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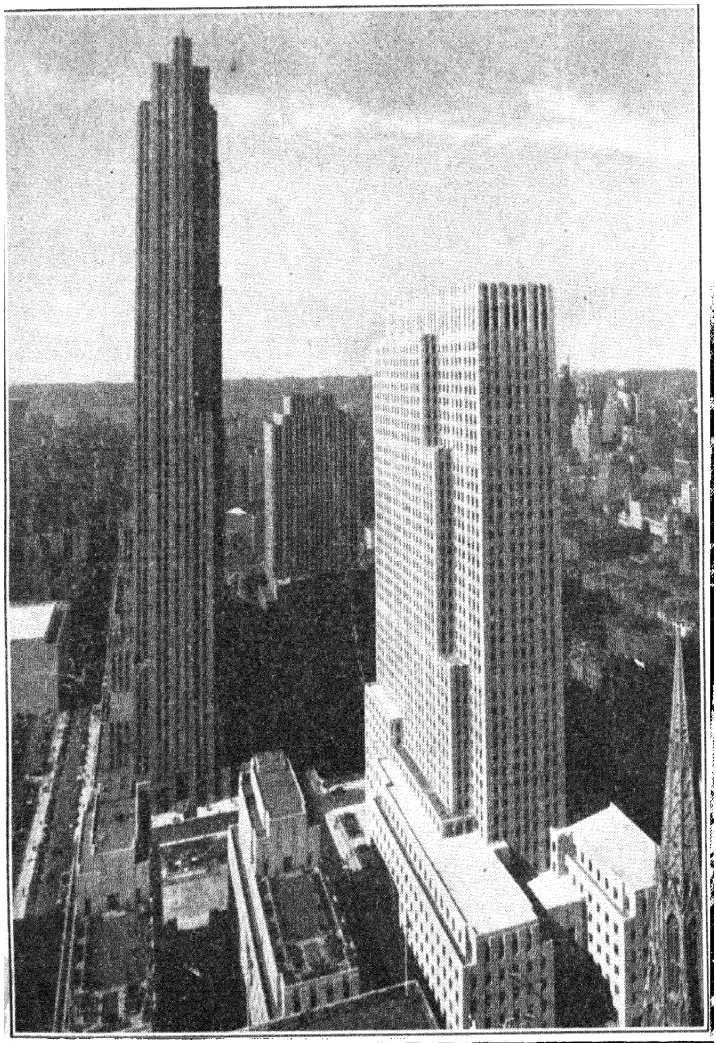

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Our first city, with its millions of people of almost every nationality and economic status, is one of the most complex social environments in the world.

SCHOOL SOCIOLOGY

BY

WILLIAM E. COLE, B.S.A., M.S., PH.D.

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AND

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TEACHER OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES
KNOXVILLE HIGH SCHOOL

1951

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DEDICATED TO

MR. AND MRS. WILLIAM S. COLE

AND

MR. AND MRS. J. H. MONTGOMERY

FROM WHOM THE AUTHORS FIRST LEARNED
EFFECTIVE PRINCIPLES OF SOCIAL JUSTICE

FOREWORD

The last two decades have witnessed the development of the social studies into a science of human relations which has attracted the attention of all levels of education. Sociology is the youngest of the social studies to make its contribution to the improvement of human life and the conditions under which people live.

Sociology, as it is now taught, has been criticized for overemphasis of the abnormal aspects of the social order and underemphasis of normal social relations in these courses. Society has both normal and abnormal aspects, and a correct approach to the study of sociology emphasizes both.

This book is specifically designed to introduce the student to the science and art of human relations, to build upon the knowledge he has acquired in civics and history, and to aid him in gaining concrete and definite knowledge of social problems and scientific ways of studying them.

These problems cannot be successfully treated apart from history, civics, economics, biology, and psychology. Consequently, wherever possible, an attempt has been made to correlate the treatment of social problems with the subject matter of these other fields.

This book attempts to aid the pupil in acquiring knowledge of (1) the development of society, (2) how society is constructed, (3) what is going on in society, (4) what the major problems of the social order are, and (5) what seem the most satisfactory solutions of these problems, to the end that he may be a more effective and efficient citizen. To the industrious and ambitious pupil, sociology has much to offer toward aiding him in attaining an effective education.

During the last decade over which the first and second editions of this book have been in use many suggestions have been received from pupils and classroom teachers using the book. These suggestions have been carefully considered in previous revisions and in the present, or third, revision. The revisions have taken the form of new chapters, new sections, new and revised data, teaching suggestions, and bibliography, all of which add to the usefulness of the book.

WILLIAM E. COLE
CHARLES S. MONTGOMERY

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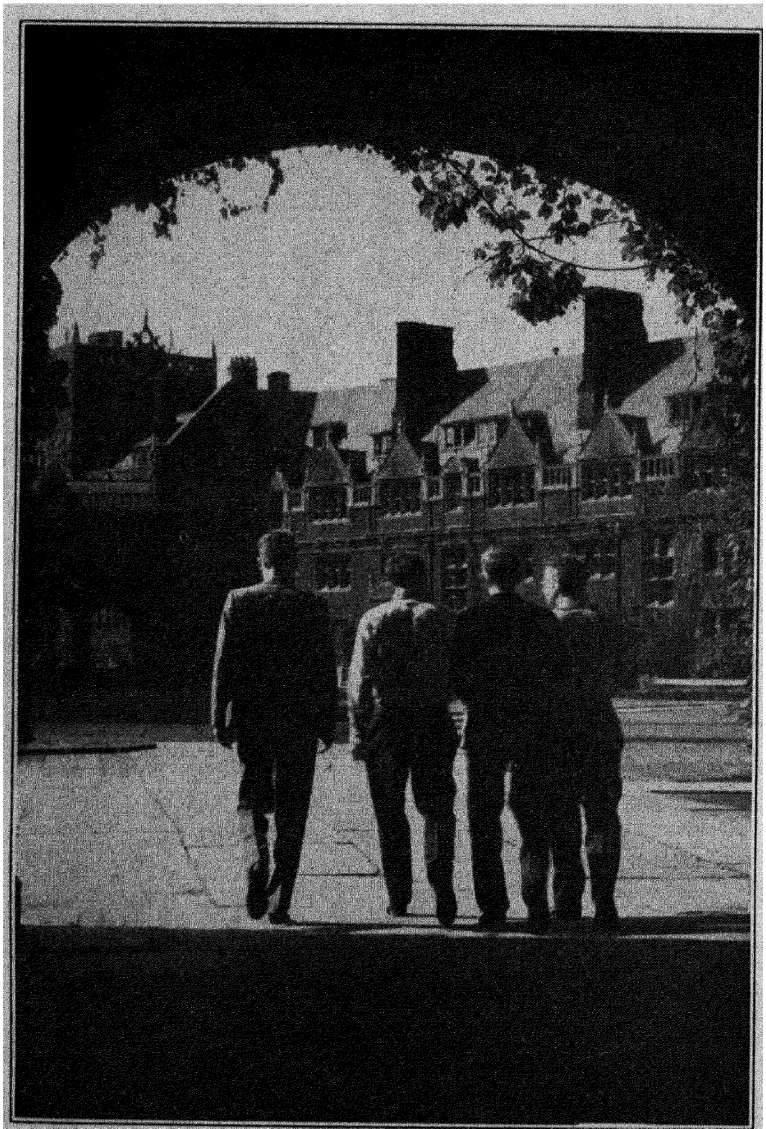
SCHOOL SOCIOLOGY



The foundation of every state is the education of its youth.

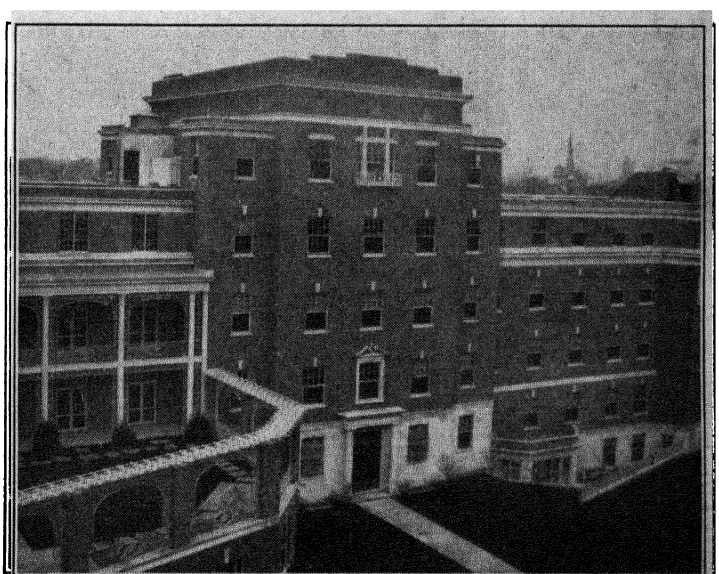
— DIOGENES

SCHOOL SOCIOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN A CENTURY OF CHANGE

Appreciation and Adjustment Necessary. — A major function of the social studies is to enable us to better appreciate our developing social institutions and to guide us in making individual and social adjustments to meet changing needs.



Courtesy Institute of Human Relations

THE INSTITUTE OF HUMAN RELATIONS, YALE UNIVERSITY

Sociology treats of human relations. This building in New Haven, Connecticut, is the home of one of the more important institutions devoted to research and instruction in this field.

In spite of the fact that social studies research has not been as liberally subsidized as has research in the biological and physical sciences, intensive study has increasingly given objectivity and verification to them. Work in the social studies has, in turn, been motivated by the tremendous social, economic, and political problems growing out of World War I, the depression from 1932 to 1938, and World War II in practically every community in every land.

After war we stress peace, and after epidemics health and preventive medicine. Following unemployment, relief, crime, atomic bombing, nationalism, and international unrest, we turn to the social sciences for guidance out of some of the difficult situations which haunt our security of mind.

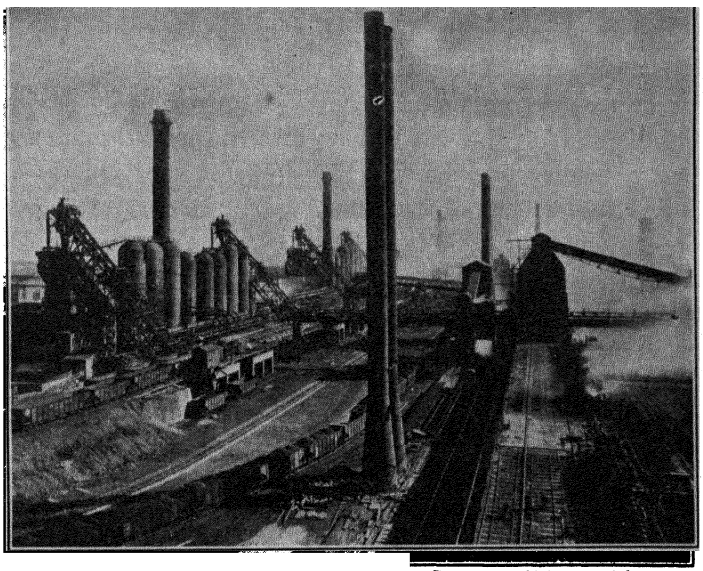
Today the social sciences make very effective contributions to general secondary education. The content and the activities involved in mastering this content contribute to worthy home membership, to the worthy use of leisure time, to the fundamentals of reading, writing, and mathematics, to proper social and individual conduct, to vocational guidance, and to effective citizenship. The importance of the social sciences in the everyday affairs of life makes it imperative that every pupil have the privilege of pursuing one or more of them throughout his school career.

We must never underrate the importance of the material advancement which has contributed so much to our comfort and well-being, but America's and the world's primary need today is not material advancement; it is rather the need for the application of the best thought and practices which are found today in the social sciences.

The difficulties involved in understanding the social order and its problems have never been more complicated than they are today. Never before has the necessity for understanding and action been more vital. The American public, as never before,

is looking to the schools and to the social and natural sciences to furnish leaders and guidance for both present and future eras.

(With what types of subject matter, then, do the social sciences deal? With what fields of thought, in the social sciences, will the intelligent citizen need to be acquainted in order that he may be an effective citizen? Point out aspects of American life in which you believe there is need for the application of the social sciences.)



Courtesy Bethlehem Steel Company

BLAST FURNACES AT SPARROWS POINT, MARYLAND

Steel has made one of the greatest contributions to our material advancement.

Social Science Content.— It is hard to find a more concrete statement of what the social sciences are than that prepared by Bining and Bining. They say:

All organized knowledge and thought may be divided into two large fields: (1) the natural sciences, and (2) the social sciences. The former include the physical sciences that deal with the phenomena of the universe, such as physics, chemistry, geology and astronomy; and the biological sciences, such as biology, zoology and botany. The social sciences, on the

other hand, are those which relate to the origin, organization and development of human society and to the improvement of the social, economic, political, and cultural conditions under which man lives. They treat all the activities, achievements, and attainments of mankind and are as extensive as the scope of human interests and associations.[1]

Let us now examine some of the more important social sciences.

1. *History.* — The oldest of the social sciences is history, which dates back to the time when myths or traditions were passed on by word of mouth, or to the time when crude attempts were made to record tribal activities and customs by drawings on the walls of the caves in which primitive man lived. Broadly, history may be thought of as the study of the rise, progress, and decline of the human race. History attempts to be a systematic recording of past events. Many historians are not content simply to record past events, but attempt to explain why certain events occurred; therefore, interpretation becomes an important part of the study of history.

To understand the present, it is often necessary to understand the past. A perspective of the past often enables us to see present-day social problems in a clearer perspective than if we lacked this knowledge. Historical perspective contributes to balanced social judgment, while the social aspects of history constitute good sociology.

(What values are to be derived from the study of history? As a class project, collect some of the more important historical incidents of your community which might be studied in local schools. What is meant by Social History?)

2. *Geography.* — At one time geography was thought of largely as a study of the physical features of the earth. Modern geography, however, goes one step further and tries to relate these characteristics, features, and influences to human activity

[1] Bining, Arthur C., and Bining, David H., *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1935, p. 1.

and human relations. Sometimes the field is divided into two large divisions — human geography and physical geography. For this reason there is always some debate as to whether geography is a physical or a social science. It is both. The emphasis of the subject matter may be either, with most secondary schools stressing the human aspects of the subject. It is best to study history and any of the other social sciences in connection with geography.

(What values are to be derived from the study of geography? Collect all of the materials you can on the geography of the South American countries. Use these in your various studies of these countries, our southern neighbors. What constitutes the field of commercial geography? Of physical geography?)

3. *Economics.* — Economics is a social study which has to do with the wealth-getting and wealth-spending activities of man. The business of earning a living has always been of primary concern to man. Later commerce constituted the first major historical enterprise of our modern economic system, and after this, manufacturing developed.

Commerce helped to tear down the control of the economic world by feudal lords, and to establish a better understanding among world peoples. Manufacturing rapidly followed commerce, but for a long time it was confined largely to the manufacture of textiles. The enormous developments of modern times have produced many economic problems. The study of these problems, as related to wealth-getting and wealth-spending, is the concern of economics. It should be taught with sociology, since the two are very closely related. To teach the pupil to be economically a good citizen, to manage his own economic affairs, and to understand his economic system is a major purpose of high school economics.

(What values are to be derived from the study of economics? Why is the study of homemaking often called home economics?)

4. *Civics.* — Courses in civics were taught in American schools before the Civil War. The emphasis has been changed from a course which was strongly history or government to one which is now strongly social and which stresses the value of the local community as a training ground in citizenship.

Civics is now more of a study of the science and art of living together. It deals with the problems which arise from living together, and particularly with the rôles played by institutions and agencies in solving these problems. It aims to train the pupil in civic relationships and to help him acquire an accurate conception of his relation to the group and to the problems of the group. The tendency of this subject to cut across several of the social sciences makes it a valuable orientation course in social science.

Courses somewhat akin to civics, but which deal largely with economic, social, and political problems are now offered in secondary schools. These courses are often called "Problems of Democracy," "Problems of American Democracy," "American Problems," and the like.

(What does the term "civics" denote? Why is such a course important? How does it differ from sociology? From "problems of democracy"?)

5. *Political Science.* — The older civics, that is, the civics introduced into the United States prior to the Civil War, was essentially political science. Following the Civil War, secondary schools began to offer courses in political science which were in the nature of courses in comparative government.[1] The purpose of such courses was to serve as background for the study of the federal constitution and the constitutions of the various states.

[1] Bining, Arthur C., and Bining, David H., *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1935, p. 17.

In the last forty years there has been a steady decline in political science courses in secondary schools, and the subject matter formerly included in such courses was offered in civics and sometimes in courses in state history and "Problems of Democracy." Political Science has gained ground in the colleges and universities until it is now not only a standard field of study but one of the most valuable offerings. The courses range from studies dealing with international relations to studies of local government. The aim of Political Science in college is to produce students who will apply the information they receive in the classroom to the management of the unit of government in which they eventually locate.

(What has led to the establishment of courses in Political Science? What value would you attach to such courses?)

6. *Sociology.* — The term "sociology" dates back to a French social philosopher, Auguste Comte, who first used the term in 1838. Comte conceived of the subject as a study or science of the total associated life of humanity. Following Comte, many notable contributions were made to the field by Herbert Spencer of England, William G. Sumner of Yale University, Franklin Giddings of Columbia University, and by Albion W. Small, Charles Horton Cooley, A. E. Ross, and other early American sociologists.

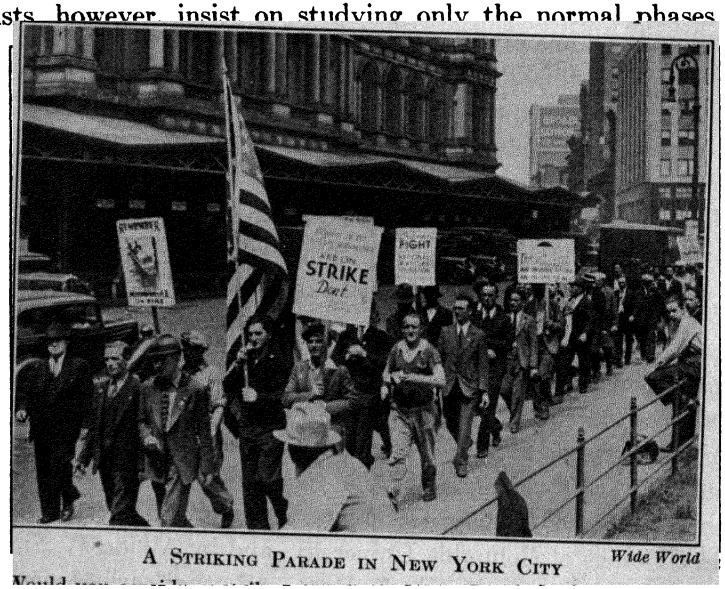
Bining and Bining point out that the first college course in sociology was offered at Yale University in 1876 and that a few secondary schools were offering courses in sociology as early as 1900.[1] The work, however, in sociology did not greatly expand in secondary schools until after the first World War, or about 1918.

As treated in this book, *sociology is a study of the rise, functions, activities, and products of groups and group action.* It also

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 23.

includes the study of the problems growing out of group relationships. These we call *social problems.*

Every problem which grows out of group relationships, and which influences society either positively or negatively, is considered as belonging to the study of sociology. Some sociologists, however, insist on studying only the normal phases of



A STRIKING PARADE IN NEW YORK CITY *Wide World*

Would you consider a strike a normal or an abnormal phase of society?

society, while others prefer to study only social problems. Obviously, society has both normal and abnormal aspects, and a realistic approach to the study of sociology stresses both.

(Discuss in class some of the definitions of sociology. As a class discussion, list some of the normal activities of life in your community and also any existing social problems. Why do we say that crime is a social problem? That is, on what basis do we define social problems?)

Sociology a Study of Both the Normal and Abnormal. As we consider the content of the book and discuss its topics and problems, we shall become vividly aware of how our social life is

composed of the normal, on the one hand, and the abnormal on the other. There is a small criminal population within the greater noncriminal population. Alongside happy homes are disorganized homes. The employed and the unemployed rub elbows on the same street corner, at the cross-roads store, and in the market place. In industry, business, and the schoolroom there are the efficient and the inefficient. Normality and abnormality are to be found everywhere within our social order. Sometimes they appear as strange bed-fellows, and again they march side by side or exist close together in apparent harmony. Such is the adaptability of human beings.

The Essential Unity of All Knowledge. — There is an essential unity to all knowledge. The area of one field of study gradually merges into that of another. Common language ties and symbols of expression, which recognize no knowledge or subject-matter boundary lines, tend to further this unity.

The division of the social sciences and the natural sciences into subject matter fields is partially the outgrowth of the great increase of knowledge in each of these fields and partially the outcome of the need for dividing these sciences into subject matter fields so that subject matter materials may be conveniently handled. When once a subject matter field is developed, it tends to become rigid and segregated from other fields.

The good student should recognize, then, that civics embraces much of political science, sociology, and economics; that history covers many subjects; and that sociology touches on politics, economics, history, and geography. The field is less important than the knowledge and how we may apply it. However, a sense of relationship between the social and natural sciences and a recognition of the essential unity of all knowledge is important.

With this brief review of some of the more important social sciences, we shall turn to a study of some of the beginnings of man's social life.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Why is there a need for the study of the social sciences in your community?

2. How do you account for the fact that physical planning tends to progress faster than social planning?

3. If you were making a scientific study of recreational needs in your community, how would you go about it?

4. If there is an outstanding social problem or condition in your community, which you would like to study, why not set up a committee composed of different individuals to make a co-operative study of the problem, to make recommendations for improving the situation and to start an action program to this end?

5. What is the social value of English, biology, history, mathematics, and foreign languages?

VOCABULARY STUDY

sociology	problem	planning
abnormal	integration	progress
pathological	scientific	community

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PART I

HOW SOCIETY IS CONSTRUCTED

CHAPTER I

MAN'S CULTURAL PROGRESS

A Glance Backward. — The Atomic Age and the Age of the Airplane are upon us. Their development has been very slow. To understand the significance of this age of the atom, electronics, supersonic speeds, and international problems, we must

Courtesy Aerojet Engineering Corporation

THE OLD AND THE NEW

Dressed as his people have for generations, this Mexican watches a 4-motor Douglas transport make a jet-propelled take-off.

take a long view of man and the problems he has faced through the ages. This long view must extend thousands of years into the past to the primitive and simpler cultures of the ancestors of

modern man. It should also extend into the future to a social order which will revolve about the welfare of man, and to a society characterized by the smallest possible amount of human misery. Let us take a long view backward and pick up the threads of information about the birthplace of primitive man, his physical characteristics and the living habits of our early ancestors.

The Origin of Primitive Man. — Where did man originate? This question has been the subject of much study and even more idle speculation. The best present thought holds that man originated in one spot on the earth's surface and, over thousands of years, from this spot migrated by land and water routes to all sections of the world.

Granted, then, that man originated in one place, where was this hallowed spot? On this question there is anything but general agreement. We shall list briefly some of the "most likely" locations which have been advanced as the birthplace of man, briefly discuss them, and leave to future scientific exploration the determination of the exact location of the birthplace of the prehistoric ancestors of present-day peoples.

Europe. — Europe has often been mentioned as the birthplace of primitive man. This claim has been based largely on studies of numerous well-preserved skeletons which have been unearthed in Spain, Germany, England, Wales, and other European countries.

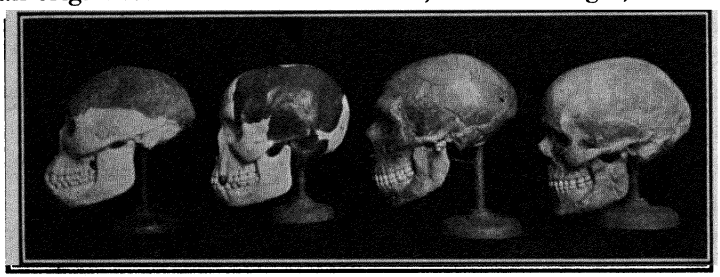
Asia. — Asia is more generally accepted as the birthplace of primitive man. This is based on the fact that human remains, reputedly older than those found in Europe, have been discovered in Java and also near Peking, China. Furthermore, many of the oldest domesticated plants and animals had their origin in Asia, which is likewise a land of ancient civilizations.

Africa. — Africa has also been called the "cradle of civilization." This theory is based largely on the fact that cer-

tain tribes found in Africa today have characteristics similar to models made from the skeletal remains of primitive peoples and also on the fact that very old civilizations existed in Africa, particularly in the vicinity of the Nile Valley.

Arctic Regions. — A few writers have advanced the idea that primitive man originated in the Arctic regions. This theory is based largely on the difficulty of accounting for the origin in the Arctic regions of some of the Eskimo tribes, which are believed to have migrated to the Arctic from Asia.

Submerged Continent. — Some students have maintained that man originated on a continent which, since his origin, has been



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SKULLS OF PREHISTORIC MAN

Left to right: Pithecanthropus erectus, Piltdown Man, Neanderthal Man, Cro-Magnon Man. These are restorations by J. H. McGregor.

submerged into the ocean. This view has been held by certain evolutionists who have failed to link primitive man successfully with the higher animals. This viewpoint is not held by the majority of evolutionists.

Of the five possible birthplaces of primitive man mentioned above, the bulk of evidence favors Asia. Time and scientific discovery may in the years to come tell us whether or not this is correct. After all, sociology need not be greatly concerned about the origin of man. The subject deals with man and naturally should begin with man, and the important thing is to study present-day man, his social life and his problems.

(On a map of the world sketch in the possible birthplaces of primitive man. Work out your theories of how North America and South America were first inhabited.)

Some Early Ancestors of the Human Race. — How old are the ancestors of the human race? This question is as yet only partially answered, though the anthropologists have diligently sought an answer, and with some success.

On the basis of our present knowledge, it is generally held that the oldest fossil remains of a human form to be unearthed by the anthropologists are a skull, a left thigh bone, and two upper molar teeth found by Dr. Eugene Dubois, a Dutch physician connected with a geological expedition in Java.

PITHECANTHROPUS ERECTUS
Restored from fragments found in Java.

These remains were found in 1891 and 1892 in the bed of Solo River, near the village of Trinil in the central part of Java. As a name for this early human form, Dr. Dubois proposed the scientific name of *Pithecanthropus erectus;* however, it is usually referred to as "Java Man."

The remains of Java Man were found in a layer of volcanic fragments overlying a stratum of conglomerate of marine origin. In the same geological formations were the remains of ancient animals which belong to a geological era that might extend into the past 400,000 years, or even 1,000,000 years.

There is little, if any, evidence of how Java Man lived. No remains of his tools or weapons have been found. He probably lived on what foods he could collect in the tropical jungle of Java.

Special significance is attached to the fossil remains of ancient human forms found near Peking, China, between 1926 and 1930. These consisted of a brain case, several teeth, and two lower jaws. The reconstructed form of this early human being has been given the name of *Sinanthropus Pekinensis* or, more simply, Peking Man.

As to the culture of Peking Man, excavations have indicated that he used fire, chipped stone, and utilized bones and deer antlers as tools and weapons. Some writers believe that Peking Man may have lived as long ago as 500,000 years, while more conservative estimates place his age at around 300,000 years.

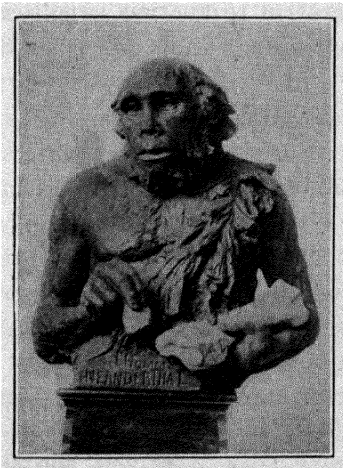
HEIDELBERG MAN

In 1907, in a sand and gravel quarry at Mauer, near Heidelberg, Germany, a human jaw of what science later called "Heidelberg Man" (*Homo heidelbergensis*) was unearthed. This jaw was embedded in ancient river sand more than twenty feet below the surface and in a stratum which yielded the fossil remains of many ancient animals. From these fossil remains the age of Heidelberg Man has been calculated to be at least 150,000 years. Little evidence has been found upon which to construct a picture of how Heidelberg Man lived and worked.

The remains of another ancient man, discovered near Piltdown, in Sussex, England, in 1912 and given the name "Dawn Man," have been computed to be more than 100,000 years old. The scientific name, *Eoanthropus dawsoni*, was given to this early man in honor of the discoverer of the remains, Charles Dawson. There has been much controversy over the age of

"Dawn Man," although, as we have indicated, he probably lived more than 100,000 years ago. There is evidence that he fashioned his tools and implements from bone and flint.

In 1856, in the Neanderthal Gorge in Germany, skeletons were found of men who are believed to have lived some 40,000 years ago. Many skeletons of men, who have been given the name "Cro-Magnon Men," have been found in Wales, Italy, France, Germany, and Spain. These men, according to best



NEANDERTHAL MAN

CRO-MAGNON MAN

evidence, lived 25,000 to 30,000 years ago. They were cave-dwellers and possessed a great deal of artistic ability, using cave walls, bone, and horn for their artistic work. They also made harpoons and possessed great skill in chipping flint. From the size and development of the skeletons, these people are judged to have been splendidly developed physically.

(If you live in the vicinity of a large museum, make a field trip to the museum and observe the characteristics and the culture of early man. If there is evidence of an early Indian culture in your community, make a collection of arrowheads, pottery, and other things representative of that culture.)

The Meaning of Culture. — Prior to our discussion of the culture of early man, we should state that the term "culture" in sociology has a different meaning than it has in education.

In education culture indicates refinement or possession of certain skills or knowledge, especially knowledge of such subjects as art, music, or literature. In sociology the term *culture* means the total transmissible results of living together. This means any phase of our environment which is man-made and which may be passed on from one generation to another is culture. The culture which any generation inherits is spoken of as its *cultural heritage.*

In sociology we usually say that culture is made up of two elements, material traits, known as *artifacts,* and nonmaterial elements known as *mentifacts.* Among the artifacts we find tools, implements, motors, etc., whereas the mentifacts of a people include its attitudes, religions, and the moral concepts. In addition to artifacts and mentifacts, a few students of culture include *skills* as a third phase of culture. Other students hold that skills are a combination of mentifacts and artifacts.

A single element of culture, as, for example, tipping the hat, is spoken of as a *culture trait.* When a great many activities surround the use of a culture trait, as, for example, the cultivation of cotton, the total configuration of activities is sometimes spoken of as a *cultural pattern,* or *culture complex.* Smoking a cigarette might be called a culture trait, whereas the total array of activities connected with the production, manufacture, distribution, and use of tobacco might be called a culture pattern or complex, in which instance we would speak of it as the "tobacco complex." Usually culture traits are not used singularly, but in combination with other culture traits.

(What are some culture traits common to your community? What are some of the more important culture patterns? How may a poor cultural heritage affect a people? What kind of a cultural

heritage would you like to pass on to the next generation? Why should we be concerned with the cultural heritage of the boys and girls born in the decade 1941–1951).

The Development of Man's Culture. — In discussing the development of man's culture, we shall confine our attention to the cultural development of Western Europe. We shall do this for two reasons: first, because European culture played a greater part in the development of America than any other culture, and, secondly, because the various stages of cultural development stand out more clearly perhaps in Europe than on any other continent.

Without a doubt, man originally lived for thousands of years with foods, clothing, and shelter collected from or provided by the environment. He did this without tools other than nature's tools, such as sticks and stones, which were collected from the environment. He then reached the first stage of cultural development of which we have any record. This is called the Eolithic Period.

1. The *Eolithic Period* of cultural development was the very earliest phase of the stone-age culture and takes its name from crude stone implements, which were usually chips of flint or quartz, and which were not characterized by a refined quality of chipping, as is the Indian arrowhead that one may find almost anywhere in America today. These irregular, sharp-edged flints, or eoliths, were used for striking, scraping, boring, and sawing. Those in Western Europe date back to 400,000 years B.C. They are the only remaining evidences of the culture which these very early primitive people knew. Some persons prefer to believe that the eoliths described above were not the work of human hands but the result of natural geological processes.

2. The *Lower Paleolithic Period* was the earliest period of the Old Stone Age, which in Western Europe is believed to have

covered a period from about 400,000 B.C. to 125,000 B.C. This period is characterized by stone hammers, known to science as "Paleon picks," and crudely chipped flints used for fleshing hides, scraping meats from bones, and similar work. These tools gave man a command and dominance over his environment which was more absolute than he had previously had. The people of this period lived in caves, and there is some evidence that they used fire.

Courtesy Milwaukee Public Museum

MEN OF THE MIDDLE PALEOLITHIC PERIOD

This painting by a modern artist shows how men of the Stone Age in Europe may have trapped and killed the mammoths of that period.

3. The *Middle Paleolithic Period* of cultural development shows more refinement in the chipping of flint tools. The flint was also quarried during this period, whereas, before this time, it was probably collected more or less at random from the surface of the earth. There is evidence that man learned to trap animals by means of pitfall traps during this period. Large charcoal pits have been unearthed which indicate that these people had rather well-defined hearthstones, where they built

fires. This stage of culture in Western Europe extended from about 125,000 B.C. to 40,000 B.C., so far as we can learn from the best evidence.

4. The *Upper Paleolithic Period* dates from about 40,000 B.C. to 10,000 B.C. and is the culture of Cro-Magnon Man in Western Europe. This stage of cultural development is characterized by the use of flint for javelin and harpoon points. Arrowheads were apparently unknown and came at a later period. This stage of culture has produced many fine specimens of carved bone implements and decorations. Carvings, paintings, and models have been found on the walls of caves inhabited by the people of this period, indicating that they possessed artistic ability of high degree.

LATE NEOLITHIC MAN

5. The *Neolithic Period* of cultural development is the New Stone Age period, which dates from 10,000 B.C. to 4000 B.C. in Western Europe. It is characterized by the fact that all stone implements were highly polished. This is the reason it is called the "New Stone Age."

This period gave to civilization pottery, the bow and arrow, domestication of plants and animals, settled agricultural villages — including the famous Swiss Lake villages — brush, bark, and grass houses, the raft, the dug-out canoe, and a system of organized religion. There were other cultural traits of the period too numerous to mention. When Columbus discovered America, the Indians were living in an advanced stage of the New Stone Age period.

6. The Metal Ages. — Culture was advancing rapidly during these early times; man was making progress; and we come, finally, to the Metal Ages.

There were three of the metal ages, the Copper Age, the Bronze Age, and the Iron Age. The *Copper Age* (4000–3000 B.C.) was relatively unimportant, because copper, which occurred nearly pure in nature, was too soft to be fashioned into serviceable tools.

By fusing a mixture of tin and copper, bronze was produced. This led to the very important *Bronze Age* (3000–2000 B.C.), which yielded the sword, the dagger, bronze shields for battle, battle axes, the brooch with safety pin attachment, the bracelet, belt, and other ornaments, the wheel and axle, tweezers, buckets, greatly improved tools of all types, the expansion of trade routes, and the alphabet — a contribution of the Phoenicians.

The *Iron Age* (2000 B.C. to the present), which has finally merged into the *Steel Age*, has given so many inventions to civilization and so many customers and new techniques that it would be impossible to mention them. Paralleling the Steel Age, we might list the *Age of Steam*, the present and future *Electrical and Motor Age*, and we are now certainly on the eve of an *Air-Transport and Plastic Age*.

From out of the dark past, and extending up to our own time, there has been a gradual process of culture building which has been remarkable. This has been possible only because man alone, of all earth's creatures, has the ability and the physical and social characteristics necessary to build a civilization. Some of these characteristics are intelligence, a most adaptable hand, language, and group life. It must be remembered that even primitive man was not satisfied with material things; he also had to have some form of religion.

(As a class project, study in detail the various stages of cultural development mentioned in this chapter. Study in detail the avail-

able information on Swiss Lake villages. What are the advantages of a complex culture over a simple culture? In what way has man's hand contributed to his culture-building power? How does group life aid in building culture? Did primitive man possess a religion? Study the history of the alphabet. What has been its relation to culture building? Project into the future and prepare a report on "A Cross-Section of American Culture in 1975.")

Conditions of Life among Primitive Peoples. — The various stages of culture which we have reviewed indicate in a general way some of the conditions of life among peoples who lived long ago.

Primitive peoples depended on nature for food, clothing, shelter, and medicinal herbs. Nature was not always bountiful and droughts, storms, and disease frequently took their toll of plant and animal life. Many authorities have shown that it often became necessary for primitive peoples to destroy some of their infants and elders in order to have enough food.

Life must have been short among primitive peoples. The earliest dependable records of the span of life are Roman records. Even though the Romans were fairly well advanced in culture development, the expectation of life at birth appears to have been only around 30 years.[1] Among primitive peoples it must have been much shorter.

Studies made of age inscriptions on Egyptian mummy cases indicate a very high mortality during the early years of life and a life span which would certainly not be more than half as long as ours. This situation existed in spite of the fact that the Egyptian culture was a rather advanced culture.

As compared with the peoples of the world today, primitive peoples lived in isolated groups. Although they had the boat, the canoe, and the raft for water travel, and the smoke signal

[1] Dublin, Louis I., and Lotka, Alfred J., *Length of Life*, The Ronald Press, New York, 1936, pp. 35–37.

and the drum for communication, distance, language difficulties, and topographical features, together with the fact that man had not developed a culture for overcoming these barriers, pretty well isolated primitive tribes from their neighbors. Where trade routes were possible on river and land and where the factors of isolation were less severe, primitive peoples associated with each other. The earliest cultures in the Nile Valley and the Tigris-Euphrates Valley indicate frequent commutation and exchange between the peoples of these areas. Perhaps this exchange of culture traits was responsible for the great ancient civilizations which were to develop later in these areas.

The chief organizations among primitive peoples were tribal. Since contacts with other tribesmen were cut off or restricted, the strongest social bonds were kinship ties.

Murdock, in a discussion of the kinship system of one of our contemporary primitive peoples, the Todas of southern India, says:

> The system of kinship affects social life in several ways. At certain ceremonies, notably funerals, kinsmen of various degrees have definite duties to perform. Again kinship may involve taboos. Thus a man may not mention the name of his several "fathers-in-law" and "mothers-in-law." Moreover, relatives when they meet must observe definite forms of salutation. Though these are usually verbal formulas, a woman must salute an older male relative by kneeling and raising his foot to her head.[1]

The importance placed upon kinship ties led to social control by the elders. So rigid was this control that young persons were brought up carefully to observe all tribal customs, appropriate with their age, and to master the tribal rituals and to obey the commands and demands of the elders. Youth did not occupy the place of importance in primitive cultures that it occupies today in our culture. This situation existed in spite

[1] Murdock, George Peter, *Our Primitive Contemporaries*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1934, p. 97.

of the fact that children were treated with great kindness and, on the whole, were much desired.

