5) BRITISH SOCIAL HYGIENE COUNCIL, Tavistock House North, Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

Works to preserve and strengthen the family as the basic social unit, and endeavours by literature, conferences, and meetings to enlighten the public on the significance and dangers of our present population trends. By the application of biological knowledge it seeks to improve both the quality and quantity of family life.

(6) MARRIAGE GUIDANCE COUNCIL, 78, Duke Street, W.1.
(Presidents: Lord Horder and the Bishop of London.)

Aim—to promote successful marriage and parenthood. Has branches throughout the country. Work falls into two sections: (1) Education for marriage and family life—through lectures, literature, etc.; (2) Personal help in marriage difficulties—through marriage guidance centres and panels.

(7) COUNCIL OF SEVEN BELIEFS (FOR THE GUARDIANSHIP OF FAMILY LIFE), 34 Sussex Place, W.2.

Urges reforms, such as the improved status of mothers and the education of girls in homecraft, by means of publicity of various kinds.

(8) THE FELLOWSHIP OF MARRIAGE (MOTHERS' UNION), Mary Sumner House, Tufton Street, S.W.1.

This is a branch of the Mothers' Union intended for young married women interested in the strengthening of family life and bringing up their children in the Christian Faith.

APPENDIX D

TOYS AND NURSERY EQUIPMENT

Out of Door Play

Even where there is only a small garden plenty of amusement can be obtained for children out-of-doors if the right equipment is procured.

SAND PLAY. This can conveniently be provided by filling a galvanized tin tray with sand, which can be procured, as a rule, from the local builder. The tray may be roughly 3 ft. by 4 ft. and 10 in. deep. Where there is a verandah attached to the sitting-room or nursery the tray should be placed here in order that the child may use it in wet weather as well as fine. A tarpaulin cover should be kept over it to guard against animal dirt.

EXERCISES. A climbing frame such as the one illustrated in *The Nursery Years* (see below) affords endless amusement to a child, teaches him balance and exercises all the muscles of the body. If an apparatus of a less elaborate type is required, the local carpenter can put up a small horizontal bar and parallel bars. These should be planted straight into the grass to ensure soft falling.

A see-saw can also be made by the carpenter and should, like the bars, be planted firmly in the ground.

IMAGINATION PLAY. A small tent of the Boy Scout type is a great source of pleasure to most children, and this can be obtained from the Boy Scouts' Association, 25, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1, or can be made simply with a piece of canvas and four poles.

The following books deal with equipment for Nursery Schools :

(1) *The Nursery School*, by Margaret MacMillan (Dent, 3*s*. 6*d*.).
(2) *The Open Air Nursery School*, by P. Stevenson (Dent, 2*s*. 6*d*.).

A visit to the local Nursery School is always helpful as a means of furnishing fresh ideas.

Toys and apparatus are also dealt with, among other subjects, in *The Nursery Years*, by Susan Isaacs, M.A., D.Sc. (Routledge, 2*s*.).

In-Door Play

It is always advisable to have one room which can be used as a play room where the floor covering is of linoleum, the furniture is plain and sturdy and there are no ornaments to break. When no room can be spared in the house it is worth while to consider the

purchase of a small prefabricated hut (of which there should be plenty available after the war) which can be placed in the garden.

Exercise

(1) *Posture and Exercises for Young Children*, by Dr. John Gibbens (N.A.M.C.W.C., 117, Piccadilly, London, 1*s.* 3*d.*), describes and illustrates games and exercises suitable for children from one to five years.

(2) Rocking boats and toys to push can be made from instructions given in *Making Nursery Toys*, by Nancy Cutford (F. Muller Ltd., 29, Great James Street, London, W.C.1., 3*s.* 6*d.*).

Toys

(1) Paul and Marjorie Abbatt, Wigmore Street, London, W.1, make a speciality of educational toys.

(2) A wider range of a more conventional type of toy is to be found at Hamleys Ltd., Regent Street, London, S.W.1.

(3) Model engines, aeroplanes, etc., made to scale, can be obtained from Messrs. Bassett-Lowke, 112, High Holborn, W.C.1.

Books for Parents

(1) *Playtime in the First Five Years*, by Hilary Page (Watson & Crossland, 5*s.*).

An interesting discussion of the reason why some toys are more suitable than others at different ages.

(2) *The Natural Development of the Child*, by Agatha Bowley (Livingstone, 8*s.* 6*d.*).

(3) *Organized Play in the Infant and Nursery School*, by B. M. Holmes and M. G. Davies (Univ. of London Press, 6*s.*).

(4) *Floor Games*, by H. G. Wells (Frank Palmer). *Out of print.*

(5) *Play and Toys in the Nursery Years*, by Beatrix Tudor-Hart (Routledge, 3*s.* 6*d.*).

(6) *How a Baby is Born*, by K. de Schweinitz (Routledge, 3*s.*).

A useful book for parents to read with a view to answering questions on this subject when the children are young. It can be given to a child to read for him- or herself when between ten and twelve years old.

(7) *Sex Education: A Guide for Parents, Teachers and Youth Leaders*, by Cyril Bibby (Macmillan, 7*s.* 6*d.*).

The most thorough, comprehensive and practical book on the subject, by an author of wide experience.

APPENDIX E

SOME OTHER USEFUL ADDRESSES

Adoption Society, Church House, 46, Bloomsbury Square, W.C.1.

National Adoption Society, 4, Baker Street, W.1.

National Children Adoption Association (Inc.), 71, Knightsbridge, S.W.1.

After-Care Association for Physically Defective Children, 2, Old Queen Street, S.W.1.

Central Bureau of Hospital Information, 12, Grosvenor Crescent, S.W.1.

Child Study Society, 1, Gordon Square, W.C.1.

Children's Aid Society, 55, Leigham Court Road, S.W.16.

Royal Association in Aid of the Deaf and Dumb, 413, Oxford Street, W.1.

Foundling Hospital Schools, 40 Brunswick Square, W.C.1.

Home Nursing Scheme, 174, Sloane Street, S.W.1.

Home and School Council of Great Britain, Marrington Hall, Chirbury, nr. Montgomery.

Homeless Children's Aid and Adoption Society, 162, High Road, Wood Green, N.22.

Invalid Children's Aid Association, 117, Piccadilly, W.1.

King George's Jubilee Trust, St. James's Palace, S.W.1.

Legal Aid Society (for Working People), 1, Berington Street, S.E.16.

National Baby Welfare Council, 29, Gordon Square, W.C.1.

National Book League, 7, Albemarle Street, W.1.

National Froebel Foundation, 2, Manchester Square, W.1.

National Society of Day Nurseries, 117, Piccadilly, W.1.

National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, Victory House, Leicester Square, W.C.2.

New Education Fellowship, 50, Gloucester Place, W.1.

Nursery School Association, 1, Park Crescent, W.1.

People's League of Health (Inc.), 10, Stratford Place, Oxford Street, W.1.

Parents' National Educational Union (P.N.E.U.), 171, Victoria Street, S.W.1.

Scottish Council for Health Education, 242, West George Street, Glasgow, C.2, and 3, Castle Street, Edinburgh.

Sex Education Society, 43, Upper Brook Street, W.1.

Tavistock Clinic, 2, Beaumont Street, W.1.

Women's League of Service for Motherhood, Shuttleworth Road, S.W.11.

Young Men's Christian Association (National Council), 112 Great Russell Street, W.C.1.

Young Women's Christian Association, Central Building, Great Russell Street, W.C.1.

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