Lacking the many factual explanations of things which we accept today as commonplace, primitive peoples were essentially superstitious, although we are fairly certain that many phenomena, as life and death, dreams and the soul, baffled those who attempted to explain them as they baffle us with all of our modern knowledge. Black magic became the source of explanation of death and disease. Taboos, emblems, and charms were used to appease the antagonistic spirits and to keep the good spirits in the proper attitude of helpfulness. Everywhere the world was full of spirits, good spirits, evil spirits, and all of these, thought the primitive, were basically linked up with his welfare. Culture has progressed a long way in freeing the people of the earth from superstition, but there is yet much to be done.

(Collect any evidences on primitive superstitions which still exist in your community).

The Urge to Progress. — Although intelligence, language, group life, and a body physically adapted to work, enabled man to build a culture, man has always been motivated to progress because of certain innate drives within himself. The desire for an adequate and constant food supply; for adequate shelter; for protection from the elements, from wild animals, and human enemies; for protection from spiritual disfavor and disease; for mates and companionship; and for a feeling of security have driven man in the past to build a culture which would satisfy these desires. These drives play no less prominent part in motivating the activities of man today than formerly.

Let us now consider the participation of the individual in the group life of society and the influence of these groups upon him.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In co-operation with the science classes, make a study of New Stone Age flint tools and implements used by American Indians. Let this become a part of the school's museum collection.
2. Prepare a report on why man is capable of building a culture, while animals cannot.
3. As a map project, work out possible birthplaces of primitive man.
4. As a class project, prepare a collection of photographs and pictures, arrange them in a scrap book, label each illustration properly, and give its source. Label the book "The New Stone Age Culture in America."
5. How does the cultural heritage affect the behavior of people?
6. How did the Indians live when early American explorers found them?
7. Review the work which is being done in the field of plastics. What is the social significance of the possibilities of development in this field?
8. Why should we know something of the historical development of our cultural heritage?

VOCABULARY STUDY

primitiveness	culture trait	Neolithic	Paleolithic
civilization	collectional	Eolithic	fusing
culture	Stone Age	Metal Age	pattern
artifact	mentifact	skill	culture complex

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CHAPTER II

THE INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP RELATIONSHIPS

Group Contacts Constant. — A good share of one's hours are spent in group contacts of one type or another. You, perhaps today, are likely to join one or more schoolmates for lunch. We may call the one, two, or three persons with whom you

Courtesy Detroit Public Schools

A Typical Play Group

have lunch, together with yourself, *a group.* This particular type of group may be called *an associational group,* for the obvious reason that you associate together.

Nearly all schools nowadays have a recreation period. Your recreation associates day after day may not vary greatly, if you have full freedom in selecting them, because of your preference for particular associates. These associates, plus your-

self, make up what may be called a *recreation* or *play group.* The play group, like the family, is a universally distributed group, there being few persons, especially children, who do not associate themselves with some form of recreation or play group if they have an opportunity. Play groups are also universally found among the children of primitive tribes.

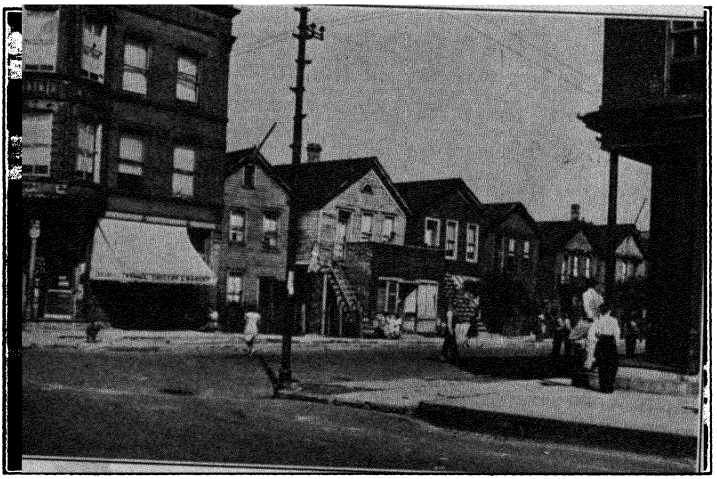
This afternoon you will go home to your family, which is not only a group, some pattern of which is found throughout the world, because of the personal and intimate nature of the contacts within it, but also one of the most influential of groups. To designate it, the term *primary group* is employed. This term is used because of the position of importance which the family occupies in influencing the habits, customs, moral ideals, likes and dislikes, of most individuals the world over.

After dinner, at which members of the family as a group are likely to be present, this evening, if you live in a town or city, you may decide to attend a "movie," at which you will be in an assemblage of persons which may be called a *crowd.* During the performance, a scene shows the President of the United States delivering a speech to a joint session of the Congress during which he asks the Congress to declare that a state of War exists between this country and Japan. The President mentions "the nation" in his address. The speech is also being broadcast to an international "radio audience." The radio audience and the public may be called *abstract collectivities,* because they are relatively abstract and are not assembled in the sense that a group or crowd is assembled.

Another scene of the newsreel shows the tearing down of old, dilapidated dwellings in the slum area of an American city. The announcer makes the statement that "adequate housing for the poor is now on its way." Here the term, "the poor," refers to what the sociologist calls a *social class,* by which is meant a certain segment of the population. We speak of "the

poor," referring to those without adequate funds or necessities; "the rich" as indicative of those with wealth; "the educated," as those who have had special advantages of training; "the deaf," as those who cannot hear. These are all examples of *social classes.*

We could go further and list other forms of *plurality patterns* in which you associate. By *plurality patterns* are meant those



INADEQUATE HOUSING OF THE POOR

associations in which you engage with one or more persons. If you lived the life of a complete hermit, which would be an almost impossible task, your patterns of conduct would be *individual* rather than *plural.* Rather than go through life as individuals, people prefer to associate themselves with others in patterns for living, for work, for play, and for the performance of both routine and special activities. Why is this? This is a question worthy of consideration.

(Name the different groups or plurality patterns to which you belong; to which your father and mother belong. List all the different types of crowds you can. Is the group, which refers to a very

compact, relatively permanent association of two or more persons who mutually influence each other, different from the crowd? Give all the examples of abstract collectivities you can.)

The Reasons for Group Life. — So far as we know, there was never a time when people were not, at least loosely, organized into groups. When one seeks the reasons for the formation of groups, he finds that individuals have always had an innate

Ewing Galloway

THE SKYSCRAPERS OF NEW YORK

desire to be with others. If this is not inherent, and a part of inheritance, it is certainly acquired soon after birth. Individuals desire to have companions in much the same way, it appears, that they desire food or drink when they are hungry or thirsty. However, just as one can accommodate himself to living on little food, so one may get used to few group contacts.

The formation of groups results from the practical advantage of being with and working with others. Through groups, individuals are enabled to perform tasks which they could not possibly perform alone. Only a modern Solomon, builder of the Temple, would undertake alone the building of a skyscraper,

even the foundations of which he could never construct; but through group efforts skyscrapers are erected.

Individuals also find most associations with others extremely pleasant. The normal person desires to associate with others, at least part of the time, because he enjoys it.

Another very good answer to the question of "why group life?" is to be found in the fact that there are certain movements going on in society which tend to cause the formation of groups. Competition, for instance, tends to bind together those who are competing. Exploitation binds together the exploited and the exploiters. Specialization tends to cause those interested in different specialties to bind themselves together in groups. Along with the growth of industry and commercial enterprises, there has been a tendency for like interests to set up organizations representing these particular specialties. Furthermore, as people become adapted to each other, or as they become better socialized, and as they learn the fine art of human relations, the formation of groups becomes easier.

(What social processes or social movements have been responsible for the formation of groups in your community?)

The Influence of the Group. — From an individual's birth until his death, he not only lives within groups and associates in groups, but his everyday actions are greatly influenced by groups. We belong to a certain political party, not so much because we have previously analyzed the merits and demerits of the particular party, but because our parents belong to it. Few of us have arrived at our moral codes by thinking through each element of our code, but rather it is the product of our families, our associational, church, and school groups, plus any individual element which we may have added to it. We tip our hats, issue and accept invitations, wear certain styles of clothes, and conform to similar customs because of group influence. We are

seldom conscious of this group influence, because we have been inducted into it so gradually. Only when we are thrown into contacts with groups in which customs differ materially from our own are we conscious of the fact that we are out of tune with the group.

Through the infliction of punishment, scorn, laughter, ostracism, the offering of rewards, approval, and disapproval, we are virtually forced to conform to group patterns and to adopt at least a minimum of such patterns. Society also supports its appointed officers in demanding that we conform to certain behavior patterns which are believed to be conducive to the stability and improvement of the social order.

The pupil must not get the idea that the individual is wax to be molded into shape in the hands of the group. Every individual has some inherent tendencies, as the desire for new experiences, the desire for security, the desire for recognition, and the desire for response, which apparently guide behavior into certain general channels and stabilize it. Every individual is to some degree an individualist, but he reflects, in practically every phase of life, the influence of the group.

All groups do not influence individuals to the same degree; even the same group may have a very different effect upon different individuals. There are certain general factors which govern group influence, which, in turn, is usually governed by the existence of and the relative strength of these factors. Some of these are:

1. *The maturity of the individual.* — Obviously, all things considered, the more mature the person, the less will be the influence of the group upon him.

2. *The time spent in the group.* — The amount of time spent by the individual in the group will also greatly determine group influence upon him. Because one spends some years of life in his family is one reason for its great influence.

3. *Repetition* of acts, contacts, customs, attitudes, and ideas within the group also controls group influence. Repetition in groups has the same effect upon group influence as it does in the mastering of the multiplication tables.

4. *Vividness of experiences within the group.* — Vivid experiences impress us and leave their imprint more than do less vivid experiences. Group experiences which are vivid are lasting experiences.

5. *The prestige of the members of the group* will also greatly affect group influence. We are all more or less hero-worshipers who are impressed by persons whom we hold in prestige and whom we respect.

6. *Our willingness to change* will also determine group influence. A "closed mind" is likely to be little impressed by anything. A willingness to learn, to weigh issues, and to change for good reasons, is as essential for group influence as it is for education.

(List the groups which have had the most influence upon your life. How do you account for the influence of each?)

The Decline in Primary Group Influence. — When life was simple and communities were small, the attitudes, actions, and moral fiber of the people were strongly influenced by home, church, neighborhood, community, kinship, and association groups of one kind or another. The contacts between individuals were highly personalized. On the farm the laborers and the owners worked side by side. In small industries the foreman was often the owner and perhaps knew personally every one in his factory. When tragedy came to a family, the neighbors came to offer their aid, and there were many other kinds of mutual aid relationships between people.

With the expansion of the nation and everything within it, life became less personal. Even in rural areas, where primary

group contacts are still highly personalized, a decline in primary group contacts followed good roads, the automobile, and the decline of the neighborhood, as its institutions and its people came under the influence of the towns and cities.

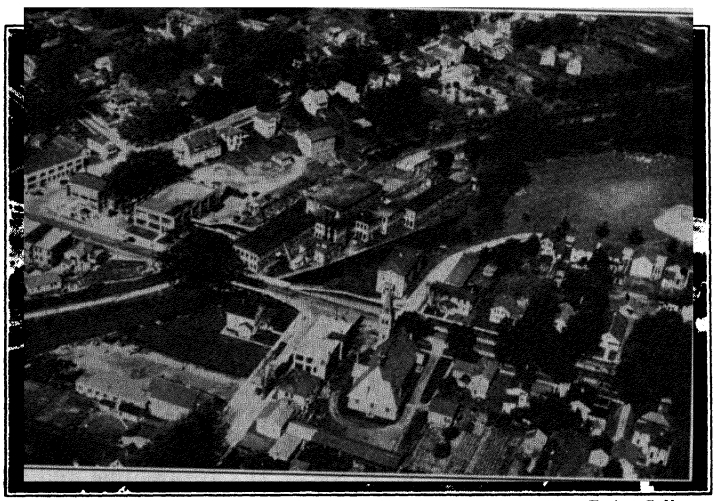
The cities felt the decline of the primary groups even more. The cities became so large and the people so numerous that personal acquaintance on a large scale and to an intimate degree for most people became impossible. Families moved frequently and detached themselves from the urban church and the urban neighborhood institutions. Individuals detached themselves from their families and "went on their own." Thus there was lost the value of intimate associations, the kindly interest of neighborhood friends and the control of institutions and customs over the person.

Serious students of both rural and urban cultures began to call attention to the fact that the peoples of both city and rural areas were losing much because of the absence of community contacts and neighborhood influences, and over the last several years something has been done toward tackling this problem.

In rural areas, new communities, covering larger territories than formerly, are beginning to develop around consolidated schools and other community centers, the automobile and good roads making the people for miles around accessible to the community centers. Then, too, many rural organizations and groups, such as the Grange, conservation associations, churches, and schools, are sponsoring community programs designed to bring the people closer together.

In the cities, small communities and civic-conscious groups are springing up within the larger urban community. Neighborhood and community housing projects are being built, with the idea of community organization and the encouragement of primary group contacts strongly in mind. Urban parks, playgrounds, and recreational programs are being localized in

neighborhood areas close to where the people live. Then, too there is a distinct tendency for urban populations to move to the suburbs. As the population moves into the suburban areas and as we have more planning for community living in these areas, there is likely to be a return of primary group interest and influence, similar to that which existed when the way of life in this country was less complex.



Ewing Galloway

CAMILLUS, NEW YORK

This attractive village community has grown up around a church and a factory.

We should not leave this topic without stressing the fact that it is within the power of individuals to build up primary contacts wherever they are. With both parents working to the end of establishing a happy, intimate family life, replete with affection and friendship, a great and strong primary family life may be established. In business, in the club, in school, in the factory, or in the neighborhood, a little time devoted to friendships and contacts, and a genuine interest in people and their

problems, will make for intimate, friendly relationships in the simplest community or the busiest city.

(Study your community from the standpoint of the nature, quantity, and quality of primary group contacts, and outline a program for strengthening such contacts.)

Group Status. — In every group each individual has a certain position or status which is different from that of any other person. One man is head of a family; another is vice-president of a club; another has professional prestige; another is skyrocketed to the height of power in a political group, while another politician is thrown overboard to defeat. These persons all have status or position, varying as it does from one to another and from time to time. There are some general factors which are likely to play an important part in determining the status of an individual in groups. Some of these are:

1. *Personality,* which should be judged by the reaction of other people to us. If they like us, our personality rating is high with them. If they do not like us, our personality rating is low. Personalities are developed only through contact with people.

2. *Money and what money will buy* also determines group status in some groups. This status is sometimes lost when the wealth is gone. It must be remembered that the capitalist would not have high status among a group of communists, but among economic groups and most political groups he would have high status.

3. *Education* may facilitate adjustment to groups and may, therefore, determine status. A university club is likely to be open only to university men and women. Being a college or high school student automatically gives one status in many groups.

4. *Skill* may determine status within groups in which status is determined by skill. In the public eye, dramatic skill, plus

an effective personality, may be the basis for an actor or actress receiving hundreds of thousands of letters of "fan" mail per year.

5. *Family name* has in the past been a determiner of group or social status, but is fast decreasing in importance in America, as individuals are increasingly being judged on the basis of merit.

6. *Similarity of belief* or conformity may determine social status. Before one may gain status within a fraternal organization, he is likely to have to subscribe and live up to certain common beliefs or standards.

The above are not the only factors which are likely to determine status, but are some of the more important ones. In the end, status will be determined by the group's attitude toward the individual and the individual's attitude toward the group.

(List other factors which determine the status of an individual in specified groups. Look up as many definitions of personality as you can find. Through what avenues does a person reveal his personality?)

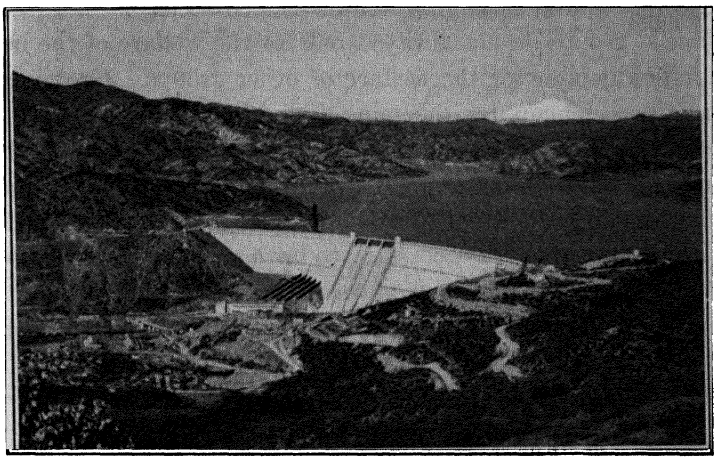
Group Mortality and Longevity. — We see many groups and organizations which spring up, exist for a short interval, and decline or "die." This decline of groups is referred to as *group mortality*. Other groups thrive and continue their existence for a long period of time. This trend is called *group longevity*.

If groups are to become worth while and are to continue to exist, the following elements must exist within them:

1. *Contact.* — If groups are to be stable, there must be contact between the individuals making up the group. These contacts should be relatively frequent, should take place at regular intervals, and should, above all, be satisfying, or the group will not stick together.

2. *Structure.* — Groups must have structure if they are to survive. A set of officers, a constitution, by-laws, articles of incorporation, etc., are usually necessary for group survival.

3. *Common interest.* — The members of a group must have a common interest if groups are to survive and flourish. If the group is to be most successful, these common interests must be sufficiently different to set the group off or apart from other groups. This is also the only way in which group duplication may be eliminated.



Bureau of Reclamation

SHASTA DAM IN CALIFORNIA

Group effort and co-operation make the erection of huge structures like this possible.

4. *Some social life.* — Groups which have held together longest foster a greater amount of social life than do short-lived groups. Political groups, economic groups, farm groups, literary groups, and the like, might well foster some social life along with their special activities, if they wish to be long-lived.

(Obtain a list of the oldest groups in your community and then try to determine why they have been in existence so long. The class as a group might well make a study of group mortality in the community.)

Group Control. — Society is composed of individuals taken collectively. Individuals are not abstractions, but a part of the

social structure called society. Thus we continually conceive of them in terms of social situations. When we think of each other, we relate each other to certain social situations. So closely related is man to society, that we may take the position that a well-developed society can exist only in and through well-developed individuals and that well-developed individuals may exist only in and through a well-developed society.

Social groups do not always work for the welfare of the bulk of individuals or for the welfare of other groups. Groups are sometimes set up by scheming individuals who attempt to promote the welfare of their group to the detriment of other groups. Thus, some groups become selfish just as individuals become selfish. To curb group selfishness and the promotion of selfish interests, it is necessary to have governments to supervise such groups, and laws governing group relationships. It is, in addition, necessary that these laws specify penalties for those groups which insist upon the promotion of selfish ends at the economic, moral, or physical expense of the masses.

(If we did not have government and law, what condition or situation would we have among the groups of the country? Cite some examples of laws that attempt to control groups.)

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. List the major groups of your community into primary and secondary categories.
2. Prepare a written report upon the most important group influence in your life, pointing out the reasons for this influence.
3. Debate the topic: "Resolved, That the decline of primary groups in urban communities is a detrimental trend."
4. Why is there need for group control?
5. Prepare a report on the topic: "How to Return Primary Group Influence to My Community."
6. What may be done to bring about a good quality of group morale in a group or a community?

VOCABULARY STUDY

group	pattern	slum	primary group
crowd	status	mortality	secondary group
poor	conformity	longevity	abstractive
plural	repetition	control	collective

neighborhood community

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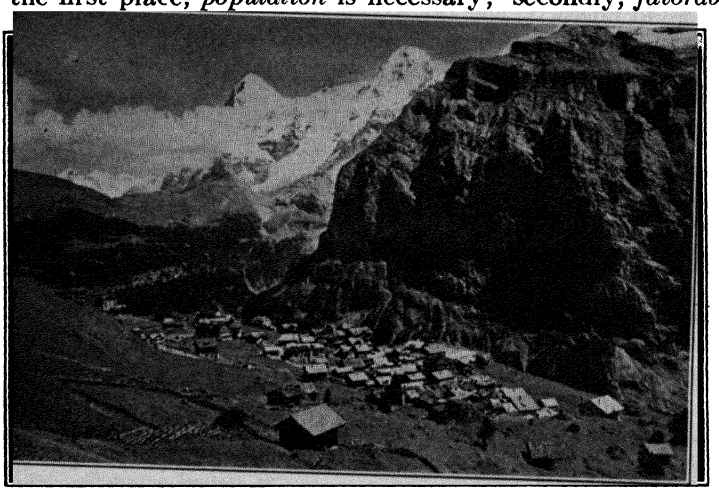
CHAPTER III

THE HUMAN RESOURCES OF SOCIETY

Human Resources and Culture. — To develop a great culture or civilization in any land three kinds of resources are necessary. In the first place, *population* is necessary; secondly, *favorable*



Authenticated News

THE SWISS VILLAGE OF MÜRREN

The climatic and geographic conditions limit the population of many Swiss communities.

climatic and geographical conditions, including favorable topography, mineral resources, rainfall, and the like, are necessary; while the third essential is a relatively rich *organic environment*, including plants and animals which may be used for food.

Where a people are building a civilization in a new country, nearness to other civilizations is an aid, for it enables a new

country to borrow materials, customs, and practices in building its culture from the countries near it. The early American colonists, for example, profited a great deal by adopting certain cultural traits of the Indians. The fact also that the early American colonists had contact, by sailboat and, later, by steamer, with England, the mother country, enabled them to transport many inventions and customs directly to this country from England. Culture building enabled a large world population to develop.

The World's Population. — As only about three fifths of the world's population is covered by anything like an accurate system of census enumeration, the number of individuals constituting the world's population is as yet somewhat of a guess. The most reliable studies indicate that the following statistics of world population are approximately correct. The second table goes a bit further and makes predictions as to the future growth of the world's population.

TABLE I. POPULATION OF THE WORLD BY CONTINENTS, 1750–1935[1]

(Figures given in millions)

CONTINENT	1750	1800	1850	1900	1930	1935
Europe	140.0	187.0	266	401	505.1	528.3
Asia	406.0	522.0	671	859	992.5	1114.8
Africa	100.0	100.0	100	141	142.4	148.2
North America	6.3	15.4	39	106	168.75	178.0
South America	6.1	9.2	20	38	82.75	85.7
Oceania	2.0	2.0	2	6	9.88	10.4
Total	660.4	835.6	1098	1551	1901.38	2095.4

The population of the world, when classified according to race, shows that about 51.5 per cent is Caucasian; 38.6 per

[1] Adapted from *The Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, Vol. XII, pp. 241–245. By permission of The Macmillan Company, Publishers.

cent, Mongolian; 7.9 per cent, Negroid; and 2.0 per cent, of doubtful racial connection.

(Obtain various estimates of the world's population and also future predictions of the world's population.)

TABLE II. PREDICTED FUTURE GROWTH OF WORLD POPULATION[1]

Year	Population in Millions
1940	2,197
1950	2,427
1960	2,681
1970	2,962
1980	3,271
1990	3,614
2000	3,992
2050	6,565
2100	10,797

Danger Spots in World Population.[2] — There are potential danger spots in certain sections of the world. These danger spots are of two classes: first, those countries and parts of countries in which the population is growing to a point where the country is a potential menace to other nations; and, second, those countries where the population is growing so fast that it is pushing down the standard of living of the people.

One approach to the location of danger spots in world population is through the use of statistics showing the density of population in various countries. The following table shows the population density of certain selected countries.

[1] Adapted from: Knibbs, George H., "The Menace of Increasing Population," *Scientific American*, 137: 338–340, 1928.

[2] With the map of the world changing as rapidly as it is under the impact of the present (1942) war, it is difficult to speculate on what areas may, in the future, constitute danger spots in world population.

TABLE III. PERSONS PER SQUARE MILE OF ARABLE LAND, SELECTED COUNTRIES, 1935[1]

Country	Persons per Square Mile	Country	Persons per Square Mile
Canada	102	Italy	790
Australia	136	Germany	811
United States	221	Greece	825
Spain	369	Belgium	1710
Sweden	428	Switzerland	2111
France	483	Netherlands	2249
New Zealand	491	Great Britain	2265
India (British Provinces)	561	Japan	2853
India (Indian States)	639		

Regarding the distribution of the world's land supply, the late Professor Raymond Pearl said:

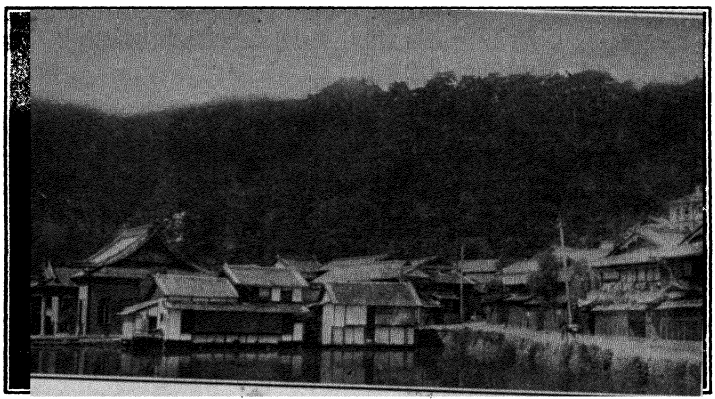
Nine nations, with 23 per cent of the world's population, themselves live on 14 per cent of its total land area, control 66 per cent of all land in the world and, in greater or less degree, the political life of all human beings. If Russia and the United States be regarded apart from the others, for which there is some justification, the remaining seven nations, with just 11 per cent of the people in the world living on less than 1¼ per cent of its land area, control approximately 42 per cent of all lands and all the people on the globe.[2]

On the basis of Tables I, II, and III and additional known facts, it is possible for us to pick out certain danger spots in world population. The following nations are generally conceded to be danger spots, not altogether because they have a dense population, but because some of them have a militant nationalistic spirit.

[1] Thompson, Warren S., *Population Problems*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1935, p. 391.

[2] Pearl, Raymond S., "War and Overpopulation," *Current History*, Vol. 43, p. 593.

Japan. — Economically, Japan finds herself in the spotlight of international politics today because of population pressure. Her population grew from about 30,000,000 in 1870 to 64,450,000 in 1930, while at present the population probably reaches more than 70,000,000. Her population is increasing at a rate of between 700,000 and 750,000 annually. The Japanese death rate dropped from 21.8 per 1000 in 1921–25 to 16.8 per 1000 in 1935.



American Museum of Natural History

A JAPANESE VILLAGE

The rapidly growing population of Japan has lowered the standard of living and threatened other nations.

Japan imports more than 50 per cent of her food supply. To secure this food, she exchanges large quantities of manufactured products. To expand her foreign trade, the country is in grave danger of having to exploit the working classes in order to compete for prices in the market places of the world. Little land remains to be reclaimed, and this would necessarily have to be reclaimed at very great expense. To aggravate the situation further, Japan does not have wonderful resources for industrial development. Added to the above complications is the fact that the Japanese are an aggressive people, possess a strongly nationalistic spirit, and are sometimes prone to hide

their attempts at expansion behind the pretext that the nation is overpopulated.

Apparently, three roads are open to Japan, along which she may progress in handling her problem of population pressure. One is to get along without territorial expansion and try to meet the demands of a fast-growing population as best she can. This is likely to mean only one thing, a decreasing standard of living, which is a terrible price to pay for population increase in any land.

Another way out is to legalize and promote birth control. While this would probably relieve the situation, the Japanese are fond of children and especially do they desire male children. The birth control movement has not, as yet, made rapid strides in Japan.

Japan recently chose the third way, expansion of her territory by attacking her neighbors. She began with Manchuria, continued with China, then invaded Indo-China, and finally took most of the Philippines, Malaya, Singapore, the Dutch East Indies, and Burma, thus threatening India and Australia before she was finally conquered.

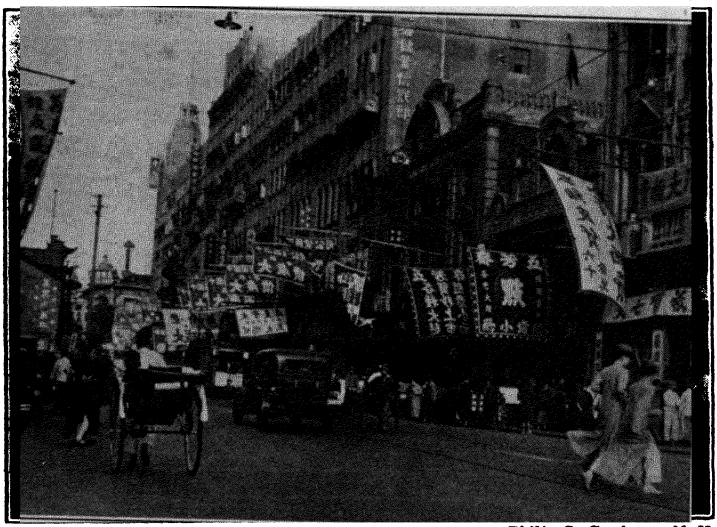
(Make a detailed study of "Japan — A Danger Spot in World Population." To what extent, if any, was this responsible for Japan's World War II aggression?)

China. — A traveler in almost any large Chinese city may see many persons on the street from well after midnight until daybreak. These persons appear to be merely walking around. Upon inquiry as to why so many persons are about, one may be told that they are waiting to go to bed. The condition grows out of the fact that many homes, rooming houses, and the like are so overcrowded that some have to walk around or sit up while others sleep, and some sleep while others work.

These conditions do not exist throughout China. Unlike Japan, China is overcrowded only in spots. In the cities, on the coast, and in the river valleys, the nation is overpopulated, but

many sections in the interior of the country are relatively sparsely settled. Through irrigation, drainage, and improved transportation into the interior, thousands of acres in China could be brought into a state of profitable cultivation.

It is now estimated that the population of China numbers between 350 and 500 millions. Some authorities indicate that



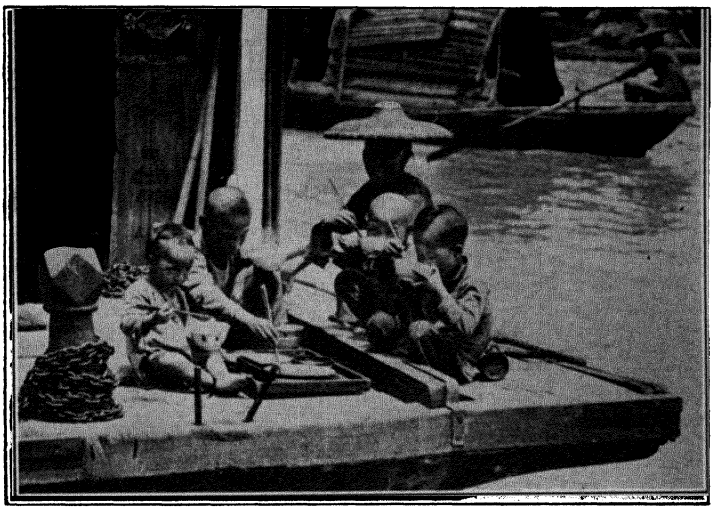
Philip D. Gendreau, N. Y.

THE NANKING ROAD, SHANGHAI

the increase of population in China may be as much as 5,000,000 each year. If this is true, then the population of China would be expected to double in about forty-seven years.

While China has abundant natural resources, many of them are undeveloped. Through erosion, lack of flood control, unsanitary conditions and wasteful methods of lumbering, China is paying the penalty of wasted and unconserved resources. The government until lately has not been sufficiently stable to be especially inviting to foreign capital and foreign industrial development.

China does not have the nationalistic spirit of Japan. The Chinese are a relatively meek people. Sometime, perhaps, this great nation may hit its stride in development, dam its streams, develop a scientific agriculture, develop its mineral holdings, protect its soil, continue its program of co-operatives, improve existing industries and establish new ones, slough off its system



Ewing Galloway

LUNCH-TIME ON A CHINESE HOUSEBOAT IN CANTON

Because of the crowded condition of her river cities, millions of Chinese live on the water.

of ancestor worship, further stabilize its government, educate its masses, develop a more effective internal system of communication and transportation, clean up its health hazards and redistribute its population. If and when this takes place, China will lift its masses from poverty and will become a mighty world power. Until this happens, many of the millions of this great nation are likely to remain in poverty and squalor. The above statements are not offered as criticisms, because this nation rightfully has much of which to be proud.

(Report on the philosophy of the Chinese. Discuss the customs of the Chinese. Show how the attitude of the United States and England is helping to break down the social "wall" of China. How might China improve and utilize its resources so as to improve the standard of living of its people? What improvements has China made during the present war with Japan?)

Italy. — Italy, according to Table III, has a population density of 790 persons per square mile of arable land. Italy's birth rate, while declining slightly, is relatively stable. At the same time, her death rate has been rapidly declining, so that her natural increase amounts to about 400,000 per year. Italy, then, faces the problem of providing for this large yearly increase in population.

Italy has practically reached a limit in the reclamation of marginal and sub-marginal lands, particularly swamps. She has building materials, but few other mineral resources. This nation is, therefore, handicapped in making extensive industrial expansions and will no doubt seek permanent relief through the extension of her powers into other lands, particularly Africa and the Balkans.

Java. — Java has one of the fastest growing populations of any country, but, since the population is relatively non-nationalistic in spirit, this country is not likely to become any particular threat to world peace. It appears, however, that this little country is likely to face an increasingly lowered standard of living in the future if the present population of Java continues to grow in the future as it has in the past. Sections of Java are greatly overcrowded at the present time, and a very large proportion of the population is in poverty.

(Trace the influence of Mussolini on Italy. Why was the defense of Java and the other East Indies so inadequate?)

Great Britain. — If we turn back to Table III and observe the population density of certain European countries, particularly

Great Britain, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and Belgium, we see that they are very densely populated. This dense population is, in each case, supported through an intensive agriculture, an intensive industrial system, and through trade and commerce. Although these countries are probably as overpopulated as some of the other nations mentioned previously, one does not hear much about it, because these nations do not have a strong

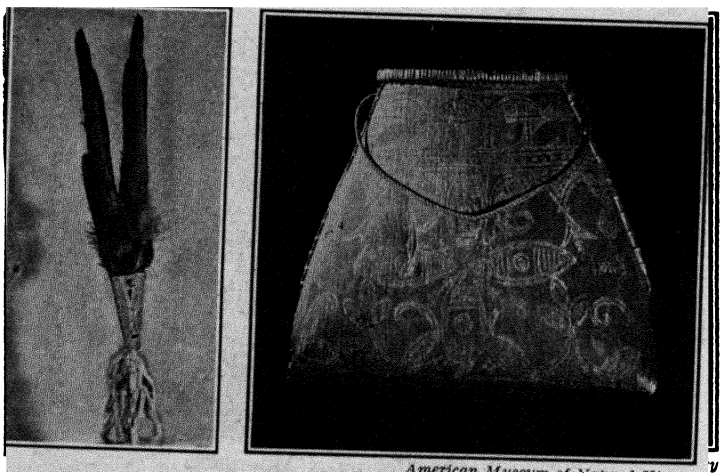
PICKING COTTON IN MISSISSIPPI

militaristic spirit. They accept their population problems as a matter of course and set themselves about the task of providing as many opportunities as possible whereby their people may live effectively.

(Study in detail the problems growing out of population pressure in China, in Japan, in England, and in Italy. Try to determine in which country the pressure is greatest. How can England support the dense population it has? What might China do to improve the standard of living of its people?)

The Inhabiting of America. — Whence came the original inhabitants of America? This question has been the topic of

a great deal of discussion and of much research. The best theory is that the original inhabitants of America came to this continent from Asia via the Bering Strait. Since for centuries northern North America was covered by glaciers, these early peoples probably migrated into sections of South America, where the climate was warmer, and, as the ice pack melted, they gradually moved back northward until they covered all of North America.



INDIAN HANDICRAFT

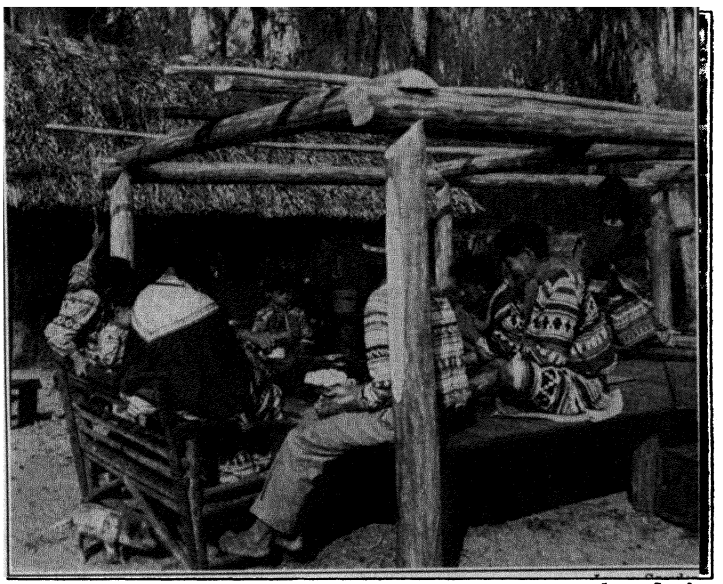
Left: A medicine wand of the Blackfoot Indians.
Right: A birch-bark kettle of the Penobscots.

Since the date of Columbus' discovery of America, 1492, we have had historical accounts of these interesting original inhabitants. Recently, however, the archaeologists and anthropologists, through their excavations, have added much hitherto unknown knowledge and materials concerning these early peoples to our historical information. In this connection, note carefully the photographs of this chapter.

The Indians, however, developed rather distinctive cultures in different sections of the United States, according to the par-

ticular materials available in the environment in which they lived. At least the following different phases of Indian culture have been differentiated and studied:

1. The *Caribou* culture of northern and northwestern Canada, which was built largely around the hunting of the caribou.



James Sawders

SEMINOLE INDIANS IN FLORIDA

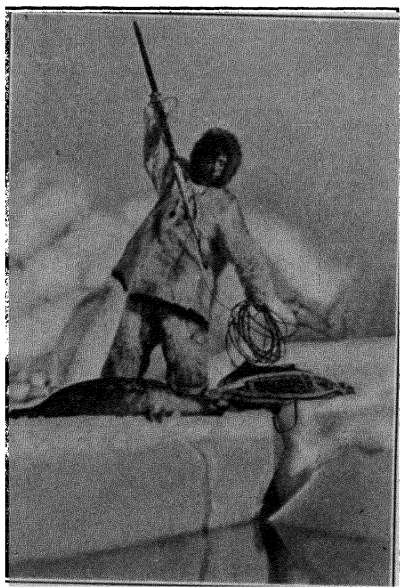
2. The *Northwest Coast Indian* culture, where the Indians lived in the great forests and depended largely upon hunting and fishing for food.

3. The *Central American Indian* culture, where, owing to relatively restricted land areas, trade and a fairly intensive system of agriculture were perfected. These groups were great builders and acquired large amounts of gold, which later led the Spaniards to conquer them for their wealth.

4. The *Pueblo Indian* culture, which is distinctive in that many of the houses were built of adobe and many of the Indians

were cliff dwellers. These people were skilled weavers and pottery makers.

5. The *Plains Indian* culture, which was centered largely around the hunting of the buffalo. The Plains Indians occupied the great part of the area between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, and between the Gulf of Mexico and Central Canada.



Ewing Galloway

ON THE WATCH!

An Eskimo seal-hunter at a "blow-hole."

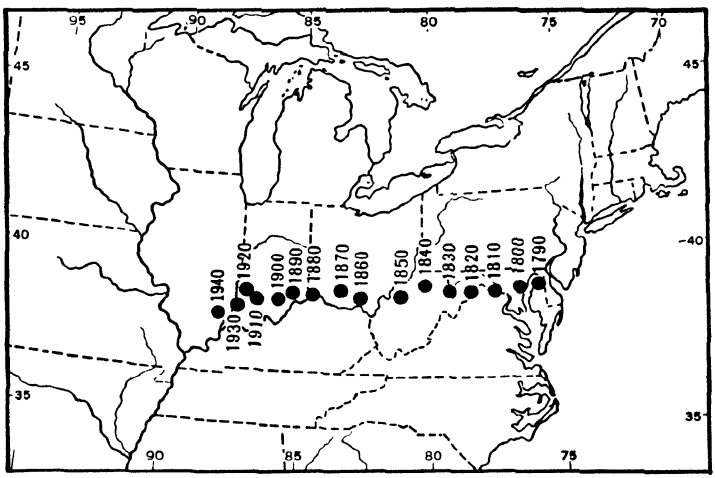
6. The *Woods Indian* culture, which covered the area from the Great Lakes to Florida and eastward to Maine. These people were the most settled and politically powerful of the Indians. They hunted and fished, developed an agriculture, a strong form of government, and very early carried on trade with the white men.

7. Sometimes the *Eskimo* culture is listed with the Indian cultures. The origin of the Eskimos is still a mystery. The most commonly accepted theory of their origin is that they came over from Asia and, instead of heading south, went northward. Some hold that they represent an ancient aboriginal people native to North America. Whatever their origin, they have demonstrated how a culture can be built around the hunting of sea animals. The manner in which the Eskimos have adjusted their needs to their environment is really remarkable.

As to the number of Indians in America when Columbus first

visited it, there is much speculation. Most estimates place the number at between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000. Census figures indicate 248,000 Indians in the United States in 1890; 237,000 in 1900; 266,000 in 1910; 244,000 in 1920; 332,000 in 1930; and 361,000 in 1940. The high figures for 1930 and 1940 are due to the inclusion of mixed bloods in the enumeration.

(Study in detail each of the Indian cultures discussed in the preceding paragraphs. On a map of North and Central America, sketch the approximate location of each of the Indian cultures. Find estimates of the original Indian population in America. Debate the treatment of Indians by the white men. Find as many estimates of the original Indian population of America as you can.)



THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The black dots represent the center of population as it has advanced westward, decade by decade, since 1790.

Population Increase in the United States. — On August 15, 1947, the population of the United States was 141,228,693, according to data published by the U. S. Bureau of the Census. This figure represents an increase of 9,559,418 over the 1940 population of 131,669,275. The 1930–40 population changes

constitute an increase of 7.2 per cent, as compared with a 16.1 per cent increase between 1920 and 1930. As indicated by Table IV, the rate of increase between 1930 and 1940 is less than one half that shown in any previous decade since the first population census in 1790.

TABLE IV. POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1790–1940 [1]

Census Year	Population	Increase over Preceding Census	
		Number	Per Cent
1940	131,669,275	8,894,229	7.2
1930	122,775,046	17,064,426	16.1
1920	105,710,620	13,738,354	14.9
1910	91,972,266	15,977,691	21.0
1900	75,994,575	13,046,861	20.7
1890	62,947,714	12,791,931	25.5
1880	50,155,783	10,337,334	26.0
1870	39,818,449	8,375,128	26.6
1860	31,443,321	8,251,445	35.6
1850	23,191,876	6,122,423	35.9
1840	17,069,453	4,203,433	32,7
1830	12,866,020	3,227,567	33.5
1820	9,638,453	2,398,572	33.1
1810	7,239,881	1,931,398	36.4
1800	5,308,483	1,379,269	35.1
1790	3,929,214	—	—

In commenting upon the population trends indicated in Table IV, the Bureau of the Census says:

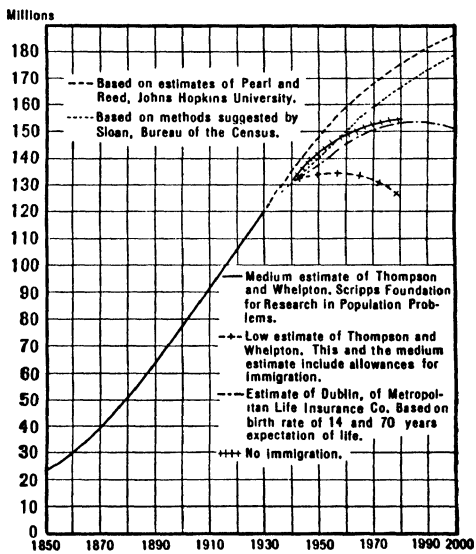
It is clear that if present trends continue, the United States is faced with a stationary or even a declining population in about 30 or 40 years. The slowing down of population growth can be laid to the falling birth rate and the virtual stoppage of immigration from abroad. During the past decade, all of the increase in population represents the natural increase — the excess of births over deaths. In fact, for the first time in the history

[1] "Final Population Figures for the United States," press release of the Bureau of the Census, December 4, 1940.

TABLE V. PREDICTED FUTURE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES[1]

(Prediction of Medium Growth)

Year	Population in Millions	Year	Population in Millions
1945	136.8	1965	146.7
1950	140.8	1970	146.1
1955	143.2	1975	145.5
1960	145.0	1980	144.2



GROWTH OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES[2]

The graph covers the years 1850 to 1930 and includes estimates for the years from 1930 to 2000.

[1] Adapted from: Thompson, Warren S., *op. cit.*, p. 258, 1935.

[2] From: Baker, O. E., "Rural-Urban Migration and the National Welfare," *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 23: 93, 1933; or Lorimer, Frank, and Osborne, Frederick, *Dynamics of Population*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1934, p. 4.

of this nation, the number of emigrants during an intercensal period was greater than the number of immigrants. During the decade from April 1, 1930, to April 1, 1940, the number of persons who left this country for foreign lands exceeded by 46,518 the number who entered the United States. This is in sharp contrast with immigration trends between 1920 and 1930, when 19 per cent of the population increase of 17,064,420 persons during that decade was attributable to immigration.[1]

A "high" prediction estimate forecasts the following future population growth for the United States:[2]

Year	Total Predicted Population
1950	150,800,000
1960	167,300,000
1970	184,200,000
1980	202,000,000

With immigration restrictions as they are, the future population growth of the United States must be obtained largely from natural increase.

The question is sometimes raised, Is the United States in danger of overpopulation? Few writers see any danger, with trends as they are, of overpopulation. On the other hand, some writers, seeing the reverse side of the situation, hold that in reality we are in possible danger of underpopulation.

Birth and Death Rate Trends. — When a nation has a relatively restricted immigration policy, it becomes dependent upon the excess of births over deaths for its source of population increase. This excess is spoken of as *natural increase*. This increase may be extended by lowering the death rate or increasing the birth rate, or by both.

[1] "Final Population Figures for the United States," press release of the Bureau of the Census, December 4, 1940, p. 1. For a more extended discussion of immigration, see Chapter XII, *infra*.

[2] Adapted from Thompson, Warren S., *op. cit.*, p. 258.

Table VI indicates the birth and death rate trends and the excess of births over deaths during the period 1915 to 1943. A rather constant decrease in the birth rate till recently, and a declining death rate are indicated. Table VII gives some picture of net reproduction rates.

TABLE VI. CRUDE BIRTH AND DEATH RATES IN THE UNITED STATES PER 1000 POPULATION, 1915–1943

Year	Rate Per 1000 Population		
	Live Births	Deaths	Excess
1943	21.5	10.9	10.6
1942	21.0	10.4	10.6
1941	18.9	10.5	8.4
1940	17.9	10.8	7.1
1939	17.3	10.6	6.7
1938	17.6	10.6	7.0
1937	15.6	11.5	4.1
1936	15.5	11.6	3.9
1935	15.6	11.2	4.4
1934	15.7	11.3	4.4
1933	15.5	11.2	4.3
1932	16.6	11.2	5.4
1931	17.3	11.3	6.0
1930	18.4	11.5	6.9
1929	18.6	12.2	6.4
1928	19.6	12.3	7.3
1927	20.5	11.7	8.8
1926	20.6	12.7	7.9
1925	21.5	12.3	9.2
1924	22.5	12.1	10.4
1923	22.2	12.8	9.4
1922	22.5	12.3	10.2
1921	24.0	12.0	12.0
1920	22.7	13.7	10.0
1919	22.7	13.3	9.4
1918	24.7	19.2	5.5
1917	25.2	14.8	9.4
1916	25.0	14.8	9.2
1915	25.1	14.1	11.0

TABLE VII. NET REPRODUCTION RATES BY COLOR AND URBAN-RURAL RESIDENCE, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY REGIONS: 1940 [1]

Region and Color	1940			
	Total	Urban	Rural-nonfarm	Rural-farm
All classes				
United States	96	74	114	144
North	87	74	109	133
South	111	75	118	150
West	95	75	120	138
White				
United States	94	74	114	140
North	87	74	109	133
South	110	76	120	145
West	74	76	119	134
Nonwhite				
United States	107	74	114	160
North	83	79		
South	113	71	112	160
West	119			

Some Causes of the Declining Birth Rate. — 1. The "theory of prosperity" holds that as the prosperity of a people increases, the interest in maintaining one's standard of living and achieving a high standard of living for one's offspring leads to a limitation of the size of the family.

2. The greater employment of women, "feminism" or the increased emancipation of women accounts for a lessening of the birth rate.

3. The relaxation of religious trends as control factors in family life results in smaller families.

[1] Bureau of the Census, *Net Reproduction Rates by States, 1940*, August, 1941. 1940 data are used because they represent a more normal condition than do the war and post war years.

4. Some believe that the prevalence of venereal disease, especially gonorrhea, leads to an increase in sterility. Some hold to an unproved theory of increased sterility due to innovations of contemporary culture. Carr-Saunders, a prominent English population authority, believes that there has been an actual gain in fecundity since primitive days.

5. Some socio-psychological causes include: (*a*) desire to have only "wanted" children; (*b*) decline of the idea that the sole purpose of sex is for reproduction; (*c*) desire for physical beauty; (*d*) interference of children with social activities or ambition to improve social status.

6. Birth control or prevenception.

Some Results of the Declining Birth Rate. — Some authorities feel that fewer customers may lead to intensified competition for customers and to intensified efforts to increase the buying power of the people. We have or may have

1. Slowing down and uncertainty of urban growth.

2. A dampening effect upon armed aggression and empire building.

3. Smaller families.

4. More attention to quality rather than quantity of population and to more attempts to conserve population.

5. Declining birth rate may not be out of line with the decrease in natural resources, perhaps approaching what someone has called "a dynamic equilibrium" between resources and population, thus supplying the basis for a high level of living.

6. Material reduction in the number of young persons in the population and increase in number and per cent of aged persons in the population.[1]

Some Attempts and Suggestions for Increasing the Birth Rate. — 1. Education of the higher economic classes to the positive values of children.

[1] See the discussion on age composition which follows in this chapter.

2. Marriage loans.
3. Family allowance system of wages as a substitute for present wage systems.
4. Outlawing of birth control, as advocated by some.
5. Maternal aid and child welfare services.
6. Research into the causes of sterility.

Occupational Composition of the Population. — Table VIII shows the distribution of the gainfully employed workers of the United States by economic functions in 1930. This table reveals that 24.2 per cent of the workers were engaged in primary production, that is, agriculture, mining, fishing, etc. More than a fourth of the population was engaged in processing and fabrication of raw products. Trade and transportation consumed the time of 18.3 per cent of the population; 11.9 per cent were engaged in administrative and managerial activities; and 18.2 per cent in service occupations.

TABLE VIII. DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS ACCORDING TO ECONOMIC FUNCTIONS[1]

Economic Functions	Percentage of Workers
Primary production	24.2
Processing	27.4
Transporting	6.5
Trading	11.8
Administering-managing	11.9
Serving	18.2
Total	100.0

Table IX shows the percentage distribution of gainfully employed workers by occupational categories for selected census periods.

[1] Anderson, H. Dewey, and Davis, Percy, *Occupational Trends*, Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1940, p. 31.

TABLE IX. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF ALL GAINFUL WORKERS FOR SELECTED CENSUS PERIODS, 1870–1940[1]

Group	Period			
	1870	1900	1930	1940[2]
Agriculture	47.3	35.3	21.4	17.5
Forestry and fishing	.4	.6	.5	.5
Extraction of minerals	1.4	2.0	2.0	2.2
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	27.7	31.1	27.9	26.3
Transportation and communication	3.2	5.0	8.2	9.2
Trade	4.6	7.7	12.9	13.8
Public service	.6	.9	2.5	2.9
Professional service	2.7	3.9	6.0	6.8
Domestic and personal service	9.7	9.5	10.8	10.3
Clerical occupations	2.5	3.9	7.8	10.5
Total number	12,505,923	29,073,233	48,829,920	52,735,000

Table IX shows a considerable decline in the percentage of persons engaged in agriculture from 1870 to 1940. In numbers, however, 10,471,998 persons were engaged in agriculture in 1930 as compared to 5,919,987 in 1870. The estimate for 1940 is 9,271,998. Over the period indicated, transportation and communication, trade, and clerical occupations show phenomenal gains. In 1870 only a few more than half a million people were engaged in trade, whereas more than seven millions were engaged in trade in 1940.

Table X shows a further occupational breakdown of the population by decades from 1870 to 1930.

(What is the significance for unemployment and economic security when such a large per cent of our population is engaged in occupations other than those concerned with primary production?)

The Movement of Population Cityward. — Fifty years ago the United States was very largely a rural country. Recently,

[1] Adapted from Anderson and Davidson, *op. cit.*, pp. 16–17, 1940.

[2] 1940 figures are estimates made by statistical projections.

TABLE X. PERCENTAGES SHOWING THE PRIMARY DIVISIONS OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1870–1930 [1]

Division	Percentage						
	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930
Gainful workers	32.4	34.7	37.2	38.3	40.6	39.6	39.8
Children under 5 yrs.	14.3	13.8	12.4	12.1	11.5	10.9	9.3
Children 5–15 yrs. idle	10.7	6.8	6.8	6.7	3.8	3.7	2.9
Persons in school	16.6	19.8	18.6	17.7	19.6	20.6	22.7
Housewives	21.3	21.9	21.7	21.6	21.2	21.5	21.3
Adults in institutions	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
Not accounted for	4.4	2.6	2.9	3.1	2.8	3.1	3.4

however, the trend of population movement is toward the city. This trend toward the cityward movement or urbanization of population is indicated in the following tables.

TABLE XI. PERCENTAGE URBAN OF THE TOTAL POPULATION, BY SECTIONS AND DIVISIONS, 1890–1940 [2]

Section and Division	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
United States	35.4	40.0	45.8	51.4	56.2	56.5
The North	44.9	51.3	57.8	63.3	67.2	—
New England	66.8	72.5	76.3	79.2	77.3	76.1
Middle Atlantic	57.7	65.2	71.0	74.9	77.7	76.8
East North Central	37.8	45.2	52.7	60.8	66.4	65.5
West North Central	25.8	28.5	33.3	37.7	41.8	44.3
The South	16.2	18.0	22.5	28.1	34.1	—
South Atlantic	19.5	21.4	25.4	31.0	36.1	38.8
East South Central	12.7	15.0	18.7	22.4	28.1	29.4
West South Central	15.1	16.2	22.3	29.0	36.4	39.8
The West	37.3	40.6	48.8	52.6	58.8	—
Mountain	29.3	32.3	36.0	36.4	39.4	42.7
Pacific	42.5	46.4	56.8	62.4	67.5	65.3

[1] Harlin, Ralph G., and Givens, Meredith B., *Recent Social Trends*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934, p. 274. Accurate figures for 1940 have been hard to secure.

[2] From the *U. S. Census Reports on Population*, 1880–1940.

Table XII shows the percentage of the population of the United States living in cities of specified size:

TABLE XII. PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION IN URBAN PLACES OF SPECIFIED SIZE, 1900–1940

Size of Places	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
2,500 or more	40.0	45.8	51.4	56.2	56.5
10,000 or more	31.8	37.0	42.4	47.6	47.6
25,000 or more	26.1	31.0	35.8	40.2	40.1
50,000 or more	22.4	26.6	31.0	35.0	34.4
100,000 or more	18.8	22.1	26.0	29.7	28.9
500,000 or more	10.7	12.5	15.5	17.1	17.0
1,000,000 or more	8.5	9.2	9.6	12.3	12.1

The great urban growth from 1920 to 1940 was in suburban areas and the outer zones of the city, rather than in the more densely populated central areas. Towns and cities within the shadow of great cities also showed a very rapid growth from 1920 to 1940.[1]

Beginning in 1930, the depression drove many people back to the country from the cities. This movement continued through 1931 and 1932, but was so checked by 1933 that the number going from rural areas to cities was greater than those participating in a back-to-the-farm movement. Some of those going back to the farm settled on subsistence homesteads; however, most of them settled on farms of nonhomestead type.

If industry should ever decentralize, without a doubt the urbanward trend of population will be checked. As good roads are extended from city to country, and as better means of transportation are employed, a proportionately larger part of our

[1] For a more detailed discussion of urban population trends, see the chapter on "Some Problems of the City."

The figures in Table XII were taken from the U. S. Census Reports on Population.

population is likely to live in suburban areas far from the center of our large cities.

(Study urban growth in your state during the last thirty years. Why do people migrate from city to farm? from farm to city? Discuss the relative advantages and disadvantages of urban and rural life.)

Courtesy Farm Security Administration

GREENBELT, MARYLAND

One of the government's resettlement projects.

Other Population Trends. — Recent releases of the National Resources Committee, based upon reports of various state planning boards, indicate other important population trends, which are likely to take place in the future. These trends are based on the continuance of present immigration laws and present trends in birth and death rates. These reports indicate:

1. That the population of the United States will become stabilized about 1960;

2. The future population distribution will depend in large measure upon the development of the country's natural and industrial resources;

3. That during the next 25 years the proportion of the population over 60 years of age will be approximately doubled;

4. That the number of young people under 20 years will decrease in about the same amount as those over 60 will increase;

5. That occupational characteristics of the population will change and that as the mechanization of agriculture and industry increases, opportunities for employment in such new fields as education, conservation, recreation, and service occupations will increase.[1]

[1] National Resources Committee, press release, October 16, 1935, pp. 1–2.

To clarify some of the trends indicated in the previous discussion, the data below are indicative.

TABLE XIII. AGE COMPOSITION OF THE UNITED STATES [1]

Age Groups	U. S. Census Percentage			Predicted Future Age Composition	
	1870	1930	1940	1950	1980
Under 20 years	50	38.8	34.5	30	25
20–60 years	45	52.6	54.2	57	55
Over 60 years	5	8.6	10.4	13	20

TABLE XIV. CHANGES IN AGE COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES [2]

Year	No. Persons Under 20 for Each 100 Persons Aged 20–60 Years		No. Persons Over 60 for Each 100 Persons Aged 20–60 Years
1900	90		13
1935	68		17
1975 (predicted)	45		34
	Number of Persons Over Specified Ages		
	60 Years	*65 Years*	*70 Years*
1930	9,309,142	5,888,658	3,301,868
1940	12,542,964	8,004,611	4,505,217
1980 (predicted)	31,308,000	22,051,000	14,086,000
	Median Age of the Population		
1930	26.5 years		
1940	29.0 years		

[1] National Resources Committee, *Report on National Planning and Public Works*, Part 2, pp. 92–97, Washington, D. C., 1934.

[2] Preliminary report on the number and proportion of persons 65 years old and over from the Bureau of the Census, April 23, 1941.

The foregoing tables show the changes in age composition of the population of the United States from 1870 to 1940, and also indicate an estimate of the future age composition of the population for certain decades.

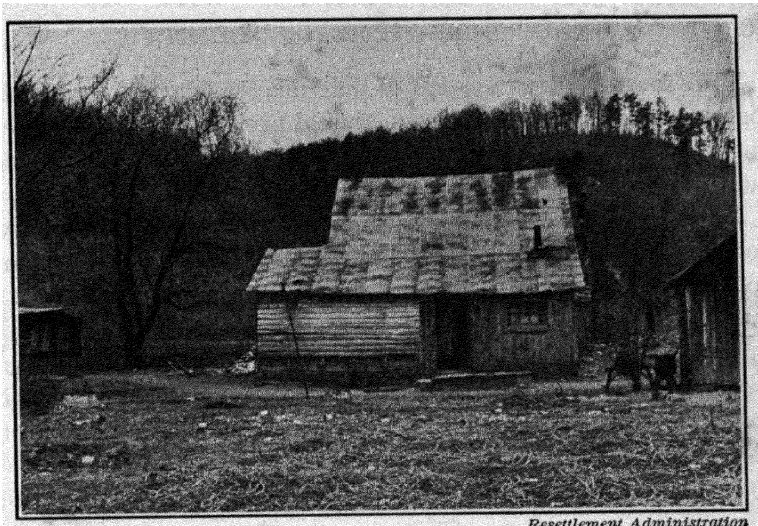
We see, then, that the future population of the United States is likely to be characterized by a smaller percentage of younger persons in the total population and a larger percentage of older people. This trend is due to an increase in the life span or length of life and to the declining birth rate. We see that persons 65 years old and over in the United States numbered 8,956,206, or 6.8 per cent of the total population, on April 1, 1940. In 1930 this age group contained 6,633,805 persons, or 5.4 per cent of the total population. There were thus 2,322,401 more such persons in 1940 than in 1930, an increase of 35.0 per cent, as compared with an increase of 7.2 per cent in the total population.

The Problem of Quality of Population. — If, then, there is some likelihood that the United States will face a stationary population about 1960, as many predict, we must increasingly give attention to the conservation of our population and to the improvement of it. Some of the ways by which this can be accomplished are:

1. Through increased attention to bringing about a decline of the death rate through public health education, maternal health and child health services, through regular health examinations, improved health clinics, and an improved and more accessible system of hospitalization.

2. Through the educational and vocational rehabilitation of the blind, the deaf, the lame, and other handicapped groups, certain elements in our population may be rehabilitated.

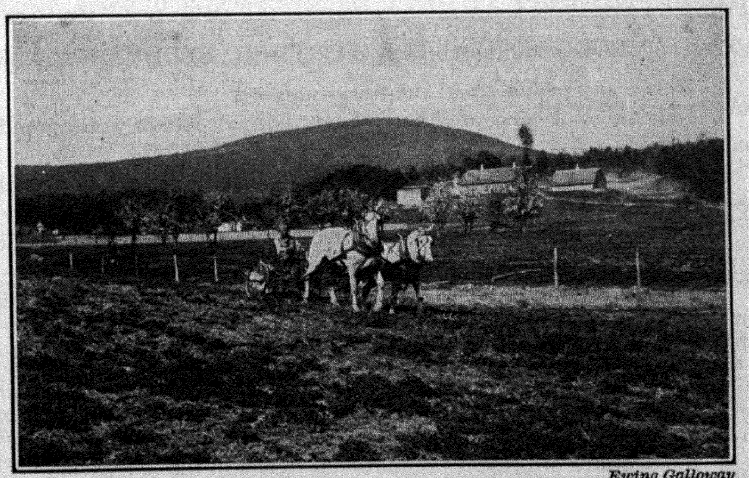
3. An improved and more accessible system of public education would aid in the more effective development of our population.



Resettlement Administration

TOO PRIMITIVE!

Scenes like this drive young people and adults from the country to the city.



Ewing Galloway

CLOSE TO NATURE

Scenes like this make man want to live in the country.

4. A more modern system of marriage regulation, emphasizing physical and mental fitness, should prevent, to some degree, uncontrolled and unregulated reproduction among the inadequate of our society.

5. Improved housing and living conditions should improve not only the physical but the moral and mental health of our population.

6. The extension of public welfare organizations, designed to look after the welfare of needy groups, especially children, should insure that all children in need of such service will, in the future, have the protecting influence and care of the state and federal government back of them.

(List all the functional ways you think of by which the population of your state, your county, and your city may be improved. How would you characterize a population of high quality? Write a brief essay on "The Possibilities of Improving Our Population through Eugenics." Find out what is meant by "negative eugenics"; by "positive eugenics.")

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. How many people could the world support?
2. Indicate your concept of the present danger spots in world population.
3. Pick out any overpopulated country and make a special study of its population problems.
4. What may be some important outcomes of the effect of aging upon the American population?
5. What are some of the educational implications of an older population?
6. Current population trends in the United States.
7. Population changes in my state, 1930 to date.
8. What may be done to improve the quality of the people of my community?
9. Implications of present occupational trends in the population.
10. What was the effect of World War II upon marriage and the birth rate in the United States?

VOCABULARY STUDY

environment	caribou	differential death rate
density	birth rate	primary
nationalistic	death rate	urban

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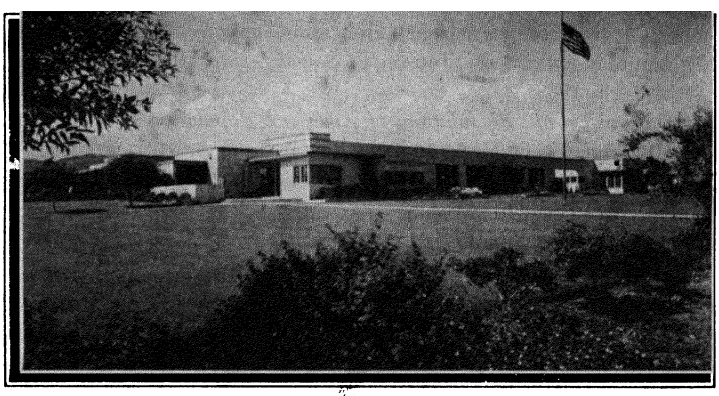
CHAPTER IV

BIOLOGICAL FORCES IN INDIVIDUAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Man the Key to Cultural Development. — Society results from the ability of man to build, borrow, preserve, and transmit the elements of a culture.

In the preceding chapters we listed the human resources of the world society and analyzed various aspects of American



THE ROOSEVELT SCHOOL, SANTA MONICA, CALIFORNIA
Here directed learning is applied toward education.

democracy. In this chapter and the next two we shall discuss the three great forces which unite to determine man's individual, social, and cultural development. These forces are biological, geographical and cultural.

Learning. — Man cannot develop unless he learns. We may think of learning as of two kinds, a process and a product. The

process of learning is the *mental activity that affects our behavior.* The *product* of learning is the matter acquired, as when we speak of a learned man.

A good many authorities [1] differentiate between learning and education, preferring to look upon *education* as *directed learning* and upon learning in a much broader sense. According to these authorities, we may have learning without education but not education without learning.

(Criticize the statement: "The end of education is to make of the educand an educator" — the pupil his own teacher?)

Intelligence. — Partly as a result of his inborn equipment and partly as a product of his learning, man shows the greatest intelligence of any form of animal life. His ability to build, preserve, and transmit a culture is due to his intelligence.

Intelligence may be defined as the ability to adjust one's self to relatively new situations. Here stress is placed upon the term *relatively new,* because few situations are entirely new.

In measuring intelligence, time as well as achievement must be considered. This means that intelligence should be measured by the formula: $\text{Intelligence} = \frac{\text{Achievement}}{\text{Time}}$.

If one solves correctly a problem in algebra in a reasonable time, he demonstrates intelligence, for he shows the ability to adjust himself to a relatively new situation.

The means ordinarily used to measure intelligence is some form of intelligence test, with the unit of measurement expressed in the form of an *intelligence quotient* or I.Q. The specific formula used for determining the I.Q. is:

$$\text{Intelligence Quotient} = \frac{\text{Mental age in months}}{\text{Chronological age in months}} \times 100$$

[1] As, for example, Professor Theodore H. Eaton, of Cornell, in his *Education and Vocations, College Teaching,* and his *An Approach to a Philosophy of Education,* both published by John Wiley, New York.

For some years there has been a tendency to classify people into four or five groupings on the basis of intelligence ratings. More recently these ratings have been broken down into more groups, or, in other words, the scores are spread. The following table shows the wider range in I.Q. groupings:[1]

TABLE XV. CLASSIFICATION OF I.Q.'S ON THE L-M STANFORD BINET INTELLIGENCE TEST

Range of I.Q.	Class Description	Approx. Per Cent of Population	Range of Probable Mental Age
Above 150	Near genius	0.1	22.50-above
130–149	Very superior	3.0	19.50–22.49
115–129	Superior	14.0	17.25–19.49
85–114	Normal	66.0	12.75–17.24
70–84	Dull	14.0	10.50–12.74
60–69	Borderline	2.0	9.00–10.49
40–59	Moron	1.0	6.00– 8.99
20–39	Imbecile	*	3.00– 5.99
0–19	Idiot	*	0.00– 2.99

* Less than one per cent.

Bernreuter and Carr state that "an idiot" is a person who will, when an adult, have a mental age (M. A.) of three years or less. An "imbecile" is one who will not obtain an M. A. high enough to learn to read. A "moron" is one who can master a certain amount of school work, but whose mental level will be below that of the average fifth grade child.[2]

(Devote a critical laboratory period to a careful study of intelligence tests.)

Individuals differ, not only in amounts but in types of intelligence. Some can deal with abstractions, some with

[1] Adapted from Bernreuter, R. G., and Carr, E. J., "The Interpretation of I. Q.'s on the L-M Stanford Binet," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 29: 312–314, 1938.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 12–14.

manipulations, while others have mechanical intelligence. People may show a high degree of social intelligence but may not be able to do abstract thinking or to show manipulative intelligence.

Furthermore, in speaking of the intelligence or capacity of individuals, some authorities indicate three degrees of development of intelligence: potential, matured, and trained. *Potential intelligence* is the ultimate limit of one's ability to learn. *Matured intelligence* is that part of potential intelligence which has been developed at a given age. *Trained intelligence* is natural capacity plus accumulated experience in using that capacity.

(Cite examples of trained intelligence as against potential or natural intelligence.)

Inherited Tendencies to Behavior. — It is generally agreed that man is born with certain tendencies to behavior, but these tendencies are hard to classify. Man is born with a reflex system which at birth seems to be common to all people. A *reflex* is the simple automatic reaction of an organ, like the knee-jerk, salivary secretion, or the winking of the eye. Besides the reflexes, there are inborn motives or drives which may be thought of as unlearned tendencies to behavior.

Psychologists differ greatly as to the number of inborn tendencies and the particular assortment of tendencies which they are willing to approve.

J. H. Bradley, an eminent English authority, believes "the will to live" is the most fundamental biological drive. He says:

For however much the behaviour of living things of different kinds may differ in detail, the main needs of life that prompt the behaviour are the same. The same urge of life is shared by plant and animal, by amoeba and by man, showing itself in organized activity, co-ordinated in effort for the maintenance and extension of the life of the organism. All such

purposive effort — purposive, in this sense, even if completely unconscious — is a manifestation, we must infer, of the integrated principle at work in all, which . . . "sleeps in the plant, dreams in the animal, and wakes in man." [1]

Here crawl we
Through the long lusts of tribulation,
Mastered by nothing save the
Will to live.

— EDGAR FOXALL in "Flux, 1939" [2]

Some authorities[3] classify the inborn tendencies into hunger drives and aversion drives. Among the hunger drives are to be found food hunger, sex hunger, and contact hunger or gregariousness. Examples of aversion drives would be the aversion to pain and the aversion to restraint. Among other original nature traits frequently listed by authorities are the traits of acquisitiveness and the maternal and paternal tendencies. Some hold also that temperament is an inborn trait, while other authorities believe that it is largely acquired.

(Observe very young children and make a study of traits which you believe were inborn and those which you believe were acquired.)

Physical Characteristics of Man. — Man has distinctive physical equipment which not only gives him superiority over the animals but which accounts for his ability to learn and his ability to develop a culture. We have already discussed some of these traits, but there are others.

In the first place, man has a *complex brain*, which is especially developed in those brain areas where the seat of learning is presumably located. The *erect stature* of man frees his forearms for use, gives an advantage in vision, and perhaps plays an

[1] Bradley, J. H., *The Will to Live*, Allen and Unwin, London, 1941.

[2] Taken from *The Water-Rat Sonata and Other Poems*, The Fortune Press, London, 1940.

[3] As, for example, Constantine Panunzio in his *Major Social Institutions*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1939.

important part in the development of speech. Coupled with erect stature is the *structure and position of the eyes,* which gives a decided visual advantage over most animals, some authorities believe over all animals except birds and the giraffe. The *movable fingers and opposable thumbs* of man rank high among his remarkable physical attributes. Also the *length of the life span* of man enables him to learn, experience, and accomplish a great deal in a lifetime. Tortoises may live 200 years and elephants 100 years, but man's life span is longer than that of most animals. During his entire lifetime man may continue to learn, though after twenty-five years, the *rate of learning* usually declines.

Human Nature and Personality. — We usually use the term "human nature" to denote those characteristics which are distinctive with the adult human being and which set him apart from the animals. Man is not born with all the attributes of human nature; he acquires them from his social environment. If this is true, the idea that human nature cannot be changed is wrong. Human nature can be changed.

Personality is our *social stimulus value,* measured in terms of the others' reactions to us, rather than of ours to them. Thus *others* determine *our* social stimulus value, while *we,* measure *theirs.*

Personality is revealed through physical characteristics, mental attitudes, and activities chosen. Thus personality is not something hazy with which one is born, but something to be acquired and developed. Sometimes a person who is crippled develops a charming personality because of his mental attitude, which is so fine as to compensate for other personality traits.

(How may you develop desirable personality traits? Set aside a week in your school as "personality week" and develop a program for the improvement of personality in your institution.)

Summary. — These, then, are some of the more important biological factors in the social development of man. A superior intelligence accounts for his learning ability. This ability makes his education possible. Added to these are certain inherited tendencies and physical characteristics which make it possible for man to build and maintain a great culture.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Conduct a laboratory study in the interpretation of intelligence test scores.
2. Make a study of undeveloped intellectual resources in your community.
3. Study the opportunities or lack of opportunities for training intelligence in your community.
4. "The mute, inglorious Miltons" — some causes in my state.
5. "A Program for the Development of My Personality."
6. Report on "Introvert and Extrovert Personalities and What May Be Done about Them."

VOCABULARY STUDY

learning	I.Q.	potential intelligence	human nature
education	M. A.	matured intelligence	personality
trait	moron	intelligence	introvert
reflex	imbecile	original tendency	extrovert

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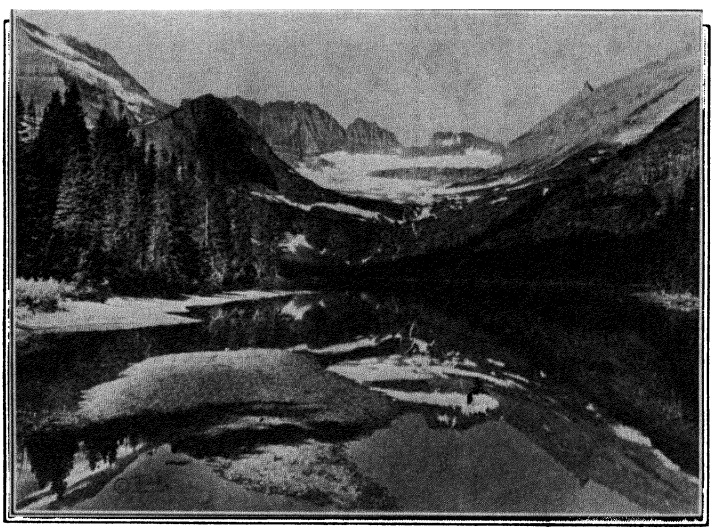
CHAPTER V

GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF MAN'S CULTURE

Man, Geography, and Culture. — In a primitive society, culture is the result of the interaction of two great forces or factors — man and the geographical environment. After



Courtesy Great Northern Railway

LAKE JOSEPHINE IN GLACIER PARK

A beautiful but unproductive geographical environment.

a tribe has made some inventions, has established some customs and habits, then culture becomes increasingly the result of three factors — man, geographical environment, and the existing cultural base, which we shall discuss in the following chapter.

Let us cite an example of what we mean by the above statements. Primitive Eskimos, for the most part, had only themselves (man) and their environment (geography) from which to make their living and from which to fashion a culture. Consequently, they built their houses of skins and snow blocks, subsisted largely upon sea animals, and used the fat or blubber of the whale or seal for heat and light.

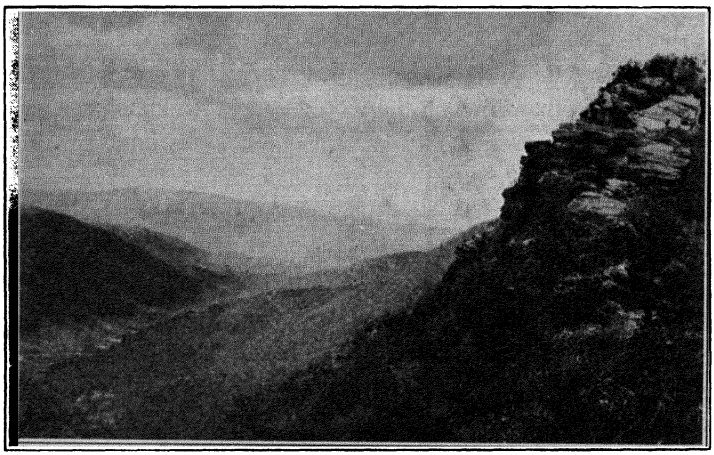
When Admiral Byrd, however, made his voyage to the South Pole, he had three factors at his disposal — man, the geographical environment at the Pole, and a world culture, a complex cultural base, from which he could select modern scientific instruments to measure weather conditions and position; cameras with which to make photographs; refrigeration, by which fresh fruits were transported to the Pole to prevent scurvy. Thanks to developments in the preservation of foods, canned foods were also taken along, which made the Admiral fairly independent of the food supply which existed at the Pole. Airplanes were also taken to the Pole, to be used in making long trips, offering a sharp contrast to the dog sleds which many Eskimos have to rely upon. Stoves were on the equipment list of Admiral Byrd, as well as materials from which cabins were constructed. Radios were used to keep in contact with the rest of the world.

To cite another example, the Los Angeles and New York City water systems show how, by modern engineering, man can overcome the obstacles of nature in obtaining one of the basic necessities of life — water.

The descriptions given above show very clearly that as we build up a culture we become more and more independent of the materials of our immediate environment, and that we borrow cultural traits from other cultures.

(Cite examples of how elements of culture overcome some of the geographical handicaps of your community.)

Geography — Determiner or Conditioner? — Some of the earlier writers in the field of human geography held that geography determines the nature and distribution of economic, social, and political institutions, and that religious beliefs and psychological attitudes were the direct products of geographical factors. This theory came to be known as the *theory of geographic determinism.*



Thompsons, Incorporated

IN GREAT SMOKY MOUNTAINS NATIONAL PARK

Geographic factors are of prime importance in influencing social conditions.

A more modern view holds that geography acts as a conditioning rather than a determining influence in the lives of a people.

We know that land and climate, plus the stage of development of agriculture, determine the food supply, and that physical nature is the primary source and sustainer of life. This means that land is our basic national underpinning, a fact which is very important in sociology.

The soil furnishes the minerals and chemicals needed by plants and animals. This means that a depleted soil may mean a depleted people. Lack of calcium in the diet produces

rickets and weak bone structure. Teeth require calcium, phosphorus, ultra-violet rays, and ascorbic acid for their development.

Temperature, altitude, climatic change either limit or stimulate the energy of a people. Topography may affect the population growth and the rate at which culture spreads from one area to another. As an over-all statement, we can say, then, that geography does not *determine* so much as it *influences* or *conditions* human beings and their culture.

(Using your state as an example, cite some of the conditioning influences of geography as they affect the life, labor, and health of the people of your commonwealth.)

Important Elements of the Geographical Environment. — Let us now break down the geographical environment into some of its important elements.

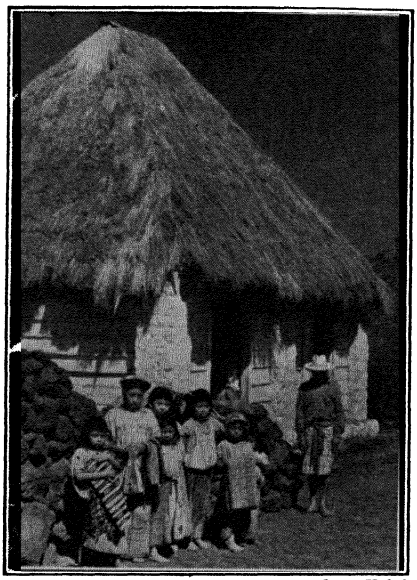
1. *Climate*

a. Rainfall governs to a large degree the crops which can be grown, whether lands can be cultivated, and whether the agricultural arts of a people are likely to center in livestock production or in the cultivation of plants. The seasonal distribution of rainfall will often determine whether irrigation will have to be practiced. If rainfall is heavy in winter and relatively light in summer, waters may have to be impounded behind dams during the rainy seasons and then released for irrigation purposes during the dry summer months. Approximately twenty inches of rainfall are necessary for the growth of most crops.

The rainfall of a region will determine also the amount of water resources available for the development of hydroelectric power.

b. Temperature is another important factor governing the habits, customs, and cultural traits of a people. The crops of a region, the length of the growing season, types of clothes worn, types of homes built, kinds of diseases, and the like, are greatly

determined by temperatures. Skyscrapers would not likely be constructed in the torrid zone, nor would furnaces be used. On the other hand, Panama hats and linen suits would not be worn in the far North in winter.



John Kabel

PEOPLE LIVE AT HIGH ALTITUDES IN GUATEMALA

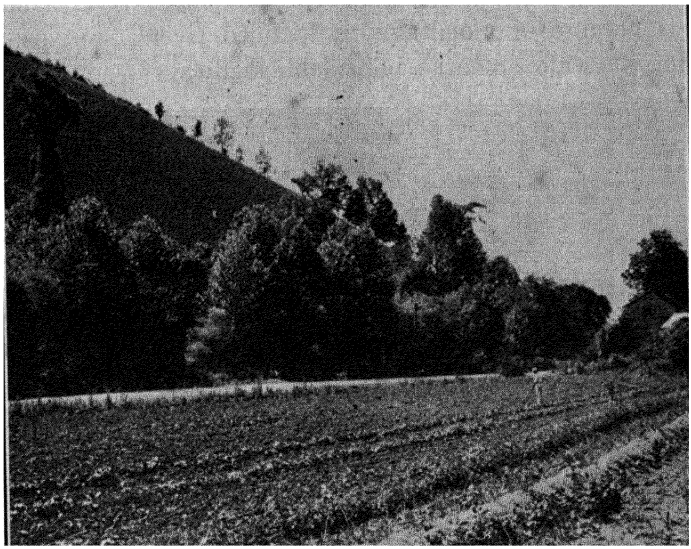
The temperate zone seems most suitable, all things considered, for building highly complex cultures. The temperate climate with its variable temperature and weather conditions is stimulating, and the temperature is suitable for industries of diverse types. Temperature also greatly affects the pigmentation of the skin of a people as well as their energy.

c. Altitude, which perhaps might well be discussed under topographical features, has a variable effect upon peoples. People who live at high altitudes, as in the Andes Mountains, are likely to have larger lung capacities because of the scarcity of oxygen in the air than people who live at sea level. Altitude also affects temperatures, length of the growing season, and rainfall. Altitude, because of the association of high altitudes with isolation, has always been an important obstacle to the free movement of populations.

2. *Topography*

Since certain phases of topography were discussed under "Temperature" and "Altitude," we shall not go into a detailed

account of it. A country with an uneven topography does not make for the monotony of landscape which one finds in plains regions. The topographical features of a country will also determine the types of agricultural methods used. In the hill



Tennessee Valley Authority

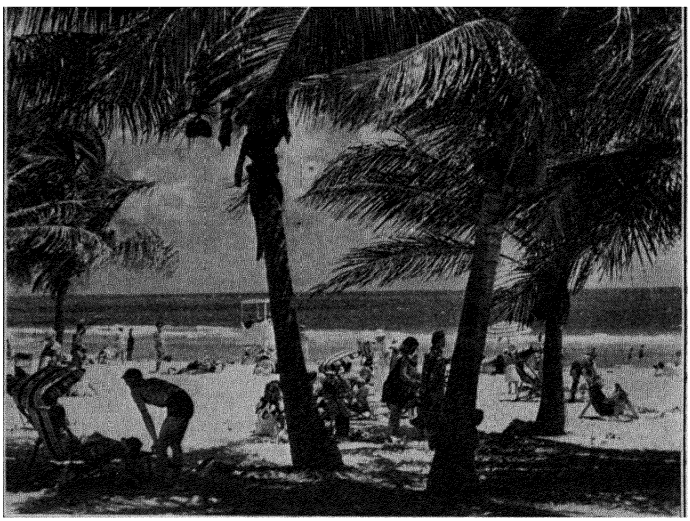
SLOPE-CROPPING IN THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIANS

Obviously, the topography of the mountainous section of this region is not well suited to machinery.

country of the Appalachians, one could not use combined harvesters as he would in the western wheat regions, although some wheat is grown in the Southern Appalachians.

The topography surrounding a city may determine whether its water supply is a gravity system or one which demands the use of pumps. Topography, *i.e.*, bays, harbors, rivers, river mouths, and the like, formerly determined the location of cities to a large degree. In ancient times, certain cities were built on hills, or, in a few instances, in swamps, for protection.

Topography, especially mountains, plays an important part in determining the movement or circulation of peoples. In spite of the great improvements we have made in overcoming isolation, there are thousands of "pocketed Americans" today, isolated from cities, towns, and other communities and neighborhoods because of mountains, unspanned rivers, swamps, or, during the winter months, impassable highways.



THE BEACH AT MIAMI
Swimming is a sport greatly affected by topography.

The sports of a people are greatly affected by the topographical features. One cannot go skiing on the plains unless an artificial skiing platform is erected from which to get a start. Tobogganing and mountain climbing also belong to the mountains. The kind of wild game to be found in a region is also determined to a degree by the topography of the region. Topography determines to no small degree the frequency of assemblage of people for sports.

3. *Rocks and Minerals*

Rocks and minerals are to a large degree the raw products of industrialization and are likely to determine to what extent a region may be industrialized and the type of industries which are likely to develop. Coal, iron, and lime determined very largely the industries of Birmingham, Alabama, and the presence of crude oil determined the major industry of Oklahoma.

Modern transportation, however, is making cities and industries less dependent upon the geographical resources which lie at their door. To cite an example: Akron, Ohio, is the largest rubber manufacturing center in the world; most of its raw rubber, however, comes in the raw state from South America, as no raw rubber is produced in Ohio.

4. *Electromagnetic Factors*

These could properly be included under climate. By these factors we mean air currents, ocean currents, as the Gulf Stream or the Japanese Current, winds, as trade winds, tornadoes, and the like. These condition climate to some extent and also affect the types of crops which may be grown. In a wind-swept country, one is not likely to grow corn or wheat, while well-built houses and storm cellars are likely to be characteristic of homestead planning in a tornado-swept area.

5. *The Organic Environment*

Up to this point, we have neglected to say anything about the organic environment present in every geographical environment, unless it be a desert, where plants and animals are scarce. By organic environment we mean the plant and animal life of an area, including fish and other animal life of streams. Perhaps man has made more adjustments in his organic environment than in his physical. Man alters his organic environment in three ways, namely:

a. By the destruction of those plants and animals which are detrimental to him, or, at least, not beneficial. Sometimes man goes to the extreme in this destruction and later has to develop conservation methods to protect wild game and forests.

b. Man also alters his organic environment by improving plants and animals which are useful to him. The development of Indian corn to a point where the quality, size, and production of it has been greatly increased is a good example.

TESTING PLANTS IN AN EXPERIMENT STATION
We alter our organic environment by improving plant life.

c. Then, too, man alters his environment by introducing improved varieties of plants and animals from other cultures into his culture. Many of America's leading breeds of dairy cows, hogs, sheep, and horses have been introduced from the British Isles. The United States Department of Agriculture has at all times a group of scientists scouring the earth for new, improved, and potentially useful plants. Thus man alters his plant and animal environment by introducing new species from other environments.

(Make a study of the Byrd expeditions to the South Pole to determine how they made adjustments to geographical conditions while

there. Study the various ocean currents to determine their influence upon climate. Make a study of sports in the United States to determine how they are influenced by geographical factors.)

Natural Resources and Permanent Democracy. — Among the ramparts of our democracy, which are rapidly being weakened, are our natural resources.

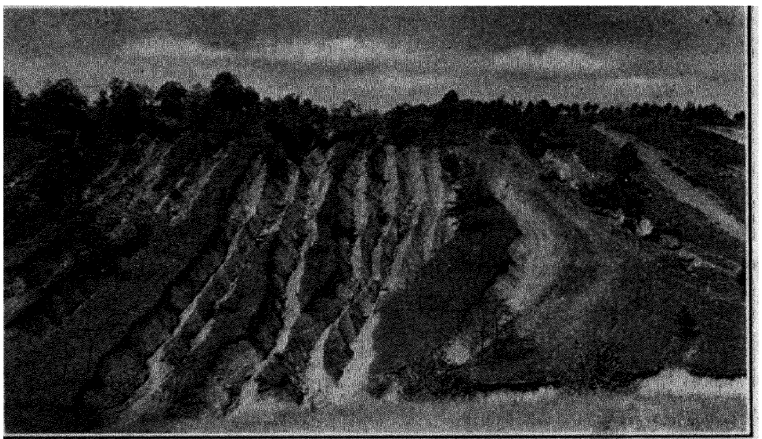
The culture or civilization of a country is the result of the interaction of the earth, what the earth offers, and man. Our natural resources act as an underpinning for our capacity to bring into being and to maintain a democratic way of life.

We are told that we have exhausted some 28 per cent of our iron, 52 per cent of our copper, 66 per cent of our lead, 55 per cent of our oil, and 23 per cent of our anthracite coal. It is claimed, furthermore, that out of about one billion acres of so-called agricultural lands in the United States, 500 million have been cultivated, and of these, 100 million have been ruined by erosion.

There is great need in this country for a new philosophy of natural resources which would lay stress, in theory and administration, upon the fact that land is the basic underpinning of the national security of our country. Those countries appear to be most democratic where a great love and affection for the land has been created.

This social philosophy of natural resources involves the responsibility not to waste natural resources but to use them wisely and, wherever possible, to replace the exhaustible elements of the land and the flora and fauna which dwell upon it and in its streams. This philosophy recognizes the need for governmental control and rehabilitation of natural resources, with emphasis on the view that this role is not incompatible with effective democracy but complementary to it.

The importance of the natural resources of our land — any land, for that matter — as a rampart of democratic life creates



Tennessee Valley Authority

EROSION AT WORK

Eroded soils due to improper use are common in many sections of the United States.

R. I. Nesmith and Associates

FIGHTING EROSION

Strip-planting on hillsides is one of the most effective ways to combat erosion.

a new perspective for rural-urban interests and their role in establishing a new mooring — the land and man's responsibility to it — for rural-urban co-operation and possibly national and international co-operation.

(Work out a policy for the use of the natural resources of your community. Why is land an important rampart of democracy? How might international good will be created by the development of rivers, boundaries, etc., by countries bordering each other which are mutually affected by these rivers or boundaries.)

Isolation. — Before we discuss isolation, let us see what is meant by the term. As we shall see in the following chapter, by isolation we mean a limitation of the opportunity for contact and for stimulus and response. The form of isolation most often thought of is spatial or geographic isolation, by which a people are cut off from the contact, the stimulus, and the response of other regions. As man has built roads, invented and manufactured automobiles, utilized radios, airplanes, telephones, and telegraphs, he has to a large degree broken down geographical isolation. The rural free delivery mail service furnishes a fine example of how spatial or geographical isolation has been broken down in rural areas by furnishing the rural dweller a means of communication and contact with other sections of the country.

As an example of geographical or spatial isolation, let us quote from Miss Elizabeth Hooker's *Religion in the Highlands* a paragraph which shows the seriousness of the problem of isolation which exists in certain of the more remote mountain communities of the Southern Appalachians, sometimes called the Appalachian Highlands. Miss Hooker says:

The Highlanders have been isolated not only from the outside world but also from other parts of their own region. Families are separated from one another by steep hills, unbridged streams, and tortuous ways. Good as main highways now are, road improvement has failed to reach a

large part of the area. Many a county has just one gravel road, of very recent construction, which connects the county-seat with that of an adjoining county. The other roads are frequently very rough; for some months in each year they are full of deep mud holes, and over large stretches of territory they follow for much of the way the rocky beds of streams. Nearly three farms out of five are on unimproved roads. Plenty of farms are not on any road at all, but are dependent on a bridle track or a log

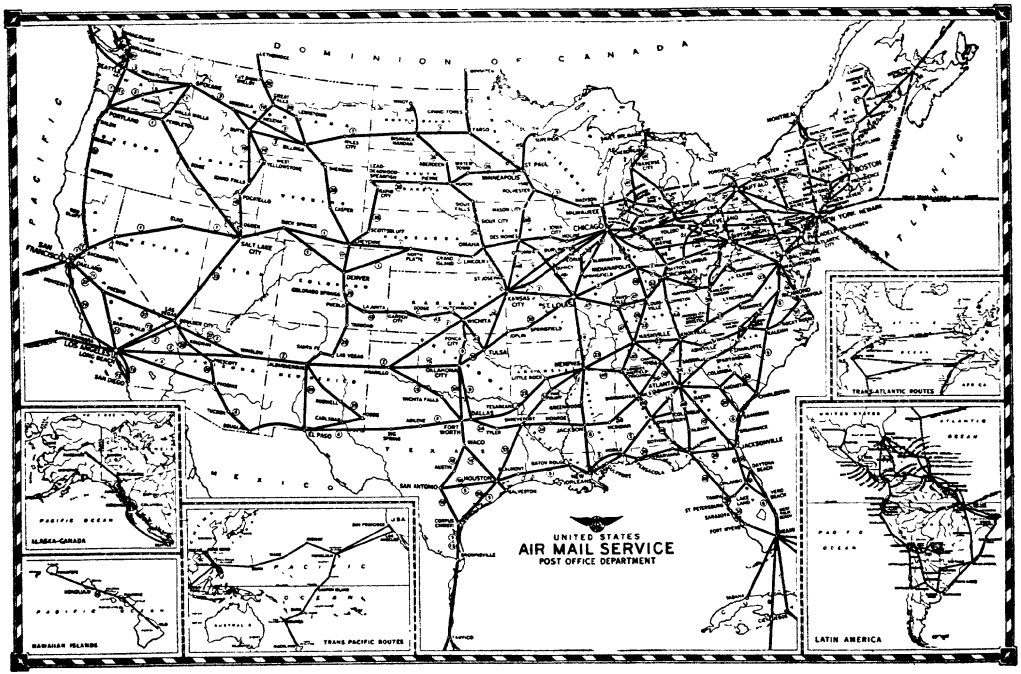
Pictures, Incorporated

THE QUEEN MARY

The ocean liner has been an important means of breaking down isolation between nations.

footbridge. In time of annual floods, the country people of many districts are obliged to stay at home, or to wait "water bound" wherever a ford proves too deep to cross. A great majority of the families are without telephones — all except those in favored valley sections or along through lines. Mail service for many neighborhoods is provided only three times a week; and to get an answer from a valley five miles away might be a matter of several days.[1]

[1] Hooker, Elizabeth R., *Religion in the Highlands*, The Home Missions Council, New York, 1933, pp. 50–51.



THE MAIL SERVICE IS THE GREATEST CURE FOR ISOLATION

Turning to one of the outposts of the British Empire, Tristan da Cunha, we see another example of isolation:

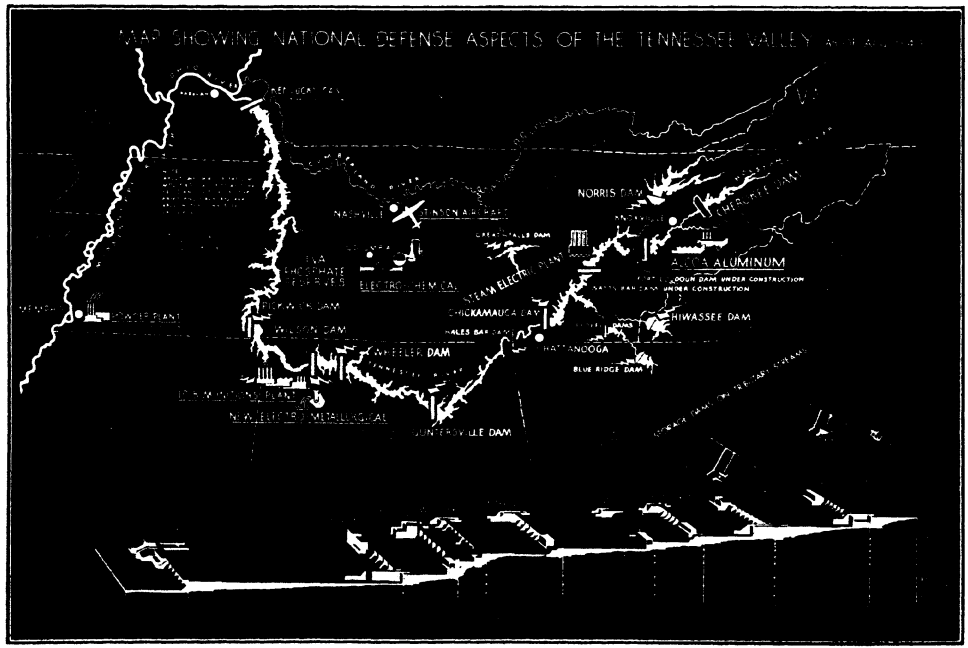
> The main occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture, and their staple diet is potatoes. When the crop fails they are faced with want, and only the timely arrival of a ship will relieve them from their misfortune. The rough seas and the difficult coast make fishing only a profitable pursuit at the right time, which however is not often. Yet the islanders are excellent sailors, and the history of the island, studded with records of shipwrecks, proves the excellence, beyond praise, of their able seamanship. Now, in the days of the steamship, they are even more isolated, for the island is well off the beaten track of ocean liners and is only visited once a year so that much-needed supplies may be landed.[1]

There are other forms of isolation, some of which are much more serious than geographical isolation. We shall mention these in the following chapter.

(How does isolation affect the habits and attitudes of a people? Critically evaluate the definition of isolation given in this chapter.)

Utilizing, Disciplining, and Conserving the Geographical Environment. — We in America have been rather careless about the way in which we have utilized our geographical environment, particularly those elements of it which we call natural resources. We have wasted our natural resources on the assumption that they were inexhaustible. A new social philosophy of conservation takes the viewpoint that each generation is the custodian of the natural resources of a land, which are to be held and used wisely for the next generation. We denuded our forests by wasteful lumbering methods, and today, to prevent further wastage of soil, we are instituting reforestation programs. In many areas, the soils have been utilized in such a way that the land has become infertile and has eroded to a degree that it is no longer profitable for either cultivation or grazing.

[1] Review of *I Went to Tristan*, by Allen B. Crawford, in *London Times Literary Supplement*, April 19, 1941.

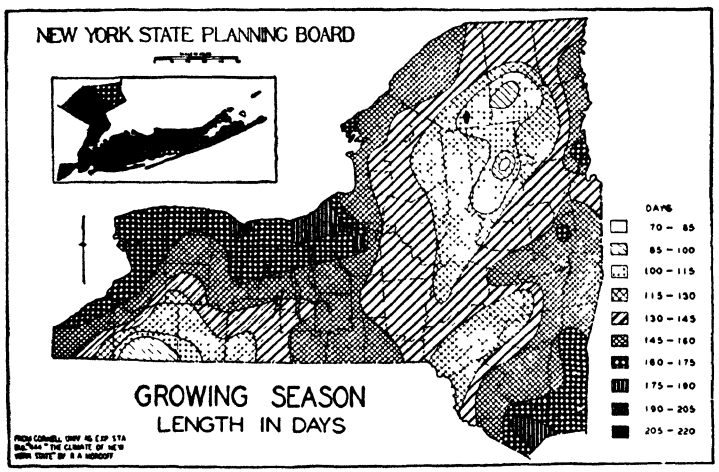


Tennessee Valley Authority

HARNESSING THE TENNESSEE

Many expensive dams have been built across streams, but, because of the lack of a plan for preventing soil erosion in the vicinity of the dam basins, they soon fill with silt to an extent which greatly impairs their efficiency.

Certain natural resources also need to be disciplined. An uncontrolled river may be the cause of floods, soil and crop loss, and may, during the flood season, imperil human life; but when



The growing season is one phase of our natural environment which we have been unable to regulate.

once the same river is disciplined by spanning it with dams, the water supply may be used to minister to human needs through the generation of electric power, through providing facilities for recreation, water for irrigation, transportation, and the like. The illustration on page 95 shows disciplinary methods applied to the Tennessee River which will eventually involve the spanning of the river with ten or more dams.

Among the most uncontrollable factors in the geographical environment are the ocean tides. These tides may yet be harnessed to produce water power for great hydroelectric plants.

Fairchild Aerial Surveys

A Flood Scene near Lowell, Massachusetts, 1936

An undisciplined river may be a potential menace to human life.

United States Soil Conservation Service

A Mid-West Dust Storm in Action

The storm was about ten miles away from where the photographer was standing.

We have not learned to regulate climate to any degree, nor can we bring about rainfall during dry seasons, but we have learned by science how to overcome some of the obstacles or hardships of climate. Through artificial air-conditioning, we may now be comfortable in large buildings, trains, and ocean liners, during the hottest months of the year; and by heating them, we may be warm in winter. Through plant breeding, we are constantly pushing the line of cultivated plants into colder countries. Through the use of electrically heated greenhouses and hotbeds, we are now forcing the growing of plants, thus overcoming the handicap of short growing seasons and making out-of-season vegetables available at any other season.

(Make a study of the need for the conservation of natural resources in America. What resources are in danger of becoming extinct? Study the various phases of the conservation program of the Federal Government. Make a study of the program of the Tennessee Valley Authority. What is meant by a region? What are some important regions in the United States? Are there regional differences which affect occupations and habits in your state?)

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. How is man altering climate?
2. What is meant by man-made topography?
3. List the inventions which have aided in overcoming isolation.
4. How does isolation affect individual and social development?
5. What tides and trade winds influence the American climate?
6. Study the sections of the United States which are most isolated.
7. Study the different theories regarding the effect of geography upon individuals.
8. Why is the preservation of the land basic to a continuation of our democratic social order?
9. Work out a policy for preserving the natural resources of your community.
10. Present in written form your philosophy of the conservation of natural resources.

VOCABULARY STUDY

culture	organic	stimulus
topography	mineral	response
isolation	spatial	illiteracy
conservation	disciplining	region

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CHAPTER VI

HOW OUR CULTURAL HERITAGE CONDITIONS US

The Impact of Heredity and Culture. — Where a child is born into a family, it is likely to bear a striking resemblance in physical characteristics to its father, mother, or perhaps a grandfather

Courtesy Columbia Broadcasting System

A MODERN BROADCASTING STUDIO

No invention has done more than the radio for the diffusion of culture.

or grandmother. This process of transmission of physical characteristics from parent to child is called *inheritance.* The resemblances in physical characteristics between parents and children are thought of as "innate," "inherent," or "hereditary" characteristics.

When, however, the child we are speaking of grows into manhood, he is likely to align himself with some political party and may be called a "Democrat," a "Republican," or less likely, perhaps, a "Socialist." By the time he has reached maturity he is likely to have acquired a moral code, or set of ethical principles, which control his behavior to a marked degree. He was not born with such a code, but acquired it through his family and other groups. The young man also knows how to read and write; perhaps he has mastered a trade and has accepted a religion. He has acquired certain very definite viewpoints about the world in general. Such traits are called *acquired* characteristics. All of these *acquired* characteristics are part of his *cultural heritage* and have become as much a part of the life of the young man and have modified his behavior fully as much as his inherited characteristics. In the making of a man, then, two great forces, *heredity* and *environment,* are at play. Making up the total environment, we find the geographical environment, the people with their social environment, and the cultural heritage, which has been perfected by past and present populations. *By the cultural heritage is meant that part of the social order which may be passed on from one generation to another, or which may be transmitted from one individual or group to another individual or group.*

(Prepare a report on how the cultural heritage influences personality. Make an inventory of your characteristics, attitudes, and desires, to determine which were acquired and which were inherited.)

The Content of the Cultural Heritage. — When one surveys the world around him and examines critically its content, he finds it composed of individual and group creations which are *material* and other group creations which are *nonmaterial.* The material creations are known to the sociologist as *artifacts,* while he uses the term *mentifacts* to designate the nonmaterial creations.

Some of the more important artifacts are the various tools and inventions which we use. Hammers, guns, bows and arrows, automobiles, airplanes, ships, railways, wagons, houses, and barns are examples of artifacts.

Ewing Galloway

A VARIETY OF ARTIFACTS

The thoughts of buyer and seller are mentifacts.

Mentifacts, on the other hand, are not physical objects, but ideas, thoughts, concepts, attitudes, principles, and the like. Money is an artifact, but one's code of morals is made up of mentifacts, as is one's philosophy of life. Mentifacts often terminate in artifacts. For example, one may get an idea relative to an invention, the idea being a mentifact; but he may develop from the idea an invention, a physical object or apparatus, which may properly be called an artifact.

(List the leading artifacts and mentifacts common to your culture.)

How Culture Grows. — The cultural heritage of any particular locality may grow by three methods.

In the first place, cultural heritage grows by *invention* and *discovery*. These inventions and discoveries may be either the result of trial and error and, therefore, often accidental, or they may be the result of purposive planning, of the type which is carried on in some of the larger research laboratories of every modern nation.

Culture in a locality may also grow by the *diffusion* of cultural traits into the locality from other localities or other parts of the world. The tobacco habit, which apparently originated in America and which has spread throughout the world, is a good example of the diffusion of a habit or trait. A style which originates in Paris or New York may in a few months be diffused throughout the western world. This process of diffusion of cultural traits is sometimes spoken of as *borrowing*.

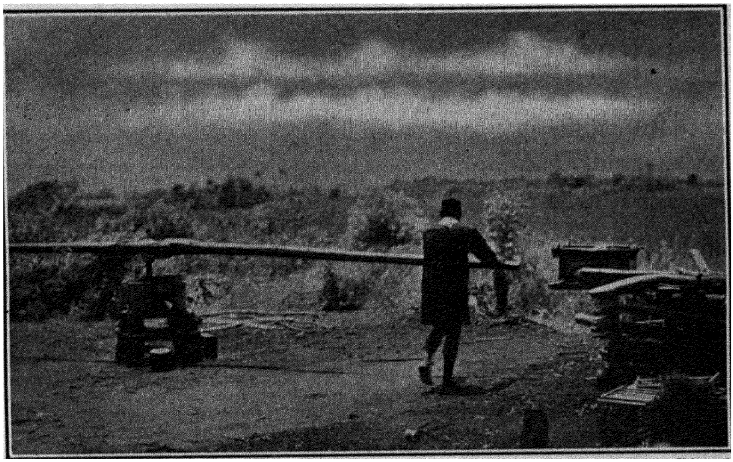
The cultural heritage of a locality may also grow by the *transmission* of cultural traits from one generation to another. This brings about a piling up or *accumulation* of cultural traits to which every new generation adds certain additional ones. To cite an example or two. It is claimed that the airplane is built on the mathematical principles perfected by Euclid and Pythagoras. The American Constitution goes back to English precedents and many of the English precedents extend back to Roman law. The modern process of milling grain may be traced backward through successive stages to a point where men pounded grain with stones, which they held in their hands.

(Give examples of how culture has grown in your community through invention and through diffusion. Work out examples and show how culture accumulates.)

The Transmission of the Cultural Heritage. — "Where one generation leaves off, the other begins," is an adage as old as history itself. The very fact that this statement is true is the basic reason why it is possible for the human race to progress. The reason why the statement is true is that it is possible for the cultural heritage to be transmitted from one generation to another.

There are two methods by which the social heritage is transmitted, namely:

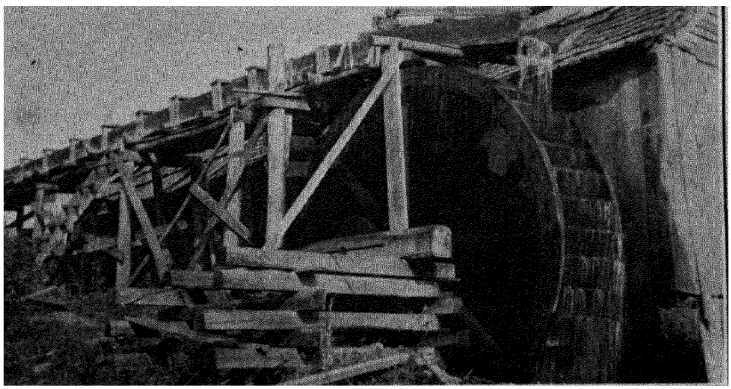
1. *Informal methods,* as casual conversation, observation, approval and disapproval of acts, and the like. The home is



American Museum of Natural History, Photograph by Julian A. Dimock

SEMINOLE INDIAN OF THE FLORIDA EVERGLADES GRINDING CORN

This operation represents somewhat of an advanced step in milling, for when corn first was ground, it was probably merely crushed between two stones.



AN OLD MILL

This water-driven mill exemplifies one step in the evolution of the milling of grain.

without a doubt the most influential agency concerned with the informal transmission of the cultural heritage.

2. *Formal methods*, as teaching, punishment (as in the infliction of punishment by the state for a crime), the enforcement of laws, religious training by the church. The school, however. is

Courtesy New York Central System

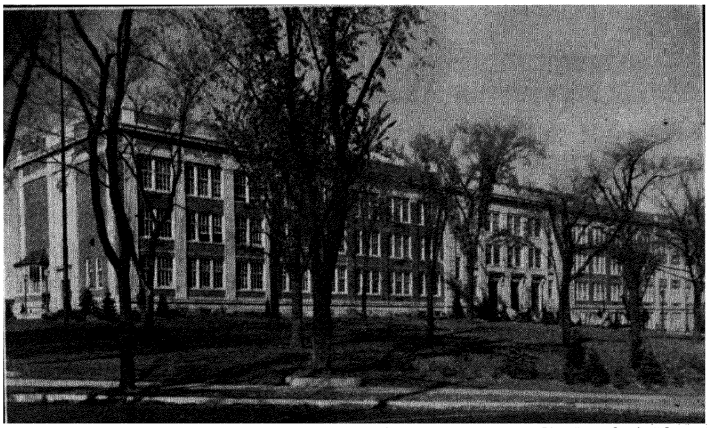
INFORMAL CONVERSATION

An important medium for the transmission of our cultural heritage.

the largest single agency which attempts the formal transmission of cultural heritage from the adult to the younger generation.

Through these two methods, then, the formal and the informal, each new generation receives the cultural heritage of each past generation and each member of the present generation is influenced by this process of transmission to a point where his likes and dislikes are very similar to the majority of individuals in the groups within which he lives.

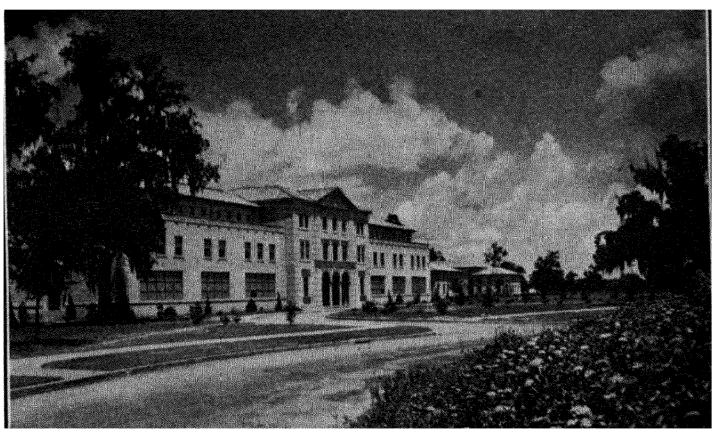
(What valuable training do you get in the school which you do not get in the home? What training do you get in church which you do



Courtesy Minneapolis Board of Education

A MODERN SCHOOL

The school is an important formal agency for the transmission of the cultural heritage. The junior high school shown here is one of the many fine schools by which we strive to preserve and improve our heritage.



Courtesy Louisiana State University

HIGHER LEARNING

One of the functions of higher institutions of learning is the preservation and perpetuation of certain elements of the cultural heritage. Shown above is the Music and Dramatic Arts Building, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.

not get in school? How does the enforcement of laws bring about a formal transmission of one phase of the cultural heritage?)

Obstacles to the Transmission and Diffusion of the Cultural Heritage. — Not all people share alike in the cultural heritage. To many people, the fruits of both the present and past heritage are denied. A discussion of why this is true necessarily involves a discussion of the obstacles to the transmission of the social heritage, some of the more important of which are indicated below.

1. *Isolation*

Isolation is one of the major obstacles in preventing all people from sharing equally in the nation's culture.

The sociology pupil must dismiss from his mind the idea that there is only one form of isolation, that is, geographical isolation. He must take a broader view of isolation and conceive of it as *the cutting off, or the limitation, of the opportunity for stimulus and response.*

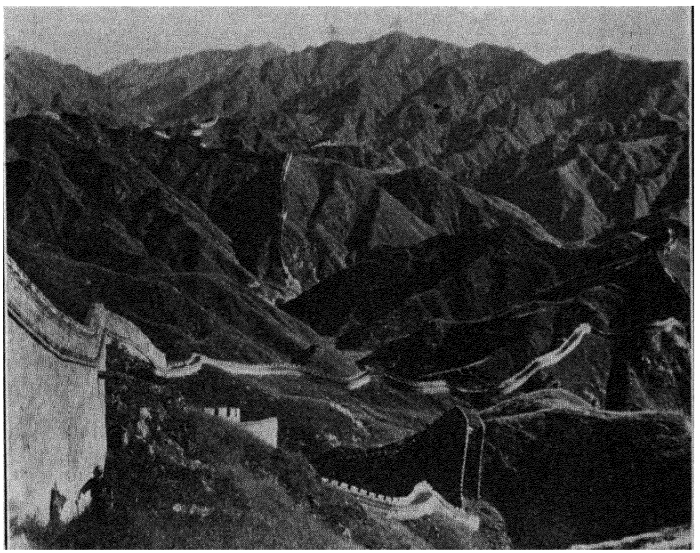
Some of the more important forms of isolation are:

a. Geographical or spatial isolation, which was discussed in the preceding chapter.

b. Isolation produced by physical deficiencies. — A person may be isolated because of a physical deficiency, as blindness, deafness, muteness, color-blindness, sickness which confines one to bed, and other forms of physical deficiency, or defectiveness.

Educational programs which aim at the rehabilitation of the defectives are gradually pointing the way to overcoming isolation inflicted by physical deficiencies. The blind, through the use of the Braille and the "talking book," are taught to read; the near-deaf, through the use of scientific instruments, may now hear; while lip-reading furnishes a means of conversation for the mute. Through books, newspapers, magazines, the radio, and conversation, many invalids keep well informed as to what is going on in the world.

c. Illiteracy. — When a person cannot read, he may be said to be isolated to the degree that he is cut off from much of the cultural heritage because of his inability to learn, through reading, what is taking place in the world of affairs. Likewise, the person who cannot write is cut off from one method



© *White Brothers*

THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

This huge rampart, over fifteen hundred miles long, more than fifty feet high in some places, and sometimes over twenty-five feet thick, protected China against invasion, and isolated her from her northern neighbors.

of expressing or transmitting the cultural heritage. The printed page is also a major method for preserving the social heritage.

d. Social isolation. — There are also certain types of isolation which are socially determined. A person of one race may be isolated by another race. A person of one social class may be isolated from another social class, or an individual belonging to a

certain caste, as one of the castes of India, may be isolated from participation in another caste.

Whenever isolation thus prevails, no matter what type it is, it is an obstacle to the transmission of the cultural heritage.

2. *Lack of Mental Capacity and the Presence of Mental Defectiveness*

These deficiencies are obstacles to the transmission of the cultural heritage simply because the person affected may not possess the ability or capacity to learn or acquire knowledge of the cultural heritage.

3. *Lack of Desire or Unwillingness to Learn*

This is another obstacle to the adequate transmission of the cultural heritage. Many men are never up to date with reference to world affairs, because they are unwilling to give up an idea when there is fairly clear evidence that they may be wrong. A high school or college student may have the ability to learn, but he must acquire the desire to learn before he may reap the rewards in formal educational training or schooling.

(List as many causes of isolation as you can. How would blindness or deafness prevent your sharing in the social heritage as you might? How might this difficulty be overcome? How might race prejudice prevent one race from sharing fully the culture of another race? On a map of the United States, sketch in the areas which you consider to be the most isolated. How does illiteracy prevent the most complete transmission of the cultural heritage?)

Cultural Change and Cultural Lag. — Since cultural change is the subject of another chapter, only a few remarks will be made about it at this point. Cultural change is merely deviation from the past. Changes may be slow, or they may be very marked and sudden. To phrase the above statement in a different manner, cultural change may take place through *evolution* or *revolution.*

Sometimes cultural change is rapid in one phase of our culture and slow in another. If problems result from this difference, we speak of *cultural lag* in connection with the lagging culture.

In general there is a tendency for cultural change to take place more rapidly in the technical or material phases of our culture. This is not surprising in view of the fact that our whole economic system is tied up with material things; consequently, the profit motive leads to invention and rapid change in our material culture. Then, too, it is easier to demonstrate the superiority of an improved material item than it is a non-material item. For instance, it is easy to see the superiority of the electric light over the candle or the electric iron over the stove-heated iron. However, it may not be easy for the public to discern the value of a new state constitution over one now in existence.

Many of our activities and habits become institutionalized and thus tend to resist change. We not only fall into group ways of doing things and acquire group attitudes, but we build up an emotional halo around these activities and attitudes which it is difficult for us to get rid of.

The lack of knowledge in a particular field is a cause of cultural lag. For instance, there may be a lag in dietary habits in certain families due to lack of knowledge of proper dietary habits. This lack of knowledge may be due to the fact that a family could not get good dietary information, or to the fact that such dietary information as it could get was too technical to understand. This latter situation is improving, as our sciences are being interpreted in simpler language.

(What have been the most important causes of cultural change in your community? Within the period of your recollection, what have been the most important changes? May cultural change be guided? How? What are the more important cultural lags in your community? Why do they exist? What may be done to overcome them?)

How Culture Influences Us. — Our culture has a strong influence upon us, much of which we accept without question. Socially we are what we are largely as a result of our culture, which is an important guide. By contrast, the lower animals are guided by instinct and survive through their ability to make biological adaptations, whereas man survives largely because of his ability to make culture adaptations. Thus he can utilize the culture which he has built, and build new culture elements. His simple tendencies and reflexes alone would not be enough for survival were it not for the cultural heritage.

(Where did you get your particular political views? Your religious views? Make a listing of the things you did yesterday. In which of these activities were you guided by (1) your biological equipment, and (2) your cultural environment?)

Cultural and Social Progress. — About the only satisfactory concept of progress is to say that progress is movement toward, or in the direction of, a goal or an ideal. There are, however, some indications that the world has made social progress, some of the more important being:

1. The gradual extension of the life span or expectation of life. It is important that one live a long life and also a full life. The sociologist is concerned with both.
2. The increased emphasis upon child-care and protection is another mark of social progress.
3. Advancement in the treatment and healing of the sick certainly indicates progress.
4. The increase in leisure time and the shortened hours of toil of the working man may be considered a positive mark of progress.
5. The removal of drudgery from work indicates social progress.
6. Increased attention to obtaining economic or social security for the masses is an indication of progress in the field of human relations.

7. Increased educational opportunities for the development of the masses.

(Indicate as many indices of progress as you can.)

The Sacredness of the Cultural Heritage. — We sometimes think that our lot is a hard one and that this world is a pretty hard place in which to live. If we will but stop and take stock

Courtesy Pan American

AN APPLICATION OF THE CULTURAL HERITAGE

The ancient Greeks discovered and explained the principles on which modern airplanes are built.

of the sacrifice, bloodshed, despair, and disappointments that have gone into building our cultural heritage into what it is today, we shall come to a point where we shall appreciate that this world is not so bad, after all. Certainly a cultural heritage like that of America is worth preserving.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Report on "Why I Believe What I Believe."
2. The important mentifacts.
3. Mentifacts in my community.
4. Inventions of my community.

5. Specific examples of how culture grows.
6. How the cultural heritage is transmitted.
7. How culture accumulates.
8. Illiteracy as a form of isolation.
9. Isolation in my state or county.
10. Cultural lag in my state or county.

VOCABULARY STUDY

heritage	mentifact	cultural change	isolation
culture	artifact	cultural lag	hereditary
transmission	index	invention	discovery
diffusion	acquired	cultural progress	

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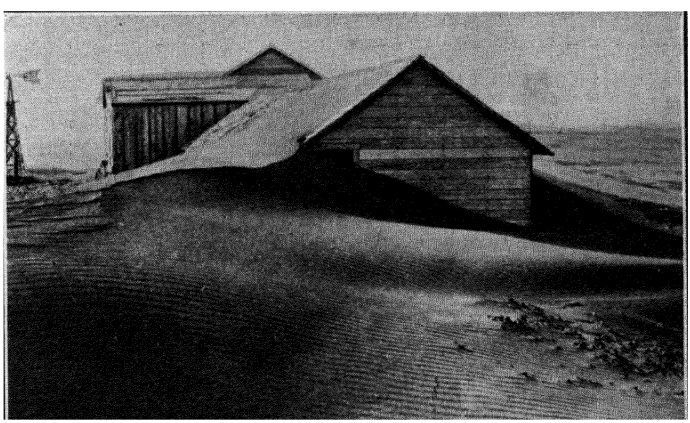
CHAPTER VII

THE ENVIRONMENT AND ITS INSTITUTIONS

Surroundings and Environment. — The most common concept of environment is to apply the term to all the conditions and influences surrounding a people. A more modern and somewhat narrower concept of environment, however, is that



A CHANGED ENVIRONMENT

Drifting sand and dust made many a prairie home worthless in 1934 and 1935.

it is made up of only those forces and factors which *influence* one. If, for example, a man who has plowed over stones in the cultivation of his fields, only to be weary and care-worn at night, suddenly decides that these stones would be suitable for building purposes and then proceeds to quarry and use or market them, this phase of his environment becomes a positive and greater influence.

If a person walks over his lawn, or along the highway, and yet gives no recognition to its flora, it has not become an element of his environment, according to a restricted concept. Suppose, for instance, though, that the same person begins, as an amateur, to study botany and learns to classify the various plants and to observe their characteristics, growing habits, and seeding habits; then it may be said that the flora of the lawn and the countryside have become an environmental influence.

The Indians lived in North America for possibly thousands of years, but the natural resources remained practically unaltered and were largely unused at the time of the discovery of the New World. When the early colonists came to America, they began to utilize and to change the surroundings, which from that time until now have had a profound influence on the lives and habits of the American people.

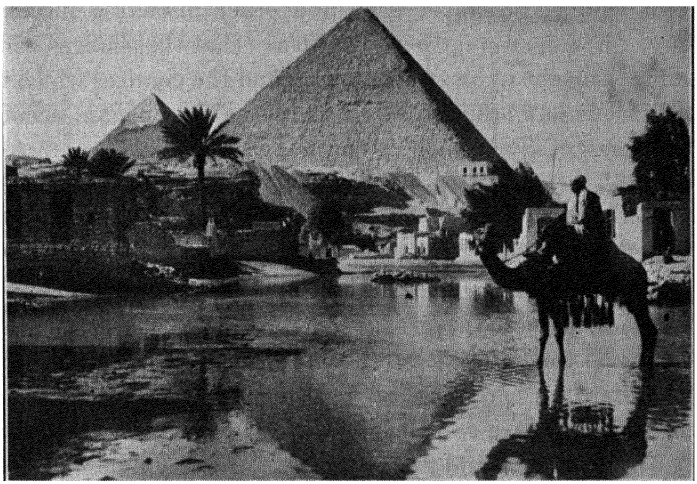
(Discuss the differences between environment and surroundings.)

Types of Environments. — The total environment into which every individual is born, some phases of which begin to influence him from birth, may be divided into two great divisions, the *physical* or *natural* and the *social.* The physical or the natural environment, which we discussed in Chapter IV, once played a greater part in the life of man than it does today. He was largely at the mercy of the climate and the natural flora and fauna as he found them. His food, his clothing, and his shelter were determined by what the natural environment offered him.

Slowly, man has modified much of his physical environment. He has made tools, which have enabled him to cultivate plants and to dominate animal life. Very early in his development he began to domesticate plants and animals in order that they might become his useful servants. He then penetrated the forests, which yielded him fuel, building materials, and dozens of forest by-products.

The physical environment is being more rapidly changed in America today, perhaps, than formerly. Roads and airports are being constructed in every part of the country. Developments in communication have grown steadily until the radio and television have given us instantaneous communication.

The deserts have been irrigated and are producing an abundance of food and products for clothing and shelter. Swamps



Ewing Galloway

THE PYRAMID OF CHEOPS NEAR THE FLOODED NILE

are being drained and are becoming the source of some of our most fertile soils. River valleys are being developed on a regional basis. Such valleys have often furnished a home for civilization around which there were large areas of submarginal lands and marginal peoples. One appreciates this fact when one recalls Egyptian civilization, which Herodotus called "the gift of the Nile." Without the Nile waters, that region today would be a part of the great African desert. The Nile River for centuries furnished the chief means of local transportation as well as communication. Clay and limestone also were

found in abundance and, accordingly, were used for building purposes. The sea and the desert furnished sufficient protection to allow uninterrupted activities on the part of the Egyptians for centuries.

Very early in his cultural development, we find that man began to surround himself with defensive and offensive weapons, which could be used to further his progress as well as to defend himself against beasts of prey and other hindering forces of nature. In conclusion, then, we can say that the changes which man has wrought in his environment, and the changes which the environment has brought about in the habits of man, account for our present civilization or cultural base.

(Contrast the development of the Nile with the development of some of the river valleys in America. Describe your social environment and also your physical environment.)

Contrast of Our Agricultural and Industrial Environments. — In America we have two great economic environments, the agricultural and the industrial and commercial. Let us take a look backward to an early pioneer agricultural neighborhood, consisting of a few farmers, their wives, several children, and possibly other relatives and workers. Separated by miles of forests and mountains from the nearest village, the neighborhood's members carried on alone in a little self-sufficient social and economic world. They built homes from the timber and stone taken from the land, which gave them rough but substantial habitations. The men made most of the furniture and household equipment. Preceding marriage, usually a first crop was made. The wife brought to the new household, from her family, the linens and some clothing, but more important than this, she brought a knowledge of the operation of the spinning wheel and loom, which were adequate for manufacturing more cloth when needed. The pioneer family also tanned the hides of animals and fashioned them into shoes and boots. The

workshop provided most of the implements for the farm, such as harness, saddles, grindstones, hoes, plows, rakes, and other necessary tools. Even nails were made in blacksmith shops.

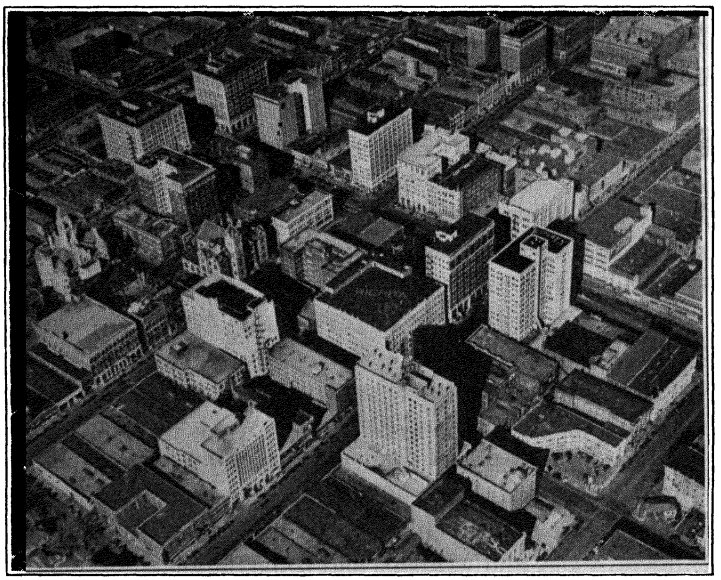
In these pioneer days, transportation was by means of loads carried on the backs of farmers, or, if one could afford it, he used an ox-cart or a horse-drawn vehicle. Communication was largely by word of mouth. Both transportation and communication were slow and not always sure. Life was often dreary, hard, monotonous, and unattractive, when looked back upon from today.

Social contact, while meager, was personal, intimate, and face-to-face. There was little cause for worry about the necessities of life, although luxuries were often the exception. If the bread-winner died, the neighbors came to the rescue of his family and cultivated his crop. If a man was ill and unable to do his work, the neighbors did everything that would have required the owner's attention. Life, because it was co-operative and communal in character, was comparatively secure. Even though it was a life of privation and scarcity, it was somewhat secured by large families, man's attachment to the soil, and his membership in compact neighborhood and primary groups. From the market place only a few necessities such as salt, pepper, tea, nails, metal tools, and weapons had to be obtained.

The rural environment of today, however, has greatly changed. Although isolation is still a factor to be reckoned with in rural areas, the rural environment is spanned by traffic-ways to such a degree that automobile, bus, and railway transportation is accessible to most rural people. The radio also aids the rural population in overcoming many of the obstacles of isolation which may be imposed upon them by either climatic or topographical features. The result of these changes in communication and transportation is that rural peoples are constantly contacting the cities and villages, are more and more on the

move, and are constantly carrying back to the country whatever the city has to offer. Countries, like our South American neighbors, are being fused together by the aeroplane.

Homespun is no longer a custom. No longer does the farm produce all the items of diet. Rural styles are no longer out of date, but conform to the best in the region and the nation.



© *Edgar B. Smith*

WICHITA, KANSAS

A city set in a rural environment.

The medical facilities of the city are available to the farmer to such degree that he need no longer suffer because of the absence of these. Industry has invaded the rural world, and there is in general such an interchange of customs, habits, and traits between the rural and urban environments that some writers have suggested that we discontinue the use of the terms "rural" and "urban" and that we substitute for the two the term "rurban."

Our present *industrial* environment, with its masses of people concentrated in cities, is the outgrowth of the European Industrial Revolution. Since the establishment of factories in America by the colonists, conditions have taken on a very different complexion. The number of workers employed has increased far beyond any estimates of even a few decades ago. The environmental changes caused by this economic system have been far-reaching. Women have firmly established their place in industry. Urban residence is gradually taking the place of rural residence. Tenement districts are today the homes of millions of workers, while the constitutionality of slum abatement was only recently established. Here, laborers live beyond their incomes, which are often inadequate, necessitating public or private aid in case of illness, death, strikes, and seasonal unemployment, particularly during depression periods.

Our industrial environment has also greatly changed our educational system. Opportunities in rural schools rarely compare with those found in the city. While the rural child is getting a bare six or eight months, or less, of schooling, the city child is getting nine or ten. Many potential leaders are also leaving rural communities to cast their fate and destiny with the city, where they believe industrial, commercial, and professional life is easier and more remunerative. Doctors, lawyers, ministers, business men, and men having knowledge of trades are rapidly making their homes in the cities. There have been suggestions that the tenement dweller of the city who is unemployed should return to the country, where he might make a living from the soil; however, there has been no mass movement in this direction.

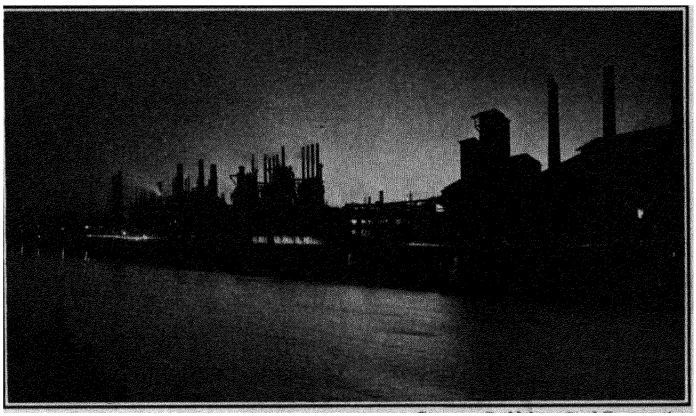
Unemployment, as we shall see in a succeeding chapter, is another outgrowth of industrialization. One of the outstanding environmental changes for the young men of America has been the removal of many of them from the highways and streets and

unwholesome recreational places and the placement of them in Civilian Conservation Corps camps and in schools, part of their expenses being defrayed by the government. This thoughtfulness on the part of the state and Federal governments has meant a new outlook on life for many disheartened youths. Clean and healthful living has taken the place of uncertainty and despair. Education in the fundamentals, as well as training in forestry, has become prominent in these training centers. Mountain sections, which have been practically isolated, have been provided with roads and trails, so that people may hike or drive into these restful retreats, through the efforts of the Civilian Conservation Corps and other work projects designed for the employment of youth.

It is evident on every hand that there are important changes taking place on the land. Change seems to be the essential characteristic of the time. We have changed our ways of living and have increased our demands on life, until it is difficult for a person to be content with less than ten times the amount possessed and enjoyed by early American settlers. It was inevitable that important changes should occur in the life and labor of a people whose physical production has increased twenty-five- or thirty-fold in the last sixty years. Our physical expansion and production have far outrun our political and social development, and even our population increase. The new industrial society has claimed many of the most capable leaders, simply because industry pays high prices for their services. Many of the corporations of the United States are paying their managers salaries much greater than that received by our President. This situation has taken from the professions and from politics many of our most able leaders.

(From an older citizen of your community, or from newspaper files, study the changing industrial environment of your community over the last fifty years.)

Occupational Changes Influencing Environment. — From 1870 to 1940, the population of the United States increased from forty millions to more than one hundred and thirty millions. During the same period, instead of a 300 per cent increase, which was noted in the population, there was an increase of only 8 per cent in the number of persons employed in gainful pursuits. The increased employment since the Industrial Revolution may



Courtesy Bethlehem Steel Corporation

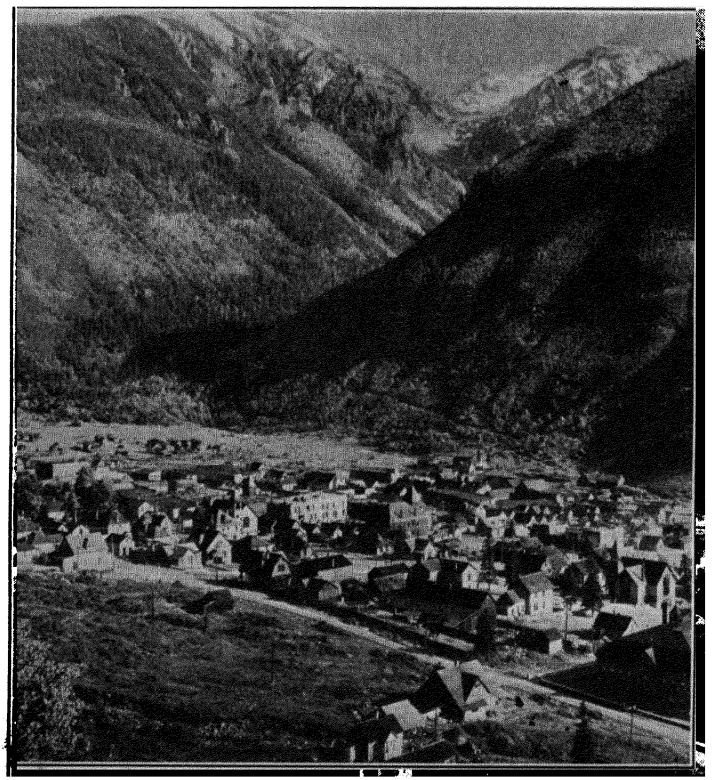
OUR INDUSTRIAL ENVIRONMENT

Our picture is a night scene at the steel works in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.

be partially accounted for by the large number of women who are employed in gainful occupations outside the home. While more women have been employed, the employment of children has steadily declined. In 1890, many children spent a large portion of their time in overcrowded, insanitary factories. Census figures indicate that the children under fifteen years of age made up more than 18 per cent of those gainfully employed in 1890.[1] By 1930, however, this percentage had

[1] The percentage of children between the ages of 10 and 15 gainfully employed by Census periods is as follows: 1890, 11.1 per cent; 1900,

declined to 4.7 per cent of the population ages 10–15 and by 1940 to 4.3 per cent of the ages 14 and 15.



TELLURIDE, COLORADO

One of the country's most picturesque gold and silver mining towns.

Mill and mining communities often furnish an interesting study with reference to surroundings or environment. Social

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18.2 per cent; 1910, 15.0 per cent; 1920, 11.3 per cent; 1930, 4.7 per cent.

opportunities are very limited in many of these towns and villages. Many of the houses built are of the same monotonous type. Large families are often packed into quarters entirely too small. Epidemics of various kinds become common, and social contacts outside the surrounding community are often very rare. Most of the houses are company-owned. The worker trades at the commissary or company store and often spends his wages before he earns them. Many companies issue scrip rather than money for labor. Educational opportunities in many of the communities are meager. Many of the schools are small, and many are poorly equipped. There are, however, some exceptions where socially-minded interests have caused fine communities to be established.

(Discuss the arguments for and against child labor. Why is it necessary that young men and women spend more time in school today than formerly, as a preparation for a vocation?)

The Social Environment. — The social environment, in some respects, exerts a more powerful influence than the natural environment, largely because it exerts a more powerful influence on individual social and moral development. The social environment, as we indicated in the preceding chapter, includes all the physical changes which have been made by man, such as tools, machines, factories, buildings, roads, and means of transportation. It includes attitudes, behavior patterns, the concepts of right and wrong, the accumulated cultural patterns, institutions, and the like. All knowledge, language, art, literature, and religion help to make up the social environment.

The Nature of Institutions. — Institutions are man-made. They were made for specific purposes and, consequently, did not just happen. The institution may be looked upon as one of the outcomes of man's efforts to satisfy his desires in society. Forms of association and behavior patterns which have originated in the past, which have proved useful, and

which are relatively permanent, may be legitimately called *institutions*. The family, the church, and the school may be cited as common examples of institutions.

Basic to every institution is a central idea or purpose which the institution was established to promote. Thus, the church promotes religion and the school, education. Participation in institutions means also that behavior within them is so regulated by custom, law, rules, and regulations that it conforms to the common procedure of institutional life.

Around every institution there grow up a great many sentiments and emotion-provoking experiences. The sacredness of the church, the sentiments connected with family ties, and the traditions of educational institutions are good examples.

Institutions, if they are to be perpetuated, must have structure and organization to promote them. To this end, the church has its church boards; schools, their administrative set-ups; and families, the custom of marriage, delegation of authority, and the like.

(Make a list of all the institutions of your community. What purposes does each serve?)

Institutional Change. — Institutions change. They rarely, if ever, stand still. If they do not progress, they are likely to regress. Inventions and discoveries change. Through birth and death, the personnel of all institutions change, and with each change in personnel, the customs, objectives, and methods of institutions change. When these changes are not progressive, they may result in an institution's lagging behind other institutions to a degree that we may say *institutional lag* results.

(Cite any instances of institutional lag which may exist in your community.)

The Changing Family Institution. — The home has undergone some of the greatest changes of any social institution. The

typical home of pioneer days was, in the main, self-sufficient, as we indicated earlier in the chapter. Most of the recreation consisted of the playing together of the members of the immediate family. There were few commercial amusements, and most of them were looked upon as sinful and wasteful of one's time. The boy learned a trade through apprenticeship to his father,

Harold Davis

HANDICRAFTS IN THE HOME

At one time weaving was a common industrial activity of the home. The above photograph shows a type of hand loom which was common in rural homes of the 80's.

or someone else, and was expected to follow in the occupational footsteps of his father. The blacksmith shop, the field, the forest, the church, and the home furnished the social environment of both child and adult. Girls learned to prepare wool for spinning, to spin it, to weave the thread, and, finally, to manufacture it into clothing for the family. In addition to this, they were expected to help with the cooking, to carry the water,

to do the milking, and to serve as nursemaid to the younger children. Besides looking after the garden and assisting in the cultivation of the crops, girls were expected to do the tasks of sweeping, scrubbing, and laundering. It is little wonder that women were considered old at thirty-five or forty years of age.

The modern home has sometimes been called a "parking place and filling station," inasmuch as many use it only as a place to eat and sleep. In many instances, the family is together only on Sundays or holidays. The educational work of the home is rapidly passing to the school. Religious training has become the function of the church. Social training is largely confined to the groups to which one belongs, and much of it is acquired through imitation. Many girls and boys get married with no regard for, or understanding of, the problems of health or hygiene. Many have little knowledge of finances. Many of them have never studied sociology, psychology, or any of the other subjects pertaining to the behavior of the mind or the training of the individual in the group.

Fortunately, the scene is changing. Courses in homemaking, child care, art, music, and social science are now being offered in both junior and senior high schools. Girls are learning the chemistry of foods, the essentials of budget-making, and the design and construction of clothing. The attempt is now made to give the high school student training in homemaking. Problems of preparing a budget for the twenty-four hours of the day as well as for finances, problems of establishing and maintaining a home, and problems of adjusting the family mentally and socially as well as economically, are considered important aspects of homemaking.

A better understanding of the social life of the family and the importance it plays in holding the family together must needs come in the near future. The radio is now assuming a very

important place in the recreational and social life of the home. After one has labored in an office, factory, or shop all day, it is refreshing to sit at home and listen to concerts by master musicians and master entertainers and a report of the latest happenings of the day. Then, too, if one cares to acquaint himself with the affairs of his government, he may listen to the President of the United States or to some social or economic leader who has given thought and attention to the problems of the day. It is the duty of the homemaker to study and provide for the recreational needs of the entire family, remembering always that the type of recreation must be suited to the particular needs and interests of each individual if he is to enjoy it and profit by it. If there are small children in the home, they must be provided with games suited to their physical and mental development. Children also need a room in which they may play and work. Occasionally, it is necessary to invite into the home other children of the neighborhood in order to aid in the social development of one's own children. If children are given a chance, they will enjoy helping with the lighter tasks of the household. This type of training will help to compensate for some of the losses of the old-type family. In addition, the child should be relieved of financial worry as much as possible.

The mother still occupies the most strategic position within the home. It is the mother who sees to the early training and development of the child. It is she who aids in establishing vital health and social habits. It is the mother who most easily can place the world of reality before the small child. Her love, her gentle and painstaking care, and her intimate understanding should be in every home. The school, or any other social institution, cannot take the place of the home in imparting the proper type of character training and habits to the child. The mother must be a guide, a companion, and a counselor for all the children of the family. Homemaking should be considered an

outstanding profession, which requires more knowledge and skill than any other.

The home which gives steady, well-trained children to society should receive the commendation of thinking leaders. The greatest service which the home can give to the state is that of providing well-developed citizens. The state should furnish the means for additional training for these young citizens. Whatever the local, state, and national governments can do to relieve the burden of parents by providing them with a chance to attain more financial and social security, by allowing them a chance for better preparation for home life, more wholesome housing, and more desirable recreational and social conditions for their children and themselves, should be considered fundamentally important for social and human progress.

(What functions did your grandfather's family perform which are not performed by your family? What new functions are your family performing? Why is the home an important social environment?)

The Changing School. — From its beginning, in which it accommodated the few, the social institution we call the school has become an important social environment for the masses. While many children remain in school for a very short time, there are large numbers who are completing high school and even college. The recent depression has been one in which the officials felt that expenses must be reduced. That supposition was true. While the adjustments were being made, most of the communities chose to reduce the services of the schools. It was reasonable that administrators and teachers should share the burden of reduced budgets, but failure to keep the schools open may appear eventually as a blot upon our social calendar.[1]

Social progress should mean additional social happiness and social security for the masses. Progress requires that we elimi-

[1] For a more detailed discussion, see the chapter on "Education and the Changing Social Order."

nate those factors which imperil or inhibit the social well-being of children. The support of education is dependent upon revenue derived from the public. This is fortunate if society is willing to make the proper sacrifice and expenditures for educational development. It is unfortunate if society feels that

Resettlement Administration

GIVE US A CHANCE!

In many communities the school offers the only hope for many children of the poorer classes. To cut off their opportunities for an education means the elimination of their last hope of ever becoming useful men and women.

the education of today should be on a par with that of a century ago. The environment has changed and is becoming so complicated that one requires more educational training than formerly to travel or to work in a factory, to say nothing of meeting the problems of highly developed professions.

The environment of the modern school is made a living environment for the pupil of today. It is considered an important

part of life as well as preparation for life. Shop work, for instance, no longer means discussions of the theories of the development of machinery, although that receives minor consideration. When the boy enters a class in industrial arts, he begins to make different useful articles or to repair those of his home or school which are in need of repair. Domestic science classes learn the chemistry of foods and the practice of cookery and the development of art in dress and in the home, but this study is in connection with actual practice. The environment of the future designer of clothing is among the materials, patterns, and machinery which go into the actual making of clothing. Students studying hotel management courses engage in actual hotel practice. Those learning the metal working trades are taught to make various salable articles of metal. Social science classes are taken on field trips and excursions and also get citizenship training from classroom situations in the form of debating, public speaking, and other types of self-expression. The library serves as a laboratory for research into the factors which have aided in the development of society. Chemistry and physics laboratories, in the modern school, are workshops in which one experiments in order to see the actual effects of chemicals. English classes re-enact drama, poetry, and prose. Music classes learn to sing or to play by singing and playing. Textbooks published during the last ten years treat of very definite problems or situations in which pupils are taught along lines of reasoning rather than along lines of rote or memory training.

In our present social order, we must conceive of school as including all the activities of wholesome living. We must conceive of education as beginning at birth and extending to the period of old age. Children must be taught that science, literature, art, or any other field of attainment is a servant of man and is intended to be used and not abused or neglected.

(Why does society support schools? Why should schools be public rather than private? What does one learn in school which he does not learn outside? Contrast a day in the schoolroom of fifty years ago with a day in the modern schoolroom.)

The Value of Association. — Association is one of the important means for individual and social advancement. The former prisons of our country were operated by those who believed in solitary confinement. It was thought that this treatment would bring the culprit to his senses and cause him to reform. This procedure proved, however, a very serious and expensive mistake. Solitary confinement breeds insanity, malice, and desire for revenge. It also destroys the health and self-respect of the individual.

Association seems to be nature's way of curing the evils of solitude. The lone child in the family has imaginary companions and playmates. He takes imaginary trips and has imaginary experiences. Many times these companions are given names and important places in the child's imaginary life. The boy or girl who is provided with the proper type of literature has some of the association which is required. This can never take the place of human companionship, which is basic to the satisfactions of normal people.

(What values do you receive from associations?)

Association in Society. — The sociable person enjoys and obtains compensation from the company of others. One reason for the popularity of the church is that it is a social gathering. Some people like to march in processions and wear beautiful regalia, because they like to be seen and also to see others. The school provides one source of lasting friendships, because of the associations it offers. The child likes the teacher who plays with him and who asks him about his interests and activities and occasionally tolerates his errors. He is much more likely to

model his behavior patterns along those of the teacher who is socially prominent.

People always get more excited when playing or associating with others. Children who have been accustomed to imaginary playmates become very much excited when other children arrive. Many times the parents think the children are not courteous, but their behavior is merely an emotional demonstration due to new associations. Children achieve more when working in groups. It requires less time and produces more work for children to work in groups. According to Ross:

> One pupil who took 10 minutes and 25 seconds to do some work alone did it in class in 7 minutes and 30 seconds. Another who took 13 minutes and 11 seconds took 6 minutes and 45 seconds in group. This result tallies with that of Schmidt, who, testing children in their home work as compared with their school work, found that for most kinds of work the product in the classroom was superior. Allport found that over two-thirds of his adult subjects did more mental work in a co-working group than alone.[1]

Associate the individual with wholesome literature, and he will form a taste for it as well as a dislike for unwholesome material. Proper social habits lead to the better type of mental health. The environment of association should be adjusted so as to insure clean and wholesome living as well as all-round development.

Selection of the Proper Associational Groups. — Occupational, religious, and wealth differences may not, in the future, count for as much as they have in the past. Women's organizations, men's organizations, and special groups will always find a place in society. The interest groups of today are more socially-minded than those of previous times. Our discussion groups of today are interested in furthering major projects.

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[1] Ross, Edward Alsworth, *Principles of Sociology*, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1930, p. 97.

The various civic clubs are interested in schools, charities, churches, and organizations which are making progress in society. We have our parent-teacher associations, our forums, our various subject groups, and our purely social groups, which serve a useful purpose. Communication among peoples is always sure to break down the barriers that separate them. We learn to know people by observing what they do as well as by getting their opinions and beliefs.

Political parties afford another example of interest groups. We should regard the party as an organization to carry out the wishes of the people, but many times the selfish interest overshadows the welfare interest, and the political party becomes corrupt. Sometimes an organization like the Ku Klux Klan will seek to use selfish motives in furthering its interests. We have no need for invisible governments or empires in a democracy. If social changes are necessary, public opinion can secure them. If there is not enough participation by the people, they should assert themselves and secure it.

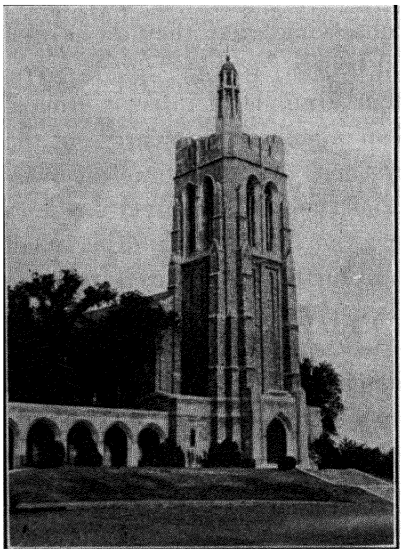
Interest groups such as the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts, the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., the Y.M.H.A., and the Y.W.H.A. should furnish wholesome surroundings for social development. Some provision should be made to include the child of the less fortunate home in these character-building organizations.

(Do you select your associational groups? In what way? Do you prefer a particular political party? Why? What interest groups would you like to belong to? What other interest groups would you like to belong to? What points would you consider before joining a group? List the reasons why you have joined certain groups or organizations.)

Religious Influences in the Environment. — Most of the great religions of the world preach the doctrine of toleration. No person is willing to tolerate the beliefs of another, unless he understands something of them. The church is a great socializ-

ing environment, which must be made tolerant in order to be effective.

In a state-supported church, one often finds elaborate and beautiful services conducted, although few persons are present, save the clergy. No one takes notice of the absence of the members, for, after all, God is being glorified, and the minister or priest is receiving his salary. But the people do not continue the support of such a church because of its non-social environment, and eventually there is a separation of church and state.



A Social Institution of Merit
The church is a mainstay of civilization.

The member-supported church expects the pastor to visit among the members and to develop some personal relationships with them. The minister, rabbi, or priest who can call his membership by name always commands a greater respect and exerts a greater influence. A people-supported religion may be practical in its spirit, but it is also expected to produce other results. The more loyal members will develop hope, courage, and unselfish attitudes. There is much moral and social work to be done by the American churches, and the average man is more ready to listen to an appeal from a churchman than from the person who is less prominent socially.

Churches, to form the proper environment, should not engage in secret politics, controversies, dogmatism, and intolerance.

Co-operation in civic, social, moral, and welfare movements should be the rule. Churches should never encourage their membership to make the social life of the church the only type in which they participate.

In short, the church should serve as the spiritual and moral guide of the community. It should lay the ethical patterns and should co-operate with all community organizations in the fostering of the general welfare. The church should become a democratic organization, which will aid all of the various organizations that are striving for social betterment.

(Write on the need for church and religion in modern society.)

Conclusion. — One's environment is very important and should be given the utmost consideration by those who have charge of shaping it. The social environment will have much to do with determining our political, religious, social, and cultural welfare. The modern youth must become more socially minded in order that there may be a more wholesome regard for others. We must study the various phases of our environment and aid in shaping it so that it may better humanity.

There is no doubt but that our social surroundings are changing rapidly. We must welcome the changes and prepare ourselves to take advantage of them. Social frontiers are numerous, and many of them may be hard to conquer, but knowledge will overcome these obstacles and enable us to conquer if we are willing to experiment and follow the findings of our experimentation.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Trace the causes for the development of our physical environment.
2. Show the differences between the physical and the social environment.
3. Show how man changes his physical and social environment.

4. Debate: "Resolved, That heredity is a greater social force than environment."

5. Show why the home remains a strong social influence.

6. Show how the church influences your community.

7. Plan a program for a more effective institutional life in your community.

8. What facilities are needed in your community for improving the associational life of the people?

VOCABULARY STUDY

environment	monotonous	auditory	association
Nile	recreation	visual	group

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PART II

IMPORTANT SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN LIFE

CHAPTER IX

PERFECTING A SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

The Problem of Balance and Harmony. — When there is relative balance between what the people need, are able to buy, and what they have to sell, and when there is relative harmony among the classes of a population, one may say that social organization exists.

It implies balance between the major activity fields of the social order. Some of these important balances are balanced human relationships; balance between capital and labor; balance between the number of persons available for jobs and the number of jobs available; balance between law enforcement and crime, and an absence of crime waves; balance between family disorganization, on the one hand, and family organization on the other; and, finally, balance between the degree of social change and the degree of social control. The most ideal society looks beyond balance to a social order in which social problems are reduced to a minimum.

If the social order is such that normal men and women can live in decency and health; can develop to a high degree of efficiency their innate abilities and talents, and then have the opportunity to exchange these developed talents and abilities

on the job in such a way that a good day's work, of significant and satisfying type, is exchanged for a good day's wage, one may say that social organization exists.

Social organization did not exist on May, 1935, when every sixth person in urban areas and every eighth person in rural areas was on relief. In that month, eighteen million persons in our country were on relief, of which three million were Negroes. This condition represents an unbalanced relationship between the number of men available for jobs and the number of jobs available, and may properly be looked upon as an indication of social disorganization.

(What phases, if any, of social life in your community are disorganized? State which ones and the apparent causes of the disorganization.)

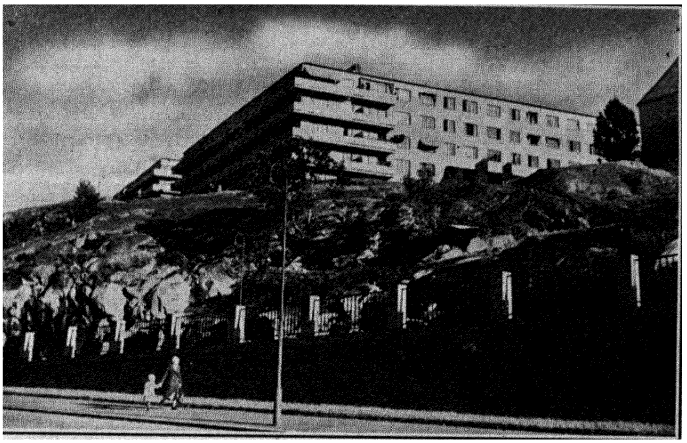
No Perfect Social Order. — Except in the writings of Utopians, there is no ideal picture of a perfect social order or a perfect scheme of social organization. There is some disorganization in every society, however good it may be. Utopias are beautiful social orders to visualize, and it is splendid to read of them and look forward to them, however difficult of attainment they may be. But human beings have not yet arrived at that stage of development where these utopias are soon likely to become realities. We no doubt shall reach, in time, a point in individual development, and shall become such masters of the science and art of human relations that it may be possible to maintain a social order with only a small degree of disorganization. Until that time comes, we must satisfy ourselves in the production of a social order in which there is only a minimum of disorganization. Countries like Denmark and Switzerland have shown a small degree of social disorganization when compared with the United States. We must remember, however, that these countries are small, a fact that is certainly conducive to a highly integrated society. One wonders how, with our

country as large as it is, we have escaped a greater degree of social disorganization than we have had.

(As a group, study some of the major works of utopian literature, as, for example, More's *Utopia*, Plato's *Republic*, Bacon's *New Atlantis*, Harrington's *Commonwealth of Oceana*. Write on your concept of what you would consider to be a perfect social order. You may treat the subject generally or confine it to your town, city, community, county, or state.)

Aids to Social Organization. — One of the most far-reaching aids to social organization is some form of *governmental structure*. Wherever territories are concerned and a large number of people are involved, it is absolutely necessary to have some form of governmental structure to unify and control the diverse interests and needs of the population. This governmental structure is not only necessary to protect the masses against the selfish interests of the few, but is a necessity in giving aid to those who cannot help themselves.

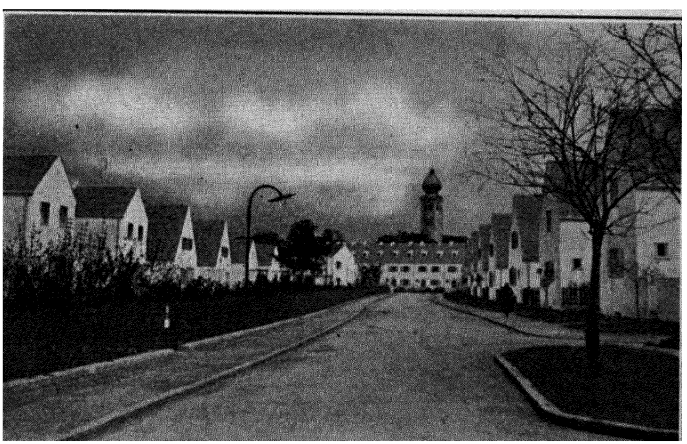
Another aid to social organization is a *reasonably well-satisfied population*, which has within its reach a fairly adequate standard of living. Wherever normal men through their best efforts cannot make an adequate living, both social and personal disorganization are likely to result. A rigid, mail-fisted type of domineering government may for a time subdue and otherwise dominate a half-starved and half-clad population, but this dominance is not likely to exist for all time. The rise to power, and to revolution, of down-trodden classes has been written in blood too often upon the pages of world history to predict that it cannot happen again. Economically and socially insecure peoples constitute an ever-ready hotbed for the sprouting of ideas and theories which may overthrow the government. Therefore, to insure social organization, we must have a population not plagued with the ghost of insecurity, but living in reasonable comfort.



Robert Verney

CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING

Co-operative efforts in providing adequate housing have been highly successful abroad. Here we see a modern co-operative housing unit in Stockholm, Sweden, constructed to secure an abundance of light and air.

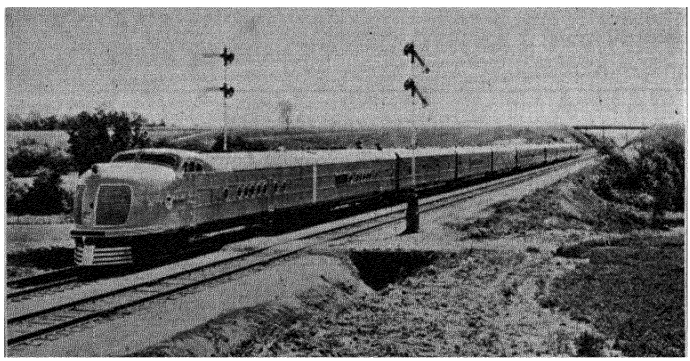


Robert Verney

RAMERSDORF COLONY, MUNICH, GERMANY

This colony is part of a plan for decentralizing the population of Munich. Ramersdorf is on a main highway and street car line in the suburban district of Munich. The Renaissance church in the background is an old landmark which is at the center of a community.

Other aids to social organization are *communication* and *contact*. These are the bases for social interaction of all types. Peoples isolated from each other are likely to be suspicious of one another. Contact and communication are necessary that suspicions may be broken down, that all peoples of a territory may have a common understanding of each other's problems, that they may profit from new inventions and discoveries and each other's experiences, and that they may become, in general,



Courtesy Union Pacific Railway

A STREAM-LINED TRAIN

The railway is one of our commonest means of communication.

better acquainted with each other. Occasionally the breakdown of isolation may throw two distinct cultures into contact with each other in such a way that conflict and disorganization may arise, but this is decidedly minor in frequency and importance as compared with the part that communication and contact play in bringing about social organization.

Co-operation, which may be defined as mutual aid toward certain common ends, is an aid to social organization. Before co-operation can be successful, there must be a sympathetic relationship existing between the members of the co-operating group. This relationship must be characterized by what has

been called an "infecting kindliness" and a warmth of feeling which can be expressed only in one word — sympathy.

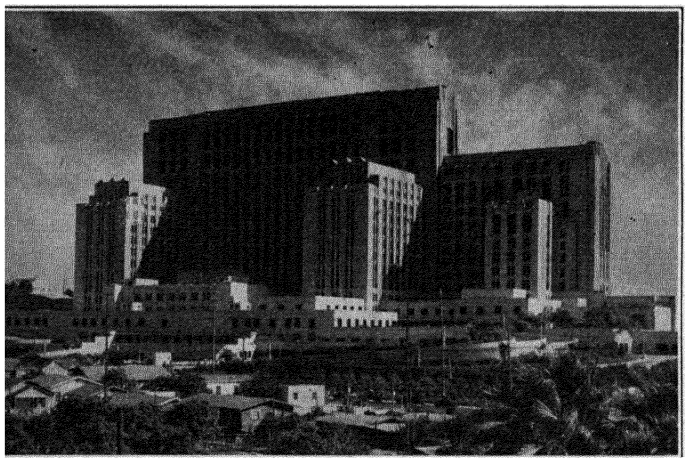
Co-operation also signifies a co-ordination of thought or a combination or synthesis of the thoughts of all members of the group and its direction into certain channels aimed toward the purposes the co-operating group is expected to achieve. Three good minds may be immensely more effective than one in the promotion of a co-operative enterprise.

A Rural Co-operative Office

As necessary, if not more so, than co-ordinated thought, is co-ordinated action, designed to achieve the purpose for which the co-operative was established. Wherever the action of a co-operative group is not co-ordinated, it may be dissipated in so many different directions that the co-operative may eventually go on the rocks. The energies of a group, dissipated in many different directions, will usually not accomplish nearly so much as they would if confined to one or two major channels through co-ordinated endeavor. The co-operative movement in the United States is beginning to bear fruit. At present in this country there are over 12,000 agricultural co-operatives

with a membership of around four million, doing an annual business of nearly six billion dollars. Co-operative movements are also rapidly spreading to urban groups.

Accommodation is another powerful aid in promoting social organization. Accommodation is in reality the acquired social adjustments which we make to each other, to groups, and to social situations, attitudes, and ethical principles. Long ago, evidently, men learned that it would not be possible for them to

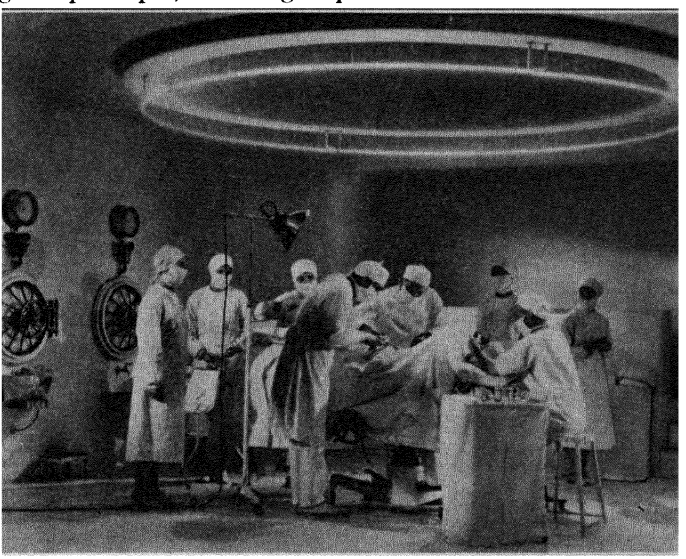


THE LOS ANGELES COUNTY HOSPITAL
Without co-operative effort we should have no hospitals.

have their own way at all times; consequently, they learned to make social adaptations through accommodations to each other. We well know that if we are to have our cake, we must accommodate ourselves by not eating it. If we eat it, we must often accommodate ourselves to doing without it.

Among the more significant types of accommodation are: compromise, where two persons may not yield or agree with each other but do yield to a higher principle; naturalization, which is the modification of the stranger to a point where he is no longer

strange; and conversion, which means an accommodation to new principles, particularly religious principles. In the adjustment process called accommodation, one may, therefore, accommodate himself to an individual, to an impersonal principle, as a religious principle, or to a group.



Brown Brothers

IN AN OPERATING ROOM

The staff of a hospital is a good example of intelligent co-operation.

Assimilation is another aid to social organization. Assimilation is much more of a complete adjustment than is accommodation. When the habits, attitudes, and ideals of a person or of a group are fused or integrated into the habits, attitudes, and ideals of another person or group, one may say that assimilation has taken place or is in the process of taking place.

The term "assimilation" has been applied most often to the adjustment of foreign immigrants to the American culture.

When these people adopt the English language, adopt American customs, subscribe to and live up to the ideals of the American government, and in general become "Americanized," one may say that they have assimilated American culture.

(What activities or movements exist in your community which tend to accomplish a higher degree of social organization? Cite attempts at co-operation in your community. Were such attempts successful? If so, why? If not, why not? Study the co-operative movement of Denmark. Cite successful co-operative movements in America. Prepare a report on the relation of economic security to social organization.)

The Meaning of Social Disorganization. — In contrast to social organization is social disorganization. It means a disturbance or breakdown in the balance of one or more of the major activities or institutions of society, or a group or segment of society, so that old institutions, habits, and forms of social control no longer function effectively. Going back to our original illustrations at the beginning of the chapter: when the number of men available for work is much greater than the number of jobs, social disorganization, or at least social disturbance, is likely to result. There is always some disorganization in every society.

In order to break down the large field of social disorganization into specific social problems, it is necessary to make use of what the sociologist calls indices of social disorganization. For instance, he attempts to measure the degree of family disorganization by citing statistics of divorce rates, desertion rates, or evidences of other forms of family disorganization. Other indices which he makes use of are juvenile delinquency rates, adult crime rates, suicide rates, death rates, statistics on the extent of poverty and dependency, illiteracy, insanity, feeblemindedness, and the like. When these indices are all assembled, one has a more accurate concept of the extent of social and

personal disorganization than if he were to rely on mere generalizations for his knowledge.

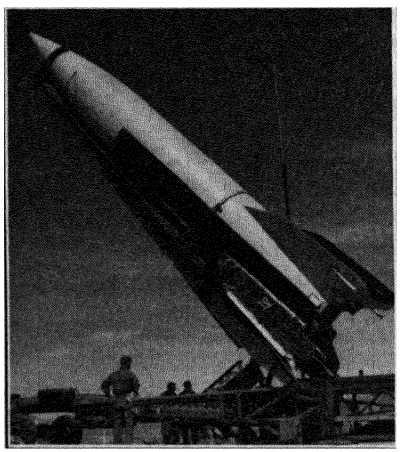
Causes of Social Disorganization. — In the opening pages of the chapter, we discussed briefly the relation of economic security and political autonomy to social disorganization. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the lack of these as a cause of social disorganization.

There are other movements going on in society and other conditions existing which tend to produce social disorganization, as, for example, competition, conflict, abrupt social change, and social mobility.

Competition, which may be thought of as the attempt of competitors to attain identical ends without coercion or violence, is the source of much social disorganization. Competition may eventually force co-operation, but all too often it may mean the exploitation of labor, one's friends or family, or to setting aside ethics of fair play in an attempt to win out in the competitive process to the point where one has acquired a monopoly. Such a situation may lead to exploitation. Controlled competition is a fine thing, since competition gives a stimulus to individual endeavor. Economic competition which is controlled so as to prevent cut-throat competitive methods, which insures high wages to workers, and which gives economic enterprises a fair return on their investments, is a stimulating and effective type of competition.

Conflict, into which competition often merges, may be thought of as the violent or nonviolent coercion of opponents. Conflict is filled with more of the personal element than is competition. When individuals and groups are in conflict with each other, one usually finds the presence of hate, fear, anger, and prejudice. Conflict has for its immediate purpose the elimination or subordination of opponents. Another basis of conflict may be found in the struggle for existence among plants and animals.

Significant types of conflict are: the fist fight, the feud, war, economic conflicts, as between capital and labor, race conflicts, religious conflicts, cultural conflicts, and conflicts within the individual. Conflict in many instances grows out of the inability of persons to satisfy themselves in the competitive field or is due to excessive personal ambitions.



U. S. Signal Corps

V-2 ROCKET
New weapon for conflict.

In the field of industrial and labor relations arbitration is lessening the prevalence of conflicts. Through a growth in understanding and tolerance, religious and race conflicts should, in the future, become rare. Rigid state, national, and international control is necessary if social disorganization is to be curbed through the reduction of conflict. Improvements in the field of psychology and psychiatry are rapidly pointing the way to the prevention of conflicts within the individual. To go back to our original thesis: economic security would, no doubt, decrease conflicts within the individual. This is shown by the fact that insanity during the ten years partially covered by the depression period, 1929–1939, increased nearly 20 per cent, whereas the increase from 1916 to 1926, with the World War in progress during four years of that period, was only about 10 per cent. This indicates that even in wartime conflicts resulting in insanity are rarer if prosperity prevails.

Another interesting type of conflict is cultural conflict. As to what is meant by cultural conflict, the best explanation can be

made, perhaps, through the citation of two cases, taken from the writings of Professor John Levy:[1]

A young Roumanian girl objected to her mother's wearing a kerchief and holding to other Old World styles of dress and behavior. Since she did not want her friends to know of her mother's "shameful conduct," she took to meeting them outside the home, at more undesirable places. Her constantly growing night life resulted in sexual delinquencies — and medical care.

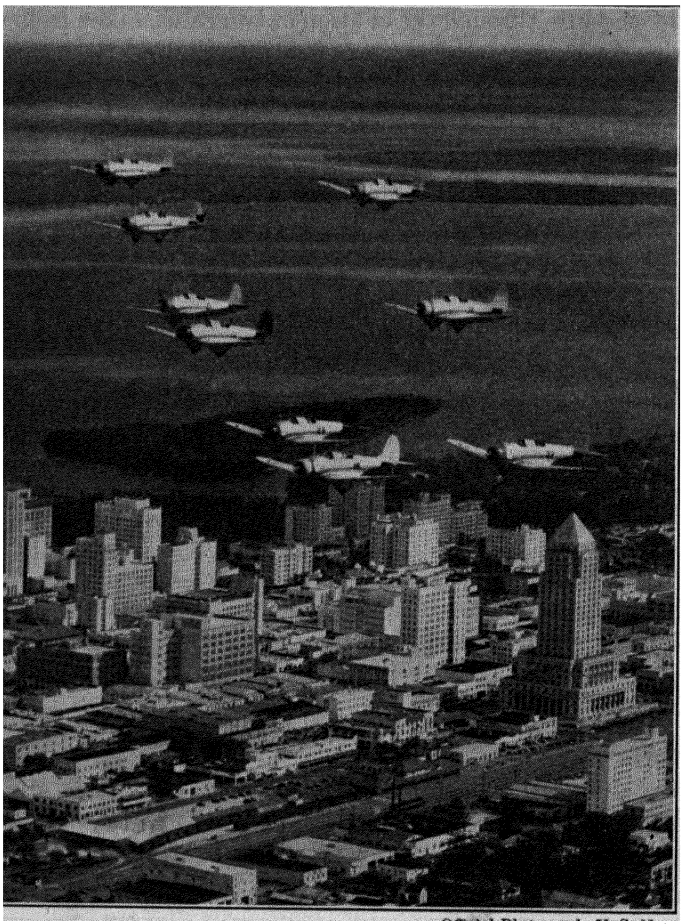
Another case, described by Professor Levy, shows the cultural conflict between an Indian boy and his white school group:

A young Indian boy of high intelligence was attending a white school. He did well in his work and seemed a likable chap, but was so painfully "shy" that he made no social progress. On social occasions he simply said nothing. His white comrades resented his apparent lack of interest in group contacts and left him more and more to himself. Study of this boy revealed a conflict of social ideals. Among his tribespeople it was considered ill-bred to talk when there was nothing special to be said. "His chief" was held to be a particularly fine fellow because "you never hear anything from him." According to his own lights, this Indian boy was making an excellent social adjustment. Only in our expansive, talkative culture could he be considered a subject for a clinic.

Abrupt social change may cause social disorganization, whereas the forces of social organization may more readily adjust themselves to gradual change. The declaration of war is an abrupt social change, and when a war is declared, everything is disorganized. During the recent depression, all the banks of the country were asked to close temporarily. This abrupt change not only disorganized business but also disorganized many individuals.

Individuals are adaptable, but institutions are not nearly so much so, and in the case of each there must be some time

[1] Levy, John, "Conflicts of Cultures and Children's Maladjustments," *Mental Hygiene*, 17 : 41–50, 1933. Some minor adaptations have been made in the cases.



Official Photograph, U. S. Navy

PLANES OVER MIAMI

This most mobile of inventions has brought about great social changes.

elapsing in order that adjustments may be satisfactorily made to social change. The French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, the two World Wars — all were periods of abrupt change, which resulted in much social disorganization.

Social mobility or *mobility of population* is given credit for much social disorganization. Where families change their residence frequently, they may not take any appreciable interest in school, church, or community affairs. When one knows that he will probably spend only one or two years in a community, he is not likely to worry about the quality of government the community has. He is not likely to give much consideration to the church, but if he has children, he will probably give more attention to the school.

Where a people are on the move, the social controls of home, church, friends, relatives, and acquaintances are often relaxed to a point where individuals feel very free and independent. Such freedom may lead to personal disorganization through drink, sexual disorganization, vice, and the like. At least, social mobility does not encourage morality, and immorality is one form of disorganization.

(Determine the leading causes of social disorganization in your community? In your state? Supplement the list discussed in this chapter.)

The Study of Social Problems. — The purpose of this chapter is to present a background, against which some of the major social problems may be studied. The student should keep in mind that there are always in existence the great social processes of personal organization and disorganization and of social organization and disorganization in society. The great goal of society is not only to balance these two opposing forces, but to eliminate, as nearly as possible, disorganization and the disorganizing influences from society. Progress in the field of human relations comes slowly but surely. In time, men and groups will live together in a co-operative world in comparative peace and harmony. Such prediction may not be written in the stars, but on the basis of the progress in the field of human relations during

the past two thousand years, it may be safely made. Let us now go to a study of some of America's great social problems.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. List or chart some of the major advances made in the field of human relations during the last 2000 years.
2. What have been the great handicaps to the co-operative movement in America?
3. To what enterprises in your county or city might the principles of co-operation be applied?
4. Consider the feasibility of establishing one or more co-operatives in your school.
5. Why do co-operatives fail?
6. What are the causes of war?
7. List in parallel columns the good and bad effects of war.
8. Cite evidences of cultural changes which have resulted in social disorganization.
9. Cite instances of social disorganization which, in the long run, have proved valuable.
10. How would you decrease social disorganization in your community?

VOCABULARY STUDY

organization	utopia	co-ordination	accommodation
disorganization	integrated	assimilation	mobility
normal	index	co-operation	progress

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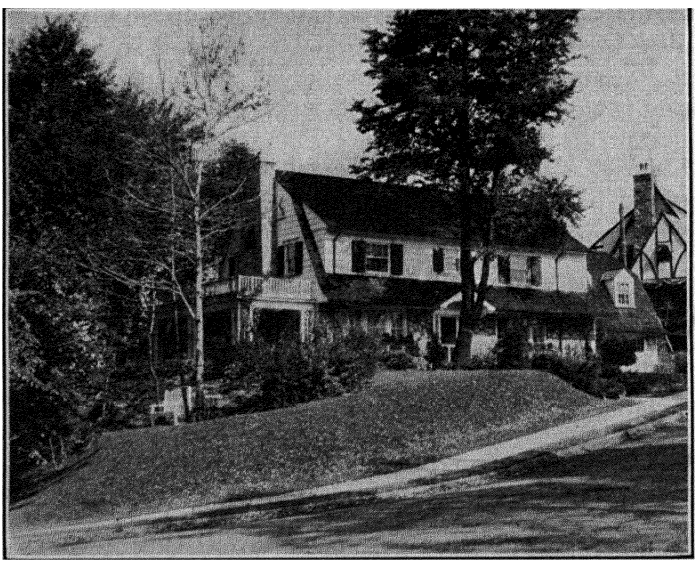
CHAPTER X

THE AMERICAN FAMILY AND ITS PROBLEMS

The Family a Basic Social Institution. — The family is the most basic and perhaps the oldest social institution. It is also the source from which all other institutions have developed.



HOME

A house is really a home when it fosters and protects the spiritual and cultural aspects of family life as well as the physical. It is then, indeed, the very heart of civilization.

Originally, the training of the young was almost entirely a family responsibility. When this task became too large, special

teachers, usually elderly persons, were utilized, and later schools came into existence.

The first governmental unit was the family unit, but when the problems of social control became too great for the family to perform them adequately, other governmental forms were evolved. Likewise, prior to the establishment of recreational agencies and institutions, play and recreation took place within families or between groups of families. In the same way, the religious, economic, and scientific institutions had their beginnings in the human family.

Because the family is tied up so intimately with other institutions, changes which take place within these institutions are likely to affect the family directly. When depression hits the economic institutions, the individual family suffers immediately. When governments collapse, the influence of disintegration is soon felt on family life. When the public recreational facilities of a city are closed down, or when they are not developed, the results show up in a high rate of juvenile delinquency in the urban home. Thus is felt the impact of social change upon the family. Because the family is so integrated and tied in with other institutions, it cannot escape the influences going on within them; neither can they escape the results of changes going on within the family.

Inasmuch as the family was in existence at the dawn of history and may be as old as the human race, it is apparent that it has long served great human needs, else it would not have lasted over the centuries, and there is every reason to believe that it will continue to serve these needs, although they may be changing needs.

(Construct a diagram showing how various social institutions have developed out of the family. What led to their development? Is the long history of the existence of the family a valid argument that it will continue to exist?)

Forms of Family Life. — The family has not always existed in its present form. The human race has experimented with various forms.

Some peoples have permitted husbands to have more than one wife (polygyny) or wives to have more than one husband (polyandry). At the present time the marriage of a single individual of each sex (monogamy) is the universal practice, except in rare instances among isolated, primitive peoples.

When families are strongly controlled by the mother, they are called *matriarchal,* whereas father-controlled or father-centered families are known as *patriarchal* families. In the instance of families in which control and responsibility is generously distributed, they are known as *equalitarian* or *democratic* families.

Families in which descent is traced through the mother, as was commonly done in the past, are known as *matronymic,* or mother-name, families. *Patronymic,* or father-name families, are those in which descent is traced through the father. Except for perhaps a few isolated instances, descent is universally traced through the father today.

(What reasons can you give for the American family being as democratic as it is? What arguments can you advance in favor of monogamy as against polygyny or polyandry?)

Changing Functions of the Family. — The functions of the family are constantly undergoing changes. Old functions change or are dropped altogether, while new functions are added.

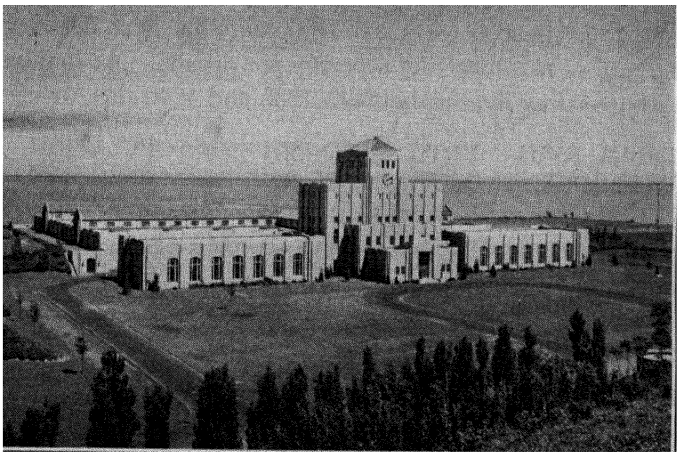
Examined at any time, the family will be found to be fulfilling various functions, of which the following are at least representative:

1. *Biological Function.* — The family is the central social institution concerned with the biological survival of the human race. Although the size of the American family has gradually decreased over the last one hundred years (see Table XVI), it serves the basic function of reproducing the race.

TABLE XVI. AVERAGE SIZE OF FAMILIES OF THE UNITED STATES[1]

Year	Number of Persons
1890	4.9
1900	4.7
1910	4.5
1920	4.3
1930	4.1
1940	3.8
1946	3.6

As is indicated by the following figures, the size of families varies considerably with different geographical units of the country. These figures mean, in part, that the decrease in the size of families has not been uniform throughout the country



Courtesy Milwaukee Chamber of Commerce

A Source of Civic Health

Survival of the race depends on health. This purifying plant for Milwaukee's water is one of the finest and most modern in the country.

[1] Based on the Census of the United States for the years indicated.

and that certain sections are more important producing units than others.

TABLE XVII. AVERAGE POPULATION PER OCCUPIED DWELLING UNIT, BY GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS, 1940 [1]

Division	Persons per Occupied Dwelling
United States	3.8
New England	3.9
Middle Atlantic	3.8
East North Central	3.7
West North Central	3.7
South Atlantic	4.2
East South Central	4.1
West South Central	3.9
Mountain	3.7
Pacific	3.2

Since 1890 the average size of the family has been decreasing at the rate of two tenths of a person per decade. As indicated by the preceding figures, between 1930 and 1940 the American

TABLE XVIII. BIRTH RATE PER 1000 POPULATION, UNITED STATES, 1915–1943 [2]

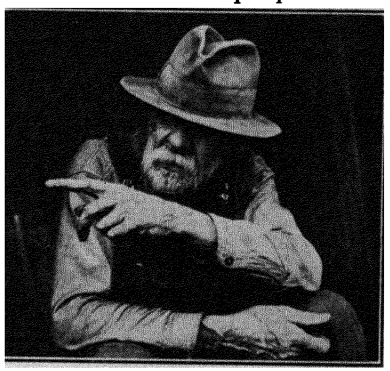
Year	Rate
1915	25.1
1920	23.7
1925	21.5
1930	18.9
1935	16.9
1940	17.9
1941	18.9
1942	21.0
1943	21.5

[1] Sixteenth Census of the United States, 1940.

[2] Based on reports of the Bureau of Census.

family decreased three tenths of a person, or half as much again. The average family in 1940 was less by 1.1 persons than it was fifty years ago.

In a biological sense, the family serves also as a stabilizer of sex conduct and satisfies the human desire of people to see themselves and the family name perpetuated in a new generation. Pre-adolescent sex education and training in correct attitudes toward the biological aspects of one's body and one's life are important family functions.



Resettlement Administration

SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Taking care of the aged is an important function of the family.

Although some authorities view the decreasing size of the American family with alarm, some positive good should come from this decline. In the first place, the decline should encourage more emphasis being placed upon the quality of people. The smaller family will necessarily emphasize husband-wife relationships and should enable many parents in the low economic brackets to give their smaller families better economic advantages and the advantages of better food, clothing, and shelter.

2. *Economic Function.* — At one time the American family not only produced, processed, and preserved most of its food, but also made its own clothing and owned its own shelter. While the family has declined as a producing unit, it has increased as a consuming unit in that it consumes today a larger number and variety of items than it did previously. Likewise, the shift in this country from a rural economy to an urban economy

has brought with it a greater dependence upon the job rather than upon the land. The city offers a larger variety of jobs, a higher standard of living to be met, and a greater attempt to meet these standards through the extension of the credit economy.

The great gains in the economic status, independence, and economic activities of women have become one of the marked economic changes of the age. In 1900 approximately five million women were gainfully employed in the United States, whereas today this figure is around twelve million.

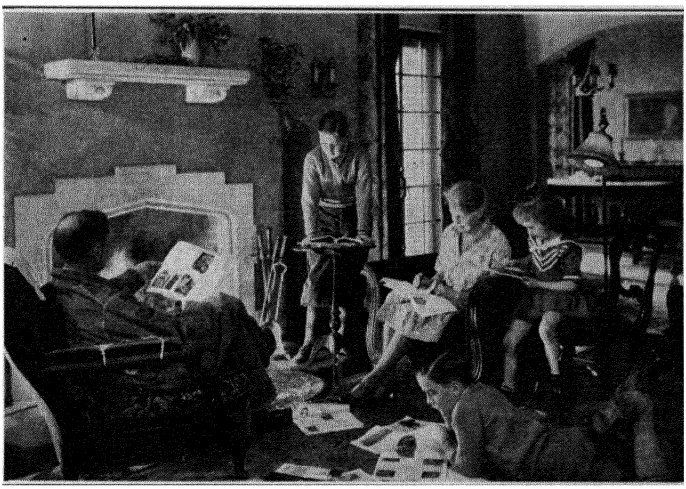
The complete family, made up of husband, wife, and children, is still the most fundamental economic unit we have. Its role in making a living and in throwing a cloak of economic protection around its members is a role that has not been, and could not easily be, replaced by any other economic agency.

The state and Federal governments now supplement in many ways the economic function of the family. This is done through aid to dependent children, through public assistance to deficient, defective, and needy persons, through old-age insurance, and through various other forms of grants and allowances. Some people feel that the governments have gone too far in assuming the economic obligations of families. This is a point which might well be debated.

3. *Protective Function.* — As a protective agency, the family performs many functions. We have mentioned the economic protection which it gives its members. In addition to this, it affords protection against physical dangers, against want, and against moral dangers, especially during the early years of life. In addition, affectional security, in affectionate families, is an important protective function.

The role of the family in paying for other protective services, such as medical care, police protection, fire protection, either directly or through tax contributions to governmental units, is among its more important economic contributions.

4. *Recreational Function.* — The earlier, larger, more isolated American family more nearly developed its recreational life than does the present-day family. Urbanization of populations, plus the growth of commercial forms of recreation, plus modern methods of transportation and communication, has worked toward stripping the home of many of its recreational activities.



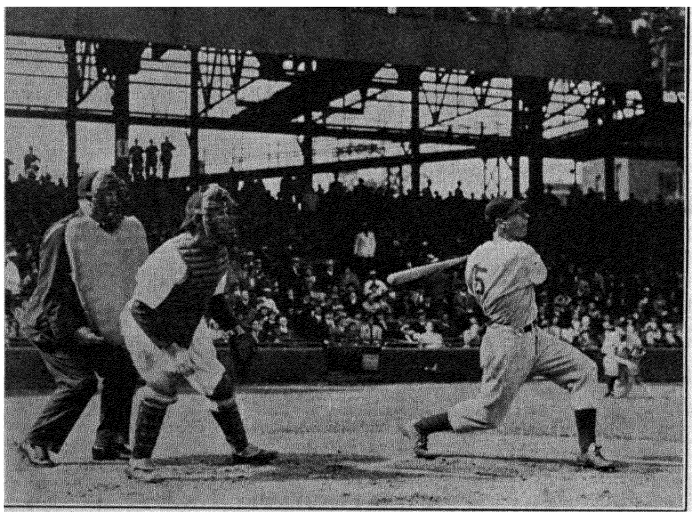
J. C. Allen and Son

A COMPLETE FAMILY

Do you consider this family well protected?

The home is still the major recreational center for young children and aged persons. There is some evidence that the radio is returning some recreation to the home and that television may return even more. In addition, the large growth of suburban populations may make suburban homes more self-contained recreationally. It is possible, also, that as rural peoples come into the possession of electric power, radios, and other home conveniences, they will place more emphasis upon home and community recreation and may rely less upon the commercialized recreational resources of urban communities.

The family also has the important recreational task of counseling in matters of recreation, in paying for it, and in evaluating, guiding, co-ordinating, and supervising the recreation of its members, as well as protecting them against recreational activities which are dangerous or demoralizing. A growing civic responsibility of the family is that of seeing that adequate



Acme

A TENSE MOMENT

The crowds watching Di Maggio's home run are illustrating the recreational function of the family.

recreational services and recreational areas are made available to the people of the community, the state, and the nation. In addition, it is a task of the family to see that every child receives proper training for wholesome recreation in the public schools. Such programs can be successful only if the schools have the co-operation of the home in their development.

5. *Educational Function.* — The family is the key to the transmission of the cultural heritage from one generation to

another, and in this role it still occupies a strategic and important place.

The important educational influence of the family is due, in part, to the plasticity of the young child, the prestige of the parent, the time spent in the home, the repetition of home events, and the vividness of many home experiences. This group of factors makes the home an ideal medium for learning.

The family obviously no longer attempts to train individuals for self-sufficiency, as this is a task which challenges all the resources of the schools. It is no longer a formal educational agency, but still performs many informal training functions, such as inducting the child into the social heritage and helping him acquire knowledge of social groups, social relations, customs, and standards, as well as aiding him in the development of an adequate personality.

While the teacher is replacing the parent as a formal instructor, parents are rapidly finding new educational functions and responsibilities. Some of these are in supplementing and co-operating with the school in the education of their children; in aiding children in the selection of programs of study; in providing home study guidance and facilities; in inculcating in the child proper ideals toward education; and in furnishing funds for education.

6. *Affectional Function.* — Any inquiry into the reasons for marriage is likely to indicate that the desire for companionship and affection is the motive back of most marriages. Not only is such affection desirable and necessary for adults if they are to be happy, but it appears to be essential for the greatest possible development of children.

As some functions of the family have declined, the affectional function appears to be increasing. Many authorities feel that it is the greatest element that motivates marriage. They hasten to add, however, that, while the affectional motive in

marriage is much to be desired, it may be overdone in the sense that other factors, such as economic factors, need to be kept in mind if the family is to achieve its greatest possibilities. There is also general agreement with the excellent statement of Miss Sait to the effect that "intelligent parenthood, successful marriage and happy home life are now more generally possible than they have ever been before." [1]

(What are the more important family functions performed by families in your community? What functions are they failing to perform well? If and when you marry, what compensations or values would you hope to get out of your marriage?)

Some Important Social Problems of the Family. — When one attempts to make a comprehensive list of the social problems of the family, it becomes a task which would involve space much too great for this book. Also, urban families may have certain problems which rural families do not have. Families on the great plains of the West may also have problems which San Francisco families may not have.

An inventory of some of the more important family problems would hardly be complete unless mention was made of at least the following:

1. The basic problem of most families is an economic one — the task of keeping a roof over one's head, clothing on one's back, and food on the table. Hundreds of thousands of families who feel no unhappiness, have no juvenile problems, and are not physically unwell set themselves daily to this basic task. The inability of many families to measure up to this task, for one reason or another, constitutes, for them and for the nation, an important problem.

2. Another basic and far-reaching problem of the family is the problem of building and preserving a type of international

[1] Sait, Una Bernard, *New Horizons for the Family*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.

society which will enable the families of all lands to live securely and to share in the high standard of living which human energy and the applied sciences have made possible.

3. The task of conserving and using the natural resources of our nation and our communities in such a way that tomorrow's families may have the resources out of which they can create an adequate living, and enjoy an invigorating culture, is one of the greatest tasks faced today by the people of every land.

4. Because of their frequency and their destructiveness, wars are an important concern of the families of almost every generation. Later in this chapter we shall discuss this important problem.

5. On the domestic scene divorce looms large as a social problem of the family. Divorce is serious within itself and is, besides, a good index of the unhappiness and bitterness which exist in many families. Presently we shall also devote a special discussion to divorce.

6. Desertion, sometimes called "the poor man's divorce," has long been a problem of low-income American families. Many social work agencies rank desertion as one of the most important social problems with which they have to contend.

7. Broken families, in which the breadwinner, usually the father, is dead or in which the mother is dead, constitute major problems in that the lives of the individuals within these families are personally affected in many ways by the bereavement occasioned by the loss of loved ones. Then, too, the broken family is very often the victim of economic insecurity as a result of the loss of the earning power of a parent or other family member. Broken families, in which there is dependency, are being increasingly cared for at public expense.

8. Unhappiness in families which have never been broken by desertion, death, or divorce constitutes one of the grave

problems of the modern family. There is no way of measuring the extent of such unhappiness, but it is obviously considerable.

9. The employment of mothers, especially where they work outside the home for wages, gives rise to a number of problems, among them the problem of caring for their health, their absence from the home, and the problem of finding adequate time to devote to their families.

10. Many students of population problems show a real concern over the failure of many married couples to have children, when it would be easily possible for them to support children.

11. The problem of home training of children is one of major importance, but one upon which the sciences of human relations are gradually throwing more and more light.

12. A major problem confronting every modern society is that of promoting the wise selection of mates and otherwise fostering and facilitating wise and careful marriages.

There are other problems, such as that of spending the family income, caring for the aged, and the housing of the family, which are fully as important as some of those which we have previously mentioned.

(What are the important problems of the family in your community? Which of these are inherent within the family? Within the community? Ask an aged person in the community to compare the family problems of his youth with those of families today.)

American Divorce. — Divorce is a family and social problem which warrants special consideration.

The Federal inquiry on marriage and divorce was discontinued in 1933 as an economy measure. As a result, no statistics on divorce have been collected for the years 1932–37. However, estimates, as indicated in Table XIX, are given along with the data on divorce and marriage from 1930–1945. These estimates are made from state reports. The accompanying graph

shows the trend of marriage and divorce from 1887, when the first Federal investigation of marriage and divorce was made, down through 1937.

TABLE XIX. MARRIAGES AND DIVORCES: 1930–1945

Year	Number of Marriages	Number of Divorces	Per 1,000 of Estimated Population		Marriages per 1,000 Women 15–44 Years Old
			Marriages	Divorces	
1945	1,618,331	502,000	12.26	3.59	
1944	1,452,394	400,000	10.96	2.90	43.95
1943	1,577,050	359,000	11.77	2.63	47.98
1942	1,772,132	321,000	13.25	2.38	54.29
1941	1,695,999	293,000	12.75	2.20	52.36
1940	1,595,879	264,000	12.09	2.00	49.82
1939	1,403,633	251,000	10.72	1.92	44.14
1938	1,330,780	244,000	10.25	1.88	42.19
1937 *	1,426,000	250,000	11.03	1.93	45.71
1936 *	1,369,000	236,000	10.66	1.84	44.19
1935 *	1,327,000	218,000	10.41	1.71	43.25
1934 *	1,302,000	204,000	10.28	1.61	42.84
1933 *	1,098,000	165,000	8.74	1.31	36.47
1932	981,903	160,338	7.87	1.28	32.93
1931	1,060,914	183,664	8.55	1.48	35.91
1930	1,126,856	191,591	9.15	1.56	38.53

It is a matter of some concern when 500,000 homes are broken by divorce annually. This figure is in contrast to the 27,000 divorces which were granted in 1887, when our population

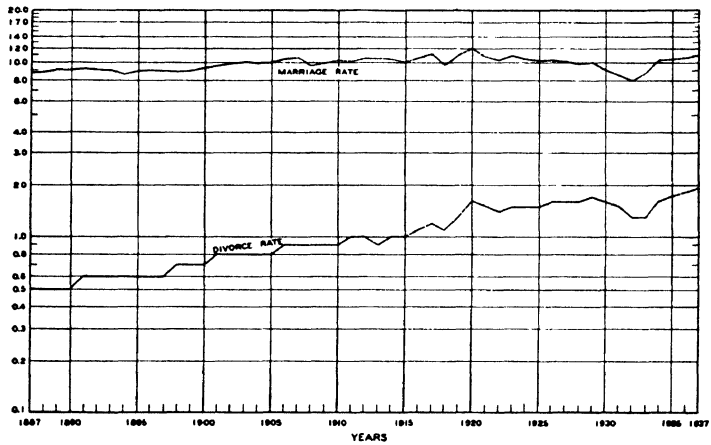
* Estimates taken from an article, "Recent Increases in Marriage and Divorce," by Samuel A. Stouffer and Lyle M. Spencer, *American Journal of Sociology*, January, 1939, pp. 551–554.

The data for 1930 to 1933 are based on U. S. Census Bureau Reports for 1933–1937.

The 1938–1945 data are from the Federal Security Agency.

was about 59 million. The divorce rate that year was 0.5 per 1,000 population, as compared with 3.59 in 1945.

(Study marriage and divorce trends in your state and county, giving explanations for them.)



Grounds for Divorce. — While legal grounds for divorce run into the dozens, the leading grounds for divorce, on the basis of the number of states which recognize them as such, are as follows:

1. *Adultery,* which is recognized by all jurisdictions and all states, with the exception of South Carolina, which does not grant absolute divorce on any ground.
2. *Desertion.*
3. *Cruelty.*
4. *Imprisonment for a felony.*
5. *Habitual drunkenness.*
6. *Impotence.*
7. *Non-support.*
8. *Idiocy or insanity.*

Less than a dozen states make "mental cruelty" a ground for divorce, yet the courts in many jurisdictions accept this ground

as valid, and there seems to be a general trend toward a more liberal interpretation of the meaning of cruelty. About 75 per cent of all divorces are granted on the grounds of cruelty and desertion, about 8 per cent on the ground of adultery, and about 7 per cent on the ground of non-support.

(Study and critically evaluate the grounds for divorce in your state. These may be obtained from the state codes, from any lawyer, or from the judge under whose jurisdiction divorce proceedings fall. In divorce proceedings, under what conditions may the court refuse to grant a divorce? Ask a lawyer or divorce judge to come into class to discuss divorce in your state. What is meant by absolute divorce, probationary divorce, and "divorce from bed and board," sometimes called limited divorce?)

Some Causes of Divorce. — The legal sanctions or grounds for divorce constitute the legal "pigeon-holes" into which persons seeking divorce have to fit their reasons for filing suit for divorce. This does not mean that the grounds on which divorce is being sought are the real causes of divorce; these are often never known to the court.

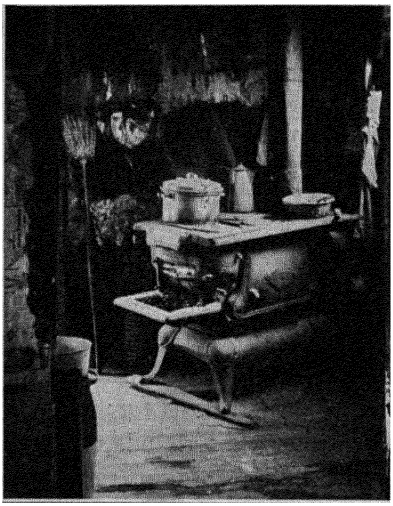
The divorce rate increase has paralleled the increase in the size and number of cities, the increase in the percentage of women workers in industry, and the decline in the birth rate and size of families. Between 60 and 70 per cent of divorce is granted to childless couples, and an additional 20 per cent to one-child families.

Psychological incompatibility and hasty and ill-advised marriages, which should not have been contracted in the first place, constitute important causes of divorce.

Neglect of the home by either husband or wife is likely to begin a series of disputes and misunderstandings which may eventually culminate in divorce.

Without a doubt, poverty leads to much marital unhappiness, although it may play a relatively unimportant part in divorce,

since many persons in low-income families cannot afford the cost of a divorce. It is difficult, however, for a family to develop the highest possible family ideals if they have to spend every ounce of their energy eking out a bare existence.



Resettlement Administration

A SOURCE OF SOCIAL UNREST

Poverty is the cause of many unhappy marriages and broken families.

Among other causes of divorce, one finds inadequate marriage laws; the lack of sympathy and tolerance on the part of mates; the excessive use of alcohol; faulty home training; uncontrolled tempers; low idealism; lack of common interests; and sexual incompatibility.

(Consult the domestic relations court judge in your territory as to the causes of divorce. From your observation of families, what reasons do you give for the failure of couples to adjust themselves successfully to marriage? Is marital adjustment easier or more difficult today than formerly? Are there any peculiar situations or conditions in your community which aggravate family disorganization? Should we have uniform marriage and divorce laws?)

What Kind of Mate Does Youth Want? — Many attempts have been made to have youth indicate the qualities they desire in their prospective marriage partners.[1] There is little agreement between these studies, because the backgrounds of the youth groups vary so much as to give a very wide range of answers.

[1] For an example of such study, see Baber, Ray E., *Marriage and the Family*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1939, pp. 142–173.

Some of the more frequently named qualities which young people desire in their mates, as indicated in these studies, are the following:

1. Health.
2. Attractive personality.
3. Sex purity.
4. Mental equipment at least equivalent to their own.
5. Ambition.
6. Mutual interests.
7. Slight age difference, with young men desiring wives who are their juniors and young women desiring husbands who are slightly older.
8. No previous marriage experience.
9. Educational training of similar degree.
10. Pleasant disposition.

While the above list is not comprehensive and does not do justice to many of the special studies on this problem, it is thought-stimulating and provocative of discussion.

(Prepare a list of the qualities you desire in a mate. Summarize these for the class and discuss the findings in class.)

Marriage Laws. — Some states continue to recognize the common law age for marriage (12 years for girls and 14 years for boys); others do not require any form of physical examination or certificate, while some states which require such examinations do not enforce the requirement. In short, the medley of state marriage laws is such as to warrant our giving a little space to what constitutes an adequate marriage law.

Criteria for an Adequate Marriage Law. — Since the state may play such an important role in preventing hasty and ill-advised marriages or in failing to do so because of inadequate legislation, it is very appropriate that we should consider some of the criteria of an adequate marriage law. It is assumed that

some exceptions to the criteria we are about to state may be necessary, because of the peculiarities of states or the peculiar composition of the population. We shall relate these criteria to the marriage license, the eligibility requirements for a marriage license, the solemnization of the ceremony, and the marriage record.[1]

The Marriage License:

1. The license should be mandatory for marriage, thus abolishing common law marriage.
2. The license issuer should be paid a straight salary rather than a fee.
3. There should be state supervision to insure that specifically prescribed duties are carried out.
4. Both candidates should be given clear, printed instructions with regard to the requirements of the marriage law.
5. There should be a waiting period between the time of application for a license and the granting of the license.
6. The application should be made public and the parents of both candidates notified.

Requirements to Be Met before the License Is Issued:

1. Application for a license should be made only during office hours.
2. Both candidates for a license should be required to apply in person.
3. Written parental consent for all males under 21 and all females under 18 should be required.
4. Documentary proof of age for minors should be required.
5. The minimum age for receiving a license to marry should be 18 for males and 16 for females.

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[1] Adapted from Dooley, Emily Harris, *Marriage Legislation*, Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 1941.

6. Where there has been a previous marriage, documentary proof should be required showing that the marriage has been dissolved.

7. No license should be issued when either candidate is under the influence of drugs or alcohol.

8. Medical certificates for both candidates stating that they are free from venereal diseases in a communicable stage should be required.

9. Applicants who have been institutionalized for feeble-mindedness or insanity should submit a medical certificate that they have been cured and that there is no possibility of their transmitting any such defects to the issue of the marriage.

Solemnization:

1. To satisfy the ideologies of different religious creeds and different individuals, the law should provide for either a civil or a religious ceremony.

2. The officiant should be required to produce, upon demand, the proper credentials showing that he is clothed with authority to perform marriage ceremonies.

3. The state should require that the license be presented to the officiant.

4. The marriage certificate should be signed by two witnesses in addition to the officiant.

The Marriage Record:

1. The marriage license should be returned by the officiant to the official issuing the license within a thirty-day period.

2. Two copies of the marriage certificate should be given the bride and groom by the officiant as proof of the marriage.

3. The local recording officer should be required to transmit a copy of his record of the marriage to the appropriate state registration bureau.

To Whom Should the Right of Marriage Be Denied? — There are certain couples and individuals to whom the right of marriage should be denied. These may be listed as follows:

1. Close relatives. It is conceded that it is generally dangerous and ill-advised for first and second cousins to marry.

2. Persons suffering from disease, especially if there is danger that the other mate would become infected or would be left dependent.

3. The feeble-minded, unless they are prohibited, by means of surgical operation, from reproducing.

4. The insane.

5. The very young. Most writers in this connection deem it unwise for girls below sixteen years, preferably below eighteen, and boys below eighteen, preferably below twenty, to marry.

Qualifications Desirable in Marriage. — Marriage is a normal way of living for those of marriageable age, providing they are free from the defects mentioned above, but there are certain desirable marriageability qualifications.

What are some of these qualifications, then, which are valuable in the promotion of happy marriage?

1. Health is a powerful aid to happy marriage and to happy living. Its importance cannot be overestimated.

2. Freedom from the alcohol and drug habits. Such habits cost money, are a detriment to health, and an important cause of marital discord and unhappiness.

3. Emotional balance and calmness of temperament are important aids to happy marriage and are fine qualities to seek in a mate.

4. Tolerance of others is a quality which makes for understanding and enduring friendship. A person who is so self-centered that he is not interested in the problems and welfare of others does not, in general, possess the prerequisites for happy marriage.

5. The ability of a man to stick to a job and to perform the job with at least average efficiency is a desirable quality in a husband.

6. The ability of both husband and wife to conserve money and to spend it wisely is a fine marriageability qualification.

(Discuss in detail the question of to whom the right of marriage should be denied. Why should not the insane marry? Should prisoners in state prisons be allowed to marry? In this respect, how does the Russian practice compare with the American practice? Discuss the topic: "The Qualifications Necessary for Happy Marriage and a Happy Family Life.")

Some Effects of War upon the Family. — So momentous are the effects of great national and international wars upon the population and upon the family that we must treat some of the more important influences of armed conflict upon family life. The numbers of men mobilized in the first World War are indicated in the following table:

TABLE XX. NUMBER OF MOBILIZED MEN, 1914–1918 [1]

Germany	11,000,000
Total Central Powers	22,800,000
British Empire	8,900,000
France	8,400,000
Russia	12,000,000
Italy (1915–1918)	5,600,000
United States (entered 1917)	4,400,000
Total Allied Powers	42,200,000
Grand Total	65,000,000

The family is such a basic institution that it feels rather directly the impact of war. During the war-time period there is the diversion of income from peace-time pursuits, such as education, health, and welfare, to war-time pursuits. Along

[1] *World Almanac*, 1941, p. 106.

with this is an increase in the burden of taxation, the saddling of debts upon future generations. During the war-time period wages increase, but usually not any faster than the increase in cost of living.[1]

The most disastrous economic period for the family is the post-war period. Industries expanded during the war-time

ONE EFFECT OF WAR

When the father has gone to war, and especially if he is killed, hardship is bound to come to many families.

period must be contracted in the post-war period. There is the shift from war-time industries back to peace-time pursuits and the conversion of war industries to peace-time industries. All of this results in unemployment, financial strain upon the family, a shift in standards of living, and many economic adjustments which the family is called upon to make.

[1] See Bossard, James H. S., "War and the Family," *American Sociological Review*, June, 1941.

Since total mechanized scientific warfare requires more funds and more industrial recruitment than did historic wars, there is reason to expect that the economic impact of war upon the family will be even greater in the future than it has been in the past. The wholesale destruction of nonmilitary property by long-range bombers, rockets, and atomic bombs is likely to spread the economic ills and costs of total war. War also leads to the rapid exhaustion of natural resources, although this is partially offset by the development of substitute products, as, for example, the synthetic oils and rubber which Germany made wide use of in World War II. The disruption of peace-time trading and normal business, and the subordination of civilian economic needs to military purposes, are other economic effects of war.

The direct cost of the first World War to the Allies, including the British Empire, was $147,111,000,000; and to the Central Powers, $61,460,000,000. If these figures are correct, then the total direct cost of World War I was $208,571,000,000.[1] World War II cost the Allies approximately $695,000,000,000, and the Axis powers $422,000,000,000.

Some years ago the editor of *Scholastic Magazine* calculated that the money spent on World War I would furnish (1) every family in the United States, England, France, Belgium, Germany, Russia, Canada, and Australia with a $2500 house on a $500 one-acre lot, fully equipped with $1000 worth of furniture; (2) a $5,000,000 library in every community of 200,000 population; (3) a $10,000,000 university in every such community; (4) a fund which, invested at 5 per cent interest, would pay indefinitely a $1000 salary to an army of 125,000 nurses and 125,000 school teachers, and (5) would leave enough

[1] Mendershausen, Horst, *The Economics of War*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1940, p. 305.

to buy all the property and wealth of France and Belgium at a fair price.[1]

During a war men of military age are mobilized for military service. To supply the demand for workers, women enter into industrial pursuits in large numbers. Positions in commerce, transportation, and light industries are filled, to an unusually large degree, by women during war. Also a noticeable increase of child workers takes place during war. This, of course, leads to the postponement of education of many young people.

The family is affected very directly by the loss of human resources occasioned by a war. Estimates of the loss of human life during the first World War have been placed as follows:

TABLE XXI. DEATHS DUE DIRECTLY TO THE FIRST WORLD WAR[2]

Continent	Military Deaths	Civilian Deaths	Total
Europe, total	12,637,000	12,219,000	24,856,000
America	174,000	1,500,000 [a]	1,674,000
Asia	69,000	13,700,000 [b]	13,769,000
Africa	99,000	900,000	1,000,000
Oceania	76,000	60,000	136,000
Grand total	13,055,000	28,379,000	41,435,000

Civilian and military dead in World War II reached 22,000,000, and the wounded, 34,000,000. United States casualties reached 1,135,000. Practically every death meant a relative or a family affected by grief, the loss of earning power, dependence, and a general economic reorganization of the family wherever a breadwinner or a potential breadwinner was lost. In

[1] *Scholastic*, November 10, 1934.

[2] Hersch, L., *What Would Be the Character of a New War?* Random House, Inc., New York, 1933, p. 291.

[a] Mostly influenza victims. [b] Famines, epidemics, etc.

the bombing of Pearl Harbor on a single day some 3000 lives were lost.

Protracted wars lead to the killing off of men in large numbers, thus leaving a disproportionate number of females in the population. This dislocation in the ratio of the sexes means that a nation which has been at war is likely to have a large surplus of females in its population. Because of the scarcity of males in the population, a large number of females may have to go through life as unmarried individuals. This condition often leads to serious problems of personal and social maladjustment.

A declining birth rate usually accompanies a war. This decline is likely to carry over into the post-war period. The mobilization of men for military service and the mobilization of women for war-time industries tends to discourage a birth rate trend which would be as large as it might during normal times. As a result, a nation which has been at war for a number of years and which has a large part of its population participating in the war will probably come out of the war period with considerably fewer children than it had when the war began.

War affects the mores or moral standards and customs of a people. There is often the birth of new moral codes, a certain laxness toward the man in uniform, the loss of primary controls of family, home, and community. In other words, among the people close to the war there is likely to develop what may be called a "last fling" psychology, which in frequent instances results in general personal disorganization and in widespread relaxation of community standards.

The break-up of homes occasioned by the mobilization of males for military service, the evacuation of children from bomb-threatened cities, and war-time casualties among both the military and civilian populations are other effects of war upon the family.

Without a doubt, war has some positive values. During the

second World War much emphasis was placed upon health and nutrition as an element in national defense. War tends to unite a country to an unusual degree, thus giving it a national unity, as was done by the bombing of Pearl Harbor by the Japanese. Invention in many lines is accelerated. Families, without a doubt, realize other positive values as a result of war.

The preceding discussion is not an argument for or against war. These are points upon which the good student will make up his mind, but the discussion is a conscientious attempt to recount certain phases of the impact of war upon the family.

(What effect did the attack of Japan upon the United States on December 7, 1941, have upon the population of the United States? Cite specific instances of the impact of war upon families in your community. Upon the families of Germany or Great Britain. What may a family do to help cushion the post-war effects? If the money spent during the first World War and the second World War was spent on peace-time improvements, what are some of the things which might be accomplished by such expenditure?)

The Future of the Family System. — In spite of changes, there is every reason to suppose that human beings will continue to need the family system. True, it will change in the future as it has in the past. It will probably lose certain functions and will add others. Certain functions will become weakened and others will grow strong, but through it all the family will continue to serve basic human needs.

In the future the searchlight of research will be turned more and more upon the family. Family counseling will probably develop into a very important professional field, while various movements will be devoted to the conservation of the greatest of the social institutions — the family.

(Conduct a panel discussion on the future of the family system.)

Summary. — From our study, we see that the family developed in the fulfillment of certain human needs. As long as

it fulfills such needs, it not only must be protected and preserved, but must be perpetuated. As new needs arise, the family must change in order to accept and cope with them. Thus, it can never stand still in its development. To the student there is no institution more worthy of study than the family. It lies at the very base of our social structure and is one of the great groups through which social change and social progress take place.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. The English family.
2. Family life among the Greeks.
3. The early Jewish family.
4. The Chinese family.
5. The American colonial family.
6. Economic problems of the family.
7. Divorce as a social and individual problem.
8. The divorce rate of the various states.
9. The good and bad effects of the declining birth rate.
10. A program for the improvement of the American family.
11. The so-called ideal age for marriage.
12. Advantages of early marriage.
13. Disadvantages of early marriage.
14. To whom should the right of marriage be denied?
15. Characteristics which it is desirable to match in marriage.
16. The effect of World War II upon marriage and divorce.

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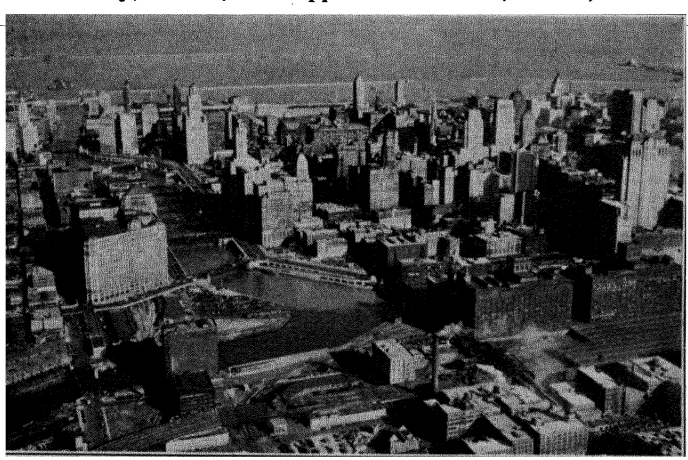
CHAPTER XI

SOCIAL PROBLEMS OF THE CITY

Our Changing Mode of Life. — Although the town and city antedate the beginnings of recorded history, as indicated in the following paragraphs, the development of modern urbanism in this country is comparatively recent.

Of all our national resources — natural and man-made — the most important, and the one in terms of which all others have to be judged, is human life. The safety, welfare, and happiness of the men, women, and children



Fairchild Aerial Surveys

CHICAGO FROM THE AIR

who compose the American people constitute the only justification of government. They are the ends for which all our resources — land, water, minerals, plants, animals, technology, institutions, and laws — are merely instruments.

The manner of life of our people, the problems they face, and the hopes and desires they cherish for improvement in their existence and the advance-

ment of their civilization should be the supreme concern of government. Since the nation was founded, the mode of life, the problems and the aims of our people have undergone many significant changes. Of these, probably none is more important than the transition from a crude and simple handicraft economy to an advanced type of modern industrialism, and from a rural to a predominantly urban mode of living.[1]

What Is a City? — To define a city is not as easy a task as it would seem. Politically, it may be called a "unit of government," but this definition tells us very little about its characteristics. A county or parish is likewise a unit of government. Legally, a city may be looked upon as a corporation; however, this term is of doubtful descriptive value.

The most common bases for defining a city are *total population* and *population density*. No one holds that these definitions are perfect in every respect, but they form a definite basis for definition which is particularly valuable for census enumeration and for making convenient comparisons.

Until the year 1910, the United States Census Bureau set 8000 population as the differentiation mark between urban and rural, all places with less than 8000 population being classified as rural, and those with 8000 or more population being classified as urban. In 1910, however, the population differentiation was reduced to 2500, and since that time places with a population of 2500 or more have been called "urban," while those with populations of less than 2500 have been called "rural." The urban population has been re-calculated back to 1880, using 2500 as a basis for the calculation. Since 1887, the International Institute of Statistics, which attempts to bring about uniformity of statistical procedures throughout the world, has defined as urban centers having a population of 2000 or more.

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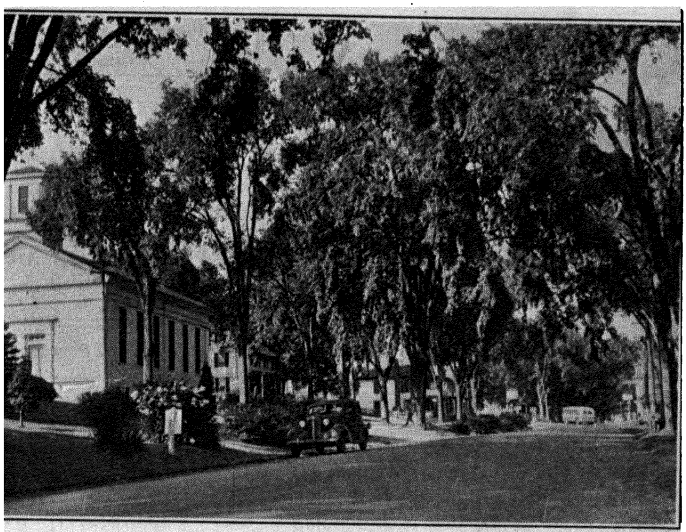
[1] National Resources Committee, *Our Cities*, Government Printing Office. Washington, D. C., 1937, p. 1.

Density of population per square mile has been suggested as a more reliable basis for defining the city than total population.



Charles Phelps Cushing

A Small New England Town

Some years ago, Professor Willcox, of Cornell University, advocated the following classification of population centers on the basis of density of population:

Rural — population density less than 100 per square mile.

Village — population density between 100 and 1000 per square mile.

Urban — population density of 1000 and over per square mile.

Urban Growth. — In the chapter on population were treated certain phases of the movement of the population toward the city. It is necessary to repeat a bit of this information at this point. The following table shows the extent of urban growth in the United States over the sixty-year period from 1880 to 1940.

TABLE XXII. PER CENT OF OUR POPULATION LIVING IN PLACES OF 2500 POPULATION OR MORE [1]

Year	Per Cent of Population That Is Urban	Year	Per Cent of Population That Is Urban
1880	28.2	1920	51.2
1890	35.1	1930	56.2
1900	39.7	1940	56.5
1910	45.7		

TABLE XXIII. URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES: 1790 TO 1940 [2]

Census Year	Total Population	Urban Population		Rural Population	
		Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1940	131,669,275	74,423,702	56.5	57,245,573	43.5
1930	122,775,046	68,954,823	56.2	53,820,223	43.8
1920	105,710,620	54,157,973	51.2	51,552,647	48.8
1910	91,972,266	41,998,932	45.7	49,973,334	54.3
1900	75,994,575	30,159,921	39.7	45,834,654	60.3
1890	62,947,714	22,106,265	35.1	40,841,449	64.9
1880	50,155,783	14,129,735	28.2	36,026,048	71.8
1870	38,558,371	9,902,361	25.7	28,656,010	74.3
1860	31,443,321	6,216,518	19.8	25,226,803	80.2
1850	23,191,876	3,543,716	15.3	19,648,160	84.7
1840	17,069,453	1,845,055	10.8	15,224,398	89.2
1830	12,866,020	1,127,247	8.8	11,738,773	91.2
1820	9,638,453	693,255	7.2	8,945,198	92.8
1810	7,239,881	525,459	7.3	6,714,422	92.7
1800	5,308,483	322,371	6.1	4,986,112	93.9
1790	3,929,214	201,655	.5.1	3,727,559	94.9

The following table shows the number of urban places of specified size for selected periods.

[1] U. S. Census Reports on *Population*, 1880–1940.

[2] U. S. Bureau of the Census, *Urban and Rural Growth from 1790 to 1940*, Release, November 15, 1941.

TABLE XXIV. NUMBER OF URBAN PLACES CLASSIFIED BY SIZE OF POPULATION FOR SELECTED PERIODS[1]

Population	Number of Places per Year				
	1940	1930	1900	1850	1790
1,000,000 or more	5	5	3		
500,000 to 1,000,000	9	8	3	1	
250,000 to 500,000	23	24	9		
100,000 to 250,000	55	56	23	5	
50,000 to 100,000	107	98	40	4	
25,000 to 50,000	213	185	82	16	2
10,000 to 25,000	665	606	280	36	3
5,000 to 10,000	965	851	465	85	7
2,500 to 5,000	1422	1332	832	89	12

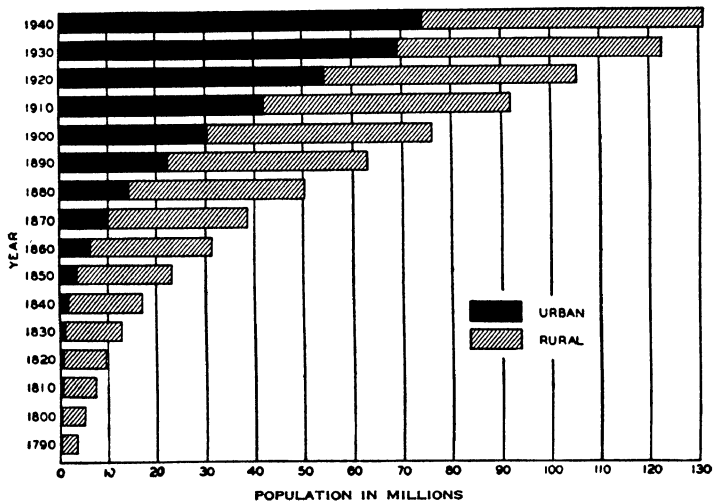
The urban population in 1940 formed 56.5 per cent of the total population of the United States, as compared with 56.2 per cent in 1930 and 51.2 per cent in 1920. Today approximately 15 per cent of our population lives in cities of over one million population.

The growth of urban population was much less in the decade 1930–1940 than from 1920–1930, only 7.9 per cent, as compared with 27.3 per cent. This decline is partially the result of a decline in the rate of growth of the total population from 16.1 per cent between 1920 and 1930 to 7.2 per cent between 1930 and 1940. The increase in the rural population between 1930 and 1940 was more rapid than between 1920 and 1930 — 6.4 per cent, as compared with 4.4 per cent.

For the entire country, the total increase in population between 1930 and 1940 was 8,894,229. Of this amount, the increase in urban places (5,468,879) accounted for 61.5 per cent and that in rural areas (3,425,350) for 38.5 per cent. On the

[1] Bureau of the Census, *Urban Population of the United States from the First Census (1790) to the Fifteenth Census (1930)*, Oct. 31, 1939, and *Housing Figures for Urban Places*, 1940, Sept. 8, 1941.

basis of absolute numbers, then, the urban increase was substantially larger than the rural.



In commenting upon the trend in urban growth between 1930 and 1940, the Bureau of the Census says:

The marked decline in the rate of urban growth is attributable in large measure to the economic conditions of the past decade. These conditions have slowed down the movement of population from rural to urban areas, and have also reduced somewhat the rate of natural increase. Hence the urban areas have grown far less, in comparison with past decades, from the inflow of rural inhabitants, and somewhat less from the excess of births over deaths. Finally, immigration from foreign countries, which is at least partially related to economic conditions in this country, virtually ceased during the 1930's. In past decades such immigration contributed greatly to urban growth; in the period from 1930 to 1940, during which net immigration was a minus quantity and gross immigration only a few hundred thousand, it is obvious that immigration could have contributed very little.[1]

[1] Bureau of the Census, *Urban and Rural Population of the United States*, press release dated January 18, 1941.

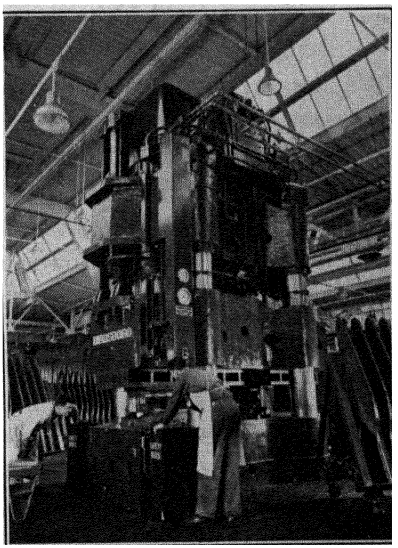
The Sixteenth Census releases[1] indicate that there were 412 urban places with 25,000 or more inhabitants in 1940, as compared with 376 in 1930 (see Table XXIV). The 1940 releases indicate that the largest American city, New York, had a census population of 7,454,995 and that Chicago, holding second place in size of population, had a population of 3,396,808.

(Make a graphic study of the growth of the cities in your state. If you live in a city, make a chart of the population growth of the city.)

Factors Contributing to Urban Growth. — During the last fifty years, why have cities shown such rapid growth? Rather than discuss each of these causes in detail, let us briefly list them.

Some major causes of urban growth in the United States have been:

1. The rise of industries, which originally necessitated the centralization of workers close to the factories and shops in which they worked. Such a centralization of working population was obviously not necessary during the early days of agriculture and handicraft industries. Because of inadequate transportation, the centralization of workers had to accompany the growth of factories.



Courtesy Curtiss-Wright Corporation

MAKING PROPELLERS BY MACHINES

Machines control industry as seen in this airplane factory. Without them cities could not be built, nor could they operate.

[1] *Ibid.*, August 16, 1941.

2. The improvement of transportation and communication facilities, enabling food to be brought from rural districts to feed the city, and also enabling the products of the city to be distributed widely to both urban and rural territory of this country and abroad, was a movement of prime importance favoring the growth of cities.

3. The mechanization of agriculture, mining, lumbering, and other rural industries, thus making available a surplus rural population upon which the city could draw.

4. Immigration, which was not greatly restricted until about 1924, has accounted for much of the population growth of American cities. The cities of the United States have grown nearly equally from three sources: first, natural increase in population, *i.e.*, surplus of births over deaths; secondly, immigration; and, thirdly, migration to cities from rural areas of the United States. Immigration is not now an important source of urban growth.

5. The increase in number of services demanded by higher standards of living has been an important factor in urban growth. These services have increasingly centralized in cities, because it was there that the population which demanded them existed. Some of the most important services are: bakeries, hairdressing, dental service, medical service, shopkeeping, and the like.

6. Increased leisure has resulted in the growth of resort cities and also in a general increase of tourist trade, which has influenced city growth in certain sections.

7. The gradual divorcement of men from the soil, for many reasons, has also been a cause of urban growth.

While there was a net movement of population from cities to farms from 1930 to 1933 which was greater than the net movement from country to city, and while there is some evidence of decentralization of industry, especially in the South Atlantic

states, most authorities agree that for some time there is likely to be a continuation of city growth which will surpass the population increase of rural areas, though much of this may take place in suburban areas.

(List the leading causes of city growth. Obtain the opinion of the class as to whether they prefer to live in country or city, together with reasons for their answers. Why do farmers move to town? How do you account for the growth of cities in your state? Study the causes of growth of your city. How may tire and rubber rationing affect urban growth? Compare a small town newspaper with a large metropolitan newspaper, particularly as to content.)

Some Results of Urban Growth. — One of the far-reaching consequences of the growth of cities is that it has changed the economic status of people from one of economic independence to one of economic dependence. Rural people, if they own the land upon which they live, are relatively independent, while the bulk of urban people are dependent upon their employer for a job, upon their grocer for food, upon the city for water, and upon the landlord for shelter.

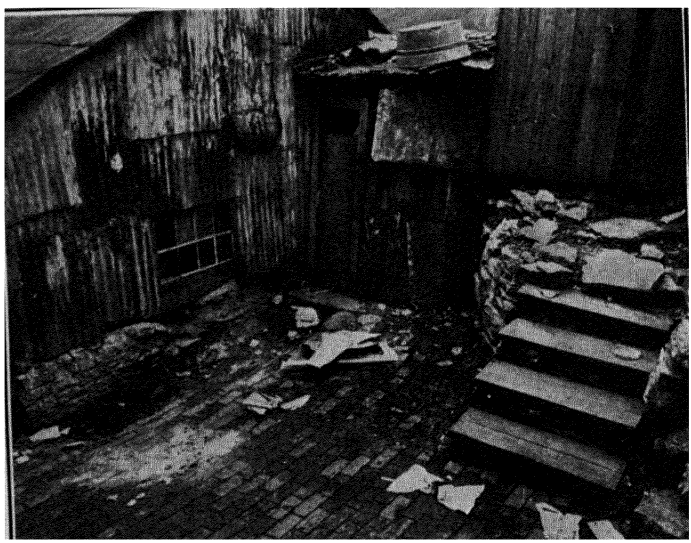
The city with its diverse activities has resulted in a greater division of labor than one finds in the country. This greater division of labor has also been accompanied by a monotony of labor tasks which one does not find in rural areas. This monotony, however, has been partially offset by long hours of leisure time.

The growth of cities has also resulted in a centralization of social problems and the growth of other social problems. This is true of crime, poverty, vice, divorce, congestion, unemployment, and other social problems.

The struggle for status, position, recognition, and wealth in cities has resulted in an increase of competition of greater intensity than one finds in rural districts.

The problem of administering the city has been greatly

intensified by the rapid increase in urban growth which has characterized American cities during the last twenty years. To finance the city, keep it healthful, handle its traffic, provide its water supply, dispose of its sewage, protect it from attack from



Resettlement Administration

PRODUCT OF SOCIETY'S INDIFFERENCE

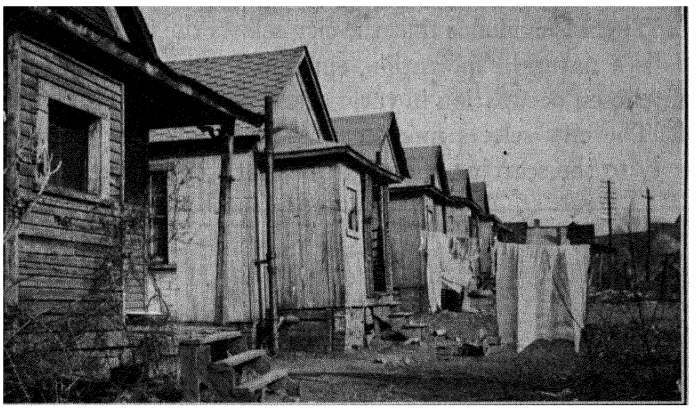
This is an all-too-familiar scene in large American cities.

the air and guide its growth is becoming for the larger cities, as New York, Chicago, San Francisco, London, and Paris, a baffling problem.

Without a doubt, the increasing complexity of cities has added to the strain of living. The many nervous difficulties to which urban peoples are subject is partial evidence of the soundness of this statement.

Urban growth has facilitated social change in that the massing of minds and interests makes for a breakdown of old traditions, standards, and habits, and makes possible the rise of new ones.

Invention and the diffusion of cultural traits is facilitated by cities. Here inventive genius is centralized, while the greater contact and mobility of people in the city makes possible the



Resettlement Administration

A CROWDED COMMUNITY

Almost any large American industrial city is likely to have its Mechanicsville.

diffusion of cultural traits. In some respects, the city has forced standardized methods of living upon the population within its boundaries.

Another consequence of city growth is that it has drained many rural regions of their population, thus bringing about a decay of rural institutions and agencies.

(Enumerate other results of urban growth. In what ways has city life standardized city living? Why has the growth of cities facilitated invention? Why does the city facilitate social change? Consult a physician or health officer as to the comparative healthfulness of city and country.)

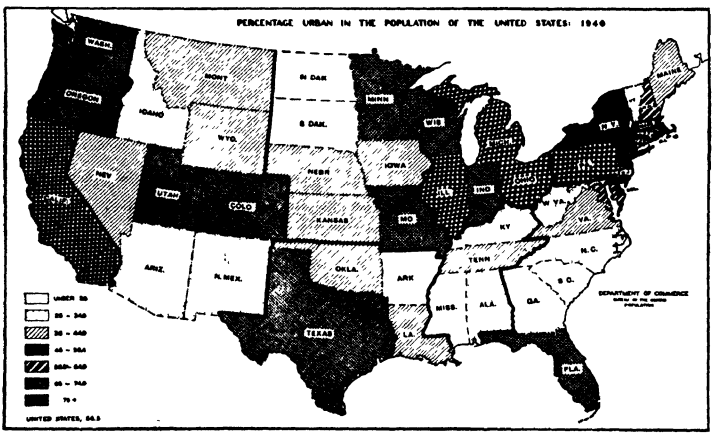
What Human Types Do the Cities Select? — There has been much dispute over the type and quality of people who go to the city. We shall give the conclusions of the various studies to date as to who goes to the city.

1. The city is likely to attract more people between the ages of eighteen and thirty years than any other comparable age span.

2. There is little, if any, conclusive evidence that the city selects the more intelligent.

3. There is evidence that the city selects the better educated. This is a natural expectation, since many persons cannot find their chosen occupation in rural areas.

4. The city selects more females than males. This is due largely to the scarcity of occupations for women in rural areas.



URBAN POPULATION BY STATES

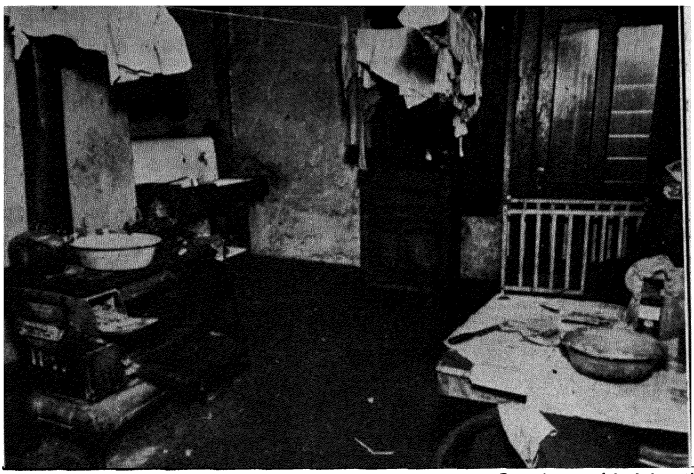
5. Some studies indicate that the children of tenant farmers are more likely to leave the rural regions than children of farm owners. At least one study has indicated that the reverse is true.

6. The city is also attracting the Negro population in large numbers in America.

(Why is it normally expected that the city should attract the better educated? If you live in a rural community, make a study of those who have gone from your community to the city within the last five years.)

Major Problems of the City and How They Are Being Attacked. — One could devote an entire book to a consideration of these problems; therefore, to cover quite a few of them, we shall present them in summary form:

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
1. Disease prevention and health protection.	1. Inspection of foods and food handlers. 2. Centralized water purification. 3. Sanitary sewage disposal systems. 4. Sanitary garbage collection and disposal. 5. Public health clinics. 6. Sanitary inspection of public premises and buildings. 7. Hospitalization for public and private pay patients. 8. Child care and protection. 9. Supervised playground and recreation facilities. 10. Safety education and safety measures. 11. Co-operative public health programs with county and state health departments and other city health departments. 12. Group forms of hospitalization. 13. Group forms of medical care. 14. Special attention to the addition of vitamins, minerals, and other protective elements to foods. 15. Public health education. 16. Research into methods of preserving health.

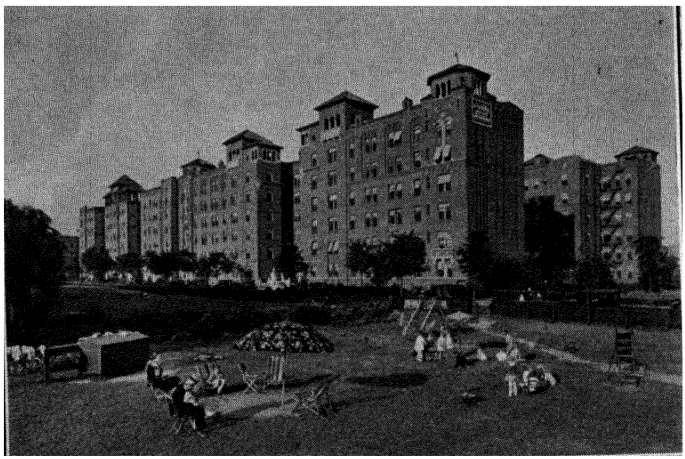


Resettlement Administration

A FAMILY KITCHEN IN A CITY SLUM TENEMENT

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
2. The tendency of the population of the city to overflow its boundary lines.	1. Incorporation of new areas. 2. The setting up of special administrative districts to handle specific problems for the whole metropolitan area, whether it be incorporated or not. Examples are: water supply districts, park commissions, sewage disposal districts, and the like. 3. The acceptance, by the state, of the administration of problems which affect several cities or a large number of people outside cities, as schools, roads, or public health. 4. The placement of an additional charge upon utility services, as water, fire protection, and elec-

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
2. The tendency of the population of the city to overflow its boundary lines. — (*continued*)	tricity, by the city, where these services are furnished rural peoples by the urban communities.
3. Crime and vice control.	1. Strict enforcement of law. 2. New laws aimed at those who exploit persons in crime and vice rackets. 3. Laws prohibiting the use of hotels and other buildings for immoral purposes. 4. State police and regional police systems. 5. Modern municipal systems of criminal identification and full participation with federal officials in criminal classification and identification. 6. Police radio and teletype systems co-ordinating the police systems of entire metropolitan regions. 7. Strict federal and state laws against fraud. 8. The prevention of juvenile delinquency through education, supervised recreation, child care, slum clearance, laws regulating the sale of articles by minors, the creation of special children's courts, and the liberal use of probation in juvenile courts. 9. Special police training programs. 10. Co-operation with the Federal Bureau of Investigation in the filing of fingerprints, the reporting of crime, and the apprehension of criminals.



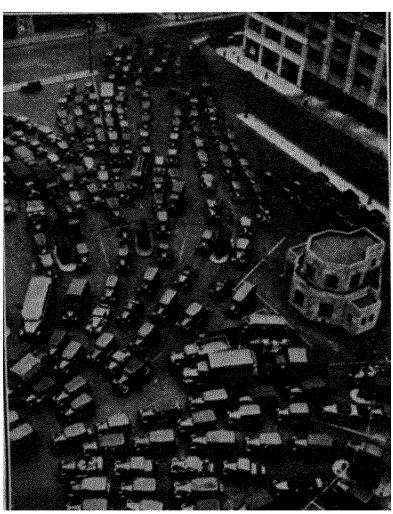
BETTER HOUSING

The dismal tenement is fast giving way to modern housing units.

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
4. Slum clearance and prevention of blighted areas.	1. Zoning laws regulating for what purposes property may be used and the type of structures which may be constructed. 2. Slum clearance projects, paid for partially by state or federal funds, and the building of neighborhood housing units or model houses. 3. The encouragement of civic pride in the appearance and upkeep of the city. 4. Long-range programs of city planning and the alteration of these plans only upon the advice of technical experts. 5. The prevention of poverty and dependency so that people will

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
4. Slum clearance and prevention of blighted areas. — (*continued*)	not have to seek refuge in the slums in order to find cheap housing and other living conditions and facilities within their means. 6. Land planning and zoning on a regional scale, usually along county or metropolitan lines, in an attempt to regulate and direct urban growth and prevent problems of blighting and disorderly development.
5. The government of the city.	1. The city manager form of government as a replacement of the weak mayor form. 2. Selection of governmental personnel by civil service methods. 3. State audit of city accounts. 4. Strict laws regulating those who handle public funds. 5. Many persons are now advocating regional units of government to replace the many units which may be found within a single city. For instance, New York City really cuts across three states and several counties. Some advocate that these units within the vicinity of New York should be consolidated and a single unit of government established for the city. 6. Wise urban government is increasingly making use of skilled, technical city-planning methods and personnel.

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
5. The government of the city.—(*continued*)	7. Efficiency bureaus have been established in a few cities to improve the quality and economy of government. Other cities have established budget bureaus to handle revenue and expenditures particularly. 8. County-city consolidation is still being recommended, but physical consolidation is likely to move pretty slowly. 9. County-city consolidation of functions, as health functions, education, has real possibilities and is likely to develop rapidly in the future.
6. Traffic control and urban congestion.	1. Automatic traffic signals. 2. Through traffic streets. 3. The segregation of traffic by use of "lanes," designed to speed up traffic. 4. Subways and tunnels. 5. Overhead railways. 6. Commuters parking their automobiles at the border of the city and continuing their journey into the city by street car, interurban, or bus. 7. The staggering of human traffic by staggering the hours of beginning and quitting work in various office buildings, stores, and industries. 8. The widening of streets by: *a.* Moving buildings. *b.* Arcading streets. *c.* Arcading sidewalks.



Ewing Galloway

AT THE ENTRANCE TO THE HOLLAND TUNNEL, NEW YORK CITY

Problem	*Remedial Measures*
6. Traffic control and urban congestion. — (*continued*)	*d.* Removal or narrowing of sidewalks. 9. The elimination of building overcrowding by building into the air and thus conserving ground space. 10. The partial solution of the automobile parking problem by: *a.* The establishment of parking lots. *b.* The construction of parking garages. *c.* Limiting parking to one hour or less time.

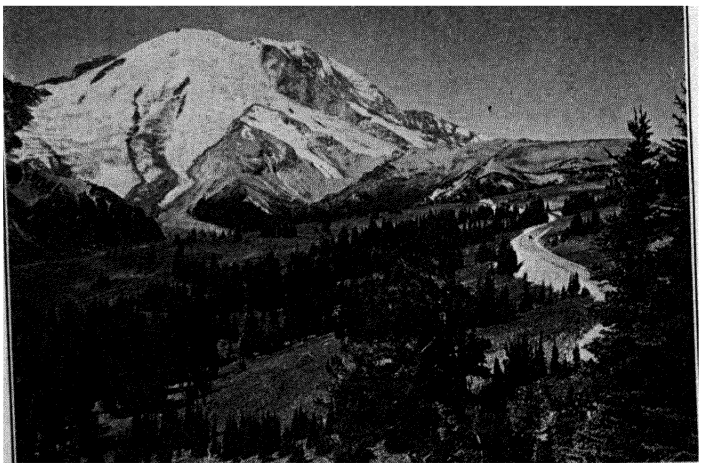
Thus, the above methods are a few of the ways in which the city is attempting to solve many of its important problems.

(Make a study of other problems of the city and how they are being met. What are the particular problems of your city and town, and how are they being met? Make a study of city planning to determine what it has to offer your town or city. What is your city doing or what has it done in the way of air raid precautions?)

The Interdependence of Rural and Urban Cultures. — We have discussed some of the more important social problems of the urban world. In the next chapter we take up the problems of the rural world. While these problems are sufficiently distinct to merit separate treatment, basically the cultures of the rural and urban worlds are interdependent, and the interchange of peoples, information, and contacts is making them more so.

Urban peoples are dependent upon the rural world — the soil, the forest, and the stream — for food and for much of clothing and shelter. Rural people are basically dependent upon the urban areas for markets where they may dispose of the foods and the fibers produced on the land.

More and more urban and rural peoples are fostering movements which tend to improve and complement the relationships of these two great sections of the population — the rural and the urban — and to give some concrete forms of expression to this interdependence.



Courtesy Northern Pacific Railway

IN RAINIER NATIONAL PARK

Increasingly, in the social studies we learn of the interdependence of groups. We learn how the prosperity of one group depends upon the prosperity of another group and how one section of the country — rural or urban — existing on a deficit pulls down all other sections. We learn how the city prospers when the rural areas prosper and how urban prosperity filters across the urban boundary lines into the rural homes and pocketbooks. In urban textbooks and supplementary readers urban children learn of the communities and the lives and problems of rural peoples. In rural textbooks and supplementary references the rural boy and girl come to an

understanding of urban life and the great problems of urban communities.

Urban business men are becoming increasingly interested in soil conservation, reforestation, rural land-planning and zoning, flood control, rural electrification, and other rural problems. This interest is being aroused because they realize that their security and prosperity depend, and will continue to depend, in no small way upon the security and prosperity of the rural population.

(Show, through careful study, the interdependence of rural and urban life in your area. Work out a program for improving rural and urban relationships in your city or county.)

Conclusion. — The two most outstanding changes in America during the last one hundred years have been the growth of cities and the growth of industries, most of which have been located in and around cities. This movement of population toward the city has not been abnormal, but rather a perfectly normal social movement. To guide the growth and development of the American city will be a function of the technical adviser, working hand in hand with the social scientist.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Critically evaluate various definitions of "city" or "urban."
2. Discuss the strong and weak points of the concept of "urban" as used by the Census Bureau.
3. Urban growth in my state.
4. The cities of my state.
5. The history of my town.
6. The advantages and disadvantages of city life.
7. Why the rural world needs the city.
8. Why the city needs the rural world.
9. A contrast of social life in city and country.
10. The city of the future.
11. The small town.

12. At what cost has urbanization of population been achieved?
13. The modern city and modern warfare.

VOCABULARY STUDY

centralization	intelligence	congestion
mechanization	selection	suburban
immigration	urban	zoning
interurban	incorporation	arcading
migration	status	metropolitan area

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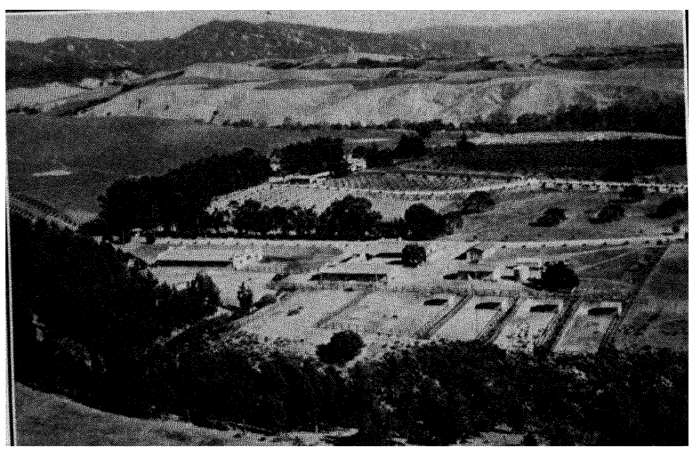
CHAPTER XII

SOME PROBLEMS OF THE RURAL WORLD

Rural Influences Changing. — No one denies the primary, basic necessity of a healthy agriculture and rural life to our national well-being; yet rural influences are changing. For



Fairchild Aerial Surveys

THE DOS PUEBLOS RANCH, GOLETA, CALIFORNIA

The agricultural environment sometimes affords a picture of prosperity and adequacy, as indicated in the scene above.

instance, over the last several decades, the per cent of the rural population in the total population has decreased. This trend is indicated in the following table, which is taken from the *United States Census Reports* for the years indicated.

The data for 1946 indicate that 54,818,000 persons, or 40.0 per cent of the total population, were rural dwellers. The

TABLE XXV. RURAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1790–1946

Year	Total Number Rural People	Per Cent of Total Population Which Is Rural
1946	54,818,000	40.0
1940	57,245,573	43.5
1930	53,820,223	43.8
1920	51,552,647	48.8
1910	49,973,334	54.3
1900	45,834,654	60.3
1890	40,841,449	64.9
1880	36,026,048	71.8
1870	28,656,010	74.3
1860	25,226,803	80.2
1850	19,648,160	84.7
1840	15,224,398	89.2
1830	11,738,773	91.2
1820	8,945,198	92.8
1810	6,714,422	92.7
1800	4,986,112	93.9
1790	3,727,559	94.9

TABLE XXVI. RURAL FARM AND NONFARM POPULATIONS, 1940 AND 1946 [1]

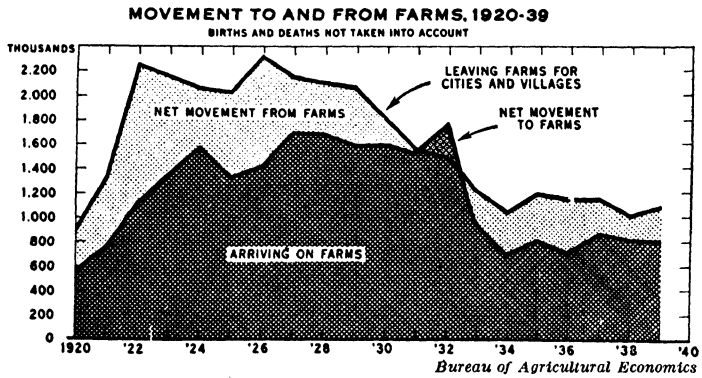
Item	1946*		1940	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Total population	136,967,000	100.0	131,669,275	100.0
Urban	82,149,000	60.0	74,423,702	56.5
Rural, nonfarm	27,230,000	19.9	27,094,497	20.6
Rural, farm	27,588,000	20.1	30,151,076	22.9

* Civilian population only.

rural-farm population in 1946 numbered 27,588,000, or only 20.1 per cent of the total population, as compared with 30,151,076, or 22.9 per cent of the total population, in 1940.

[1] Release, Bureau of the Census, February 20, 1947.

During the decade 1930–40 the rural nonfarm population showed a considerable increase. The rural nonfarm population was 27,094,497, or 20.6 per cent of the total population in 1940, as compared with 23,662,710, or 19.3 per cent of the total population in 1930 (see Table XXVI).



Bureau of Agricultural Economics

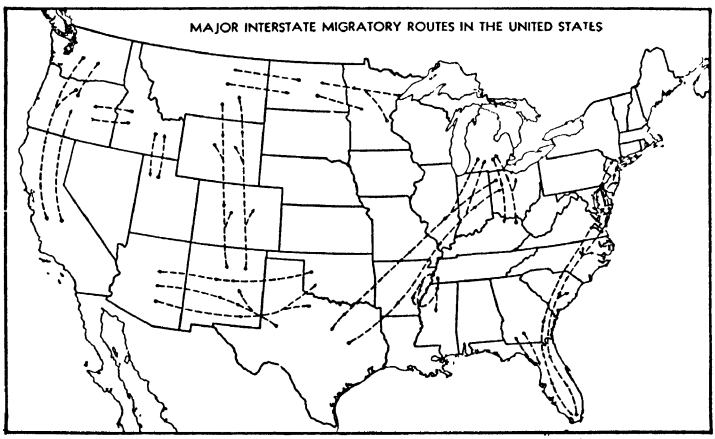
In 1940 there were 6,096,799 farms in the United States. In 1930, however, there were 6,288,648 farms and 6,448,343 in 1920. During the decade 1930–40 the number of farms was decreased by 191,849, or a percentage decrease of 3.1. During the decade 1920–30 the number of farms was decreased by 159,695, or a decline of 2.5 per cent. The farm population per farm was 5.0 persons in 1940, 4.8 persons in 1930, and 4.9 persons in 1920.[1]

The Bureau of Agricultural Economics points out that there was a decrease in farm population during the 1920's of 1,445,000 persons and a net loss of 463,000 between 1910 and 1920. They say:

> . . . By 1910 most of the farm land of the country had been occupied, and though there were some increases during the early years of the War, 1914–1918, there were rapid decreases after the entry of the United States

[1] Bureau of the Census, Preliminary Release on *Total Farm Population*, April 23, 1941.

into that War, with the resulting mobilization of manpower and large demands for workers in rapidly expanding industries which were no longer able to secure needed new workers from Europe. The decreases during the latter part of that decade were so large that there was a net loss for the entire period. In the years immediately following the War, farm population was rapidly drained off into expanding industrial and other employment. By



This cut shows the main migratory routes for the year 1930–1940.

1927 there was some slowing down of the migration from farms to cities, and after the 1929 crash there was a further reduction in migration from farms. Whereas the net migration during the 1920's was approximately 6,000,000 and that for the preceding decade was about the same, the net migration from farms during the 1930's was only 2,179,000 persons.

The concentration of economic activity into cities during World War II resulted in a migration from farms to cities which has continued into the postwar period.

Rural-Urban Contrasts. — Differences between the rural and urban worlds in the United States greatly decreased during the last fifty years, although there are still fundamental differences between the two environments.

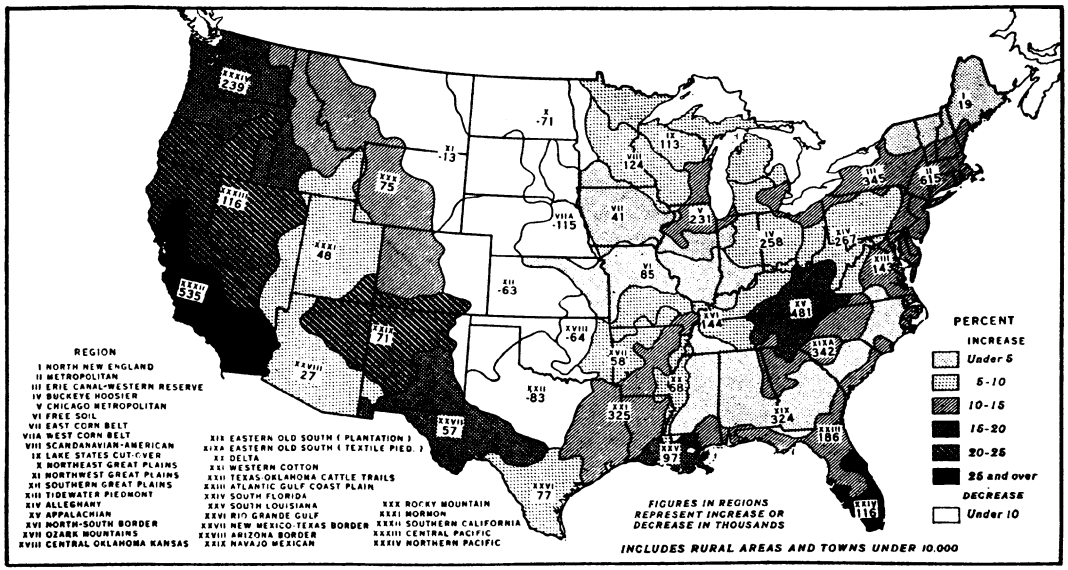
The rural environment is more of a natural environment, while

the environment of the city is more artificial or man-made. The rural environment abounds in trees, plants, animals, water, and sky, while the urban environment contains buildings, streets, sidewalks, machines, and industrial and commercial establishments.

There are, likewise, very fundamental occupational differences between the rural and urban worlds. In the urban world, the bulk of work is carried on indoors, while in the rural world it is carried on outdoors. Rural occupations are more extractive in type, devoted to extracting a living from the soil in the form of plants and, indirectly, from animals, and of extracting fuels and other minerals from the earth. Rural occupations deal largely with working the soil, while urban occupations deal more with the manipulation of people.

Urban occupations are more diverse than rural occupations. The city abounds in specialists, professional men, artisans, and both skilled and unskilled laborers. It is the city which offers to the industrial, professional, and commercial worlds an abundance of talent, although a good deal of it is recruited from rural regions.

There are also differences between the people of the rural and urban environments which we should mention. Urban peoples are less homogeneous than rural peoples. The total urban population is made up of a greater number of racial, nationality, language, religious, and social divisions than is the rural population. Urban peoples are also characterized by more diverse attitudes, habits, and interests. Then, too, urban peoples live more closely together and are more densely settled than are rural peoples. Urban peoples are characterized also by a much greater rate of mobility than are rural peoples. This mobility is greater in two respects, namely, horizontal mobility, which is mobility between places or change of residence, and vertical mobility, which is movement up and down the economic and social scales.



Bureau of Agricultural Economics

CHART SHOWING INCREASE OF RURAL AND TOWN POPULATION, 1930–1940

To cite an appropriate example of the latter trend: it is within the range of possibility for one who is a millionaire today to make a sufficiently large number of bad investments to be reduced to poverty next month and, accordingly, to go very swiftly down the economic scale. This occurrence, however, would be unusual, though not impossible. There are less extremes of wealth in the country than in the city. There is less "dressing up," less observance of manners and etiquette in the country than in the city. The city is characterized by more contacts between people than is the country; however, the contacts of the country are likely to be more extended and of longer duration than those of the city. Contacts in the city are also more impersonal than those of the country. The fact that there is less change in the population of the country than in that of the city makes the establishment of lasting, permanent human relationships possible.

(Do rural peoples possess psychological characteristics which are different from those of urban people? Point out rural-urban differences other than those mentioned in the text.)

Some Important Rural Problems. — It is difficult to catalogue all the problems of rural peoples and rural institutions; therefore, we shall mention only a few of the more important ones. Too, the solutions to some of our rural problems are so baffling that we shall have to content ourselves with merely mentioning the problems, since as yet there is gross disagreement as to the correct solutions.

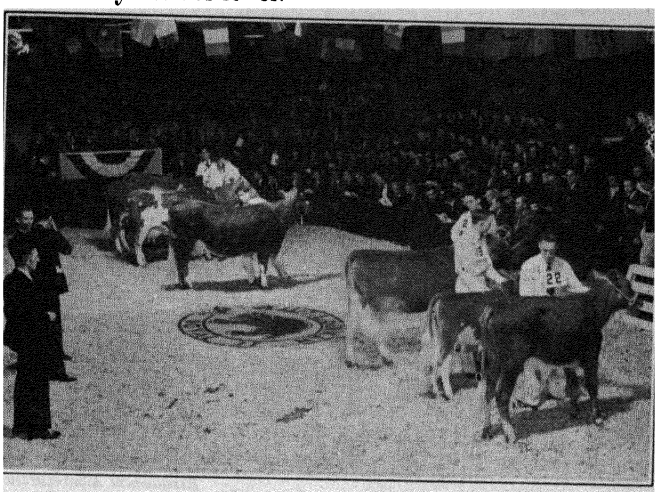
1. *The farmers' share in the national income* has always comprised one of the more important rural problems. Without a doubt, if the farmer had sufficient income, he could solve many of his more important problems, at least those within his control.

As to the solution of the problem of the farmer's income, there are diverse opinions, and diverse methods have been used over the last several years.

Among the things which have been done in an attempt to improve the farmer's income are the following:

a. The establishment of agricultural colleges, experiment stations, and extension services.

b. The offering of courses in agriculture and home-making at the secondary school level.



JUDGING CATTLE AT KANSAS STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND APPLIED SCIENCE, MANHATTAN, KANSAS

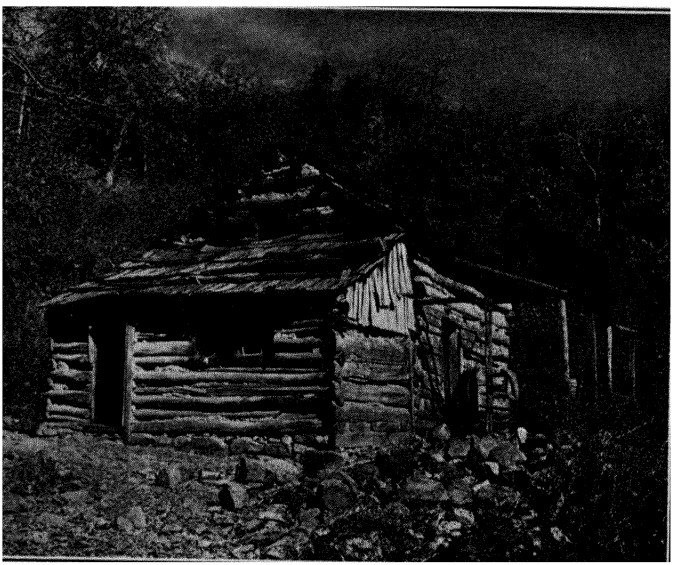
c. Federal farm subsidies and loan funds of various types.

d. The regulation of agricultural production.

e. Fixed agricultural prices, especially the placing of a "floor" under the prices of certain agricultural products.

There are many farmers in many localities who could, without a doubt, greatly increase their incomes through the application of scientific knowledge to the use of the land, to soil fertility, to plant and animal improvement, and to the general organization and administration of farming. Co-operative buying and selling should also achieve for the American farmer economic advantages which he has not, heretofore, achieved.

As the farmer's prosperity is closely related to the prosperity of the total working population, one is safe in saying that the farmer's income will never be stabilized and boosted to what it



Resettlement Administration

MARGINAL LIVING

Marginal land resources in agricultural communities often produce marginal living standards and marginal peoples. The resettlement of such people in more productive areas is essential if they are to have the opportunity of earning a healthy and decent living.

should be until the bulk of the American workers have employment at a wage which will provide a good day's pay for a good day's work. A health and decency wage for the American laboring man will mean happiness and health for him and income for the American farmer who feeds him.

(What has been done in your area toward increasing the income of the farmer? Why is the farmer's prosperity dependent upon the wage income of the American working man? Study the attempts of the Federal government to increase the farmer's income.)

2. *Tenancy* is another serious rural problem, although it varies in importance with various sections of the country.

From 1890 to 1930 the percentage of farms operated by tenants increased. However, between 1930 and 1945 there was a significant decline in tenant-operated farms.

TABLE XXVII. PERCENTAGE OF FARMS IN THE UNITED STATES OPERATED BY TENANTS, 1890–1945[1]

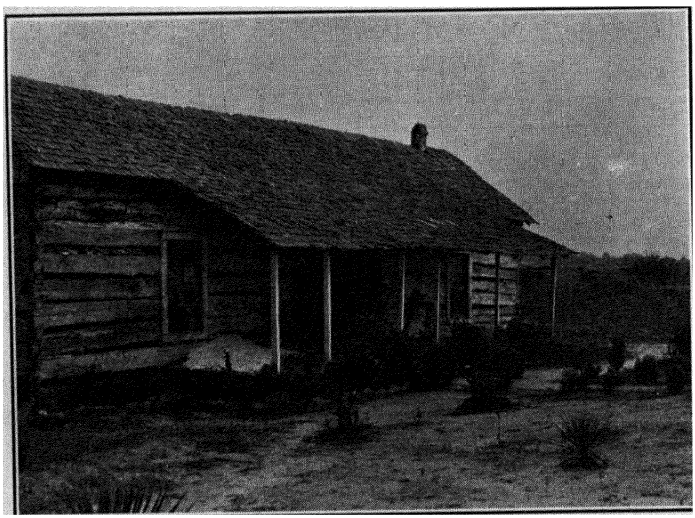
Year	Percentage of Farms Operated by Tenants
1890	28.4
1900	35.3
1910	37.0
1920	38.1
1930	42.4
1940	38.7
1945	31.7

TABLE XXVIII. PER CENT OF FARMS OPERATED BY TENANTS, BY GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS, 1930, 1935, AND 1940

Geographical Division	Per Cent of Farms Operated by Tenants		
	1930	1935	1940
United States . . .	42.4	42.1	38.7
New England . . .	6.3	7.7	7.4
Middle Atlantic . . .	14.7	16.2	14.6
East North Central .	27.3	29.4	27.9
West North Central .	39.9	42.6	42.4
South Atlantic . . .	48.1	46.3	42.2
East South Central .	55.9	54.8	50.1
West South Central .	62.3	59.5	52.6
Mountain	24.9	26.6	24.6
Pacific	17.7	21.2	18.5

[1] Based on the *Fifteenth Census of the United States*, 1930, volume on "Population," *United States Census of Agriculture: 1935; Agriculture: United States Summary*, 1940; and release, Bureau of the Census, March, 1947.

In 1945, 1,858,421 farms in the United States were operated by tenants, as compared to 2,865,155 in 1935. Table XXVIII shows the percentage of all farms operated by tenants in the various geographical divisions of the country. It is significant that tenancy decreased in all geographical divisions of the country between 1935 and 1940.



Charles Krutch

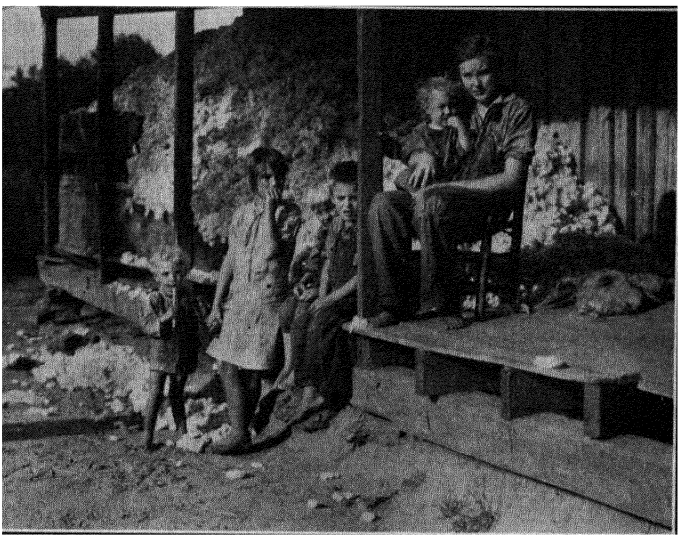
THE HOME OF A COTTON TENANT

Certain states, particularly the cotton-growing states, have an exceedingly large percentage of tenancy. In 1940, 56.1 per cent of the farms of South Carolina were operated by tenants. In Georgia, in 1940, 60.1 per cent of the farms were operated by tenants; while in Alabama the percentage was 58.8 per cent, and in Mississippi, 66.2 per cent.

Of all tenants in the United States in 1940, 514,438 were cash tenants; 278,605 were share-cash tenants; 1,357,090 share tenants and croppers; and 211,138 tenants of other types.

Tenancy is not without its advantages, but these are few as

compared with a multiplicity of disadvantages. Tenancy provides the young man without funds one avenue to farm ownership, but this road has often been a long and treacherous one. Some people do not like the risk and responsibility of owning a



Charles Krutch

TENANCY

Tenancy often imperils the economic and social security of children.

farm. To people of this type, tenancy provides one method of making a living, without entailing the responsibility of ownership.

The disadvantages of tenancy are, however, much greater than its advantages. When one is a tenant, he is likely to change residences frequently, a procedure which is costly. A tenant is not so likely to take as much interest in church, school, and community affairs as if he were an owner. Tenancy, and the conditions under which tenants have to live, are often discouraging, to say the least. Tenancy also encourages a low

standard of living because of the lack of income, the fact that residence is temporary, and the lack of capital. The children of tenants are often the worst victims of the system.

One of the most baffling problems that has confronted students of rural problems is that of how to reduce tenancy. The experience of Denmark, which authorities would agree has one of the most perfect rural cultures, and of Ireland, has been that it was impossible to establish and maintain an effective rural society in those countries as long as they had a large amount of tenancy. One of the first things Denmark did to reduce tenancy was to purchase large estates, divide them up into smaller farms, and make them available to worthy tenant farmers, to be paid for over a number of years at low interest rates.

One of the most comprehensive studies [1] of tenancy makes the following suggestions for the elimination, or at least the reduction, of tenancy:

a. That the federal government purchase huge acreages of land now owned by individuals, companies, land banks, and insurance companies.

b. That these lands be divided into tracts ranging in size from twenty to forty acres.

c. That the government lease these farms for long periods or, if the prospective home owner prefers, sell these farms on long-term contracts at low interest rates.

d. That regional service agencies be set up to supervise and guide the new home owners.

e. That, in addition to the above, experimental farm colonies, as homesteads, model village communities, and the like, be established and that their effectiveness in reducing tenancy be studied.

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[1] Johnson, Charles, *et al.*, *The Collapse of Cotton Tenancy*, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1935, pp. 64–69.

In the cotton regions particularly, a change in type of farming from a single-crop system to a diversified system, in which other plants are grown and some livestock maintained on the farm, would offer a higher standard of living to many tenant families. Many tenant farm families do not even attempt to grow a garden. To do so would add materially to their standard of living throughout the year.

3. *Making rural education accessible and adequate* is another major rural problem. In 1930, 6.9 per cent of the farm population ten years of age and over were illiterate. Among the rural Negro population of the South, the percentage is much higher, ranging in many sections well above 20 per cent.[1]

The above situation is slowly being remedied, and education in rural areas is being made more accessible and adequate through the following means:

a. Elimination of one-teacher schools and their replacement by consolidated schools. This movement toward consolidation has been facilitated by good roads which make it possible to transport pupils in busses from large areas. Many communities are making very effective community centers out of their consolidated schools.

b. The establishment of school libraries, which is often made possible and economical through school consolidation.

c. The establishment of county libraries, with outlying library stations which are reached by automobiles or "bookmobiles." Sometimes these libraries are called "traveling libraries."

d. Adult education courses are becoming part of the work of the rapidly growing adult education programs in many states. The field of adult education is one which holds tremendous possibilities for rural people.

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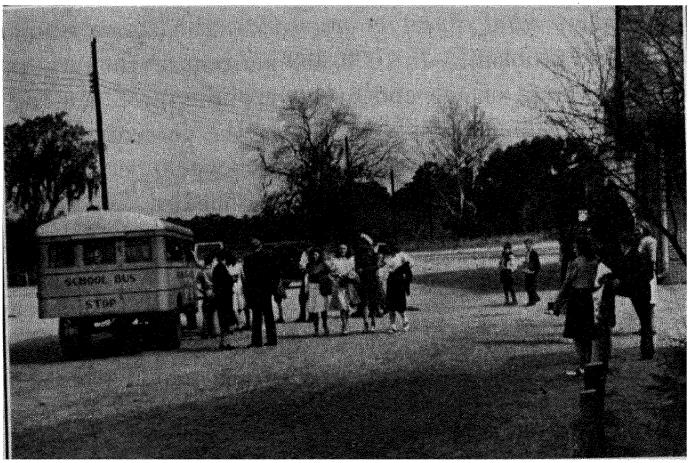
[1] Later figures are not available, as comparable data on illiteracy were not collected by the 1940 Census.

e. A gradual improvement of teacher standards is certainly making rural education more adequate.

f. One must not underrate the fine educational work which is being accomplished in the United States by the agricultural extension services of the state colleges and universities through home demonstration and agricultural agents.



James Sawders

THE SCHOOL BUS AT AN INTERSECTION

g. Rural education is also being made more adequate by the inclusion of courses in homemaking and agriculture in rural secondary schools and, in some instances, junior high schools.

4. *The problem of obtaining effective local government* is another major rural problem. Many rural counties are finding the expense of government very high in comparison to the effectiveness of returns from it. Many counties and rural towns also find themselves in the center of a system of political spoils in which educational, economic, and general social progress is handicapped because of the inefficient administration of political officeholders who are interested solely in their own welfare.

Many persons are also conscious of the fact that most units of rural local government are entirely too small and inadequate to raise sufficient revenues to support an efficient system of government.

Among the approaches to bringing about a more effective system of local government, the following have been mentioned:

a. Consolidations of counties in order to cut down the expense of administration in comparison with revenues and in order to make more effective services available. Possibly a much greater hope for improved local government lies in the consolidation of functions rather than in the consolidation of geographical units.

b. Civil service requirements for state and county officials, which would require that such officials meet certain educational and experience qualifications before they would be eligible to hold office.

c. The county manager form of government has also been advocated as a step forward in county governmental reform.

d. The abolition of the system of paying officials' salaries by fees, and the placing of county officials on fixed salaries should eliminate obnoxious systems of fee grabbing.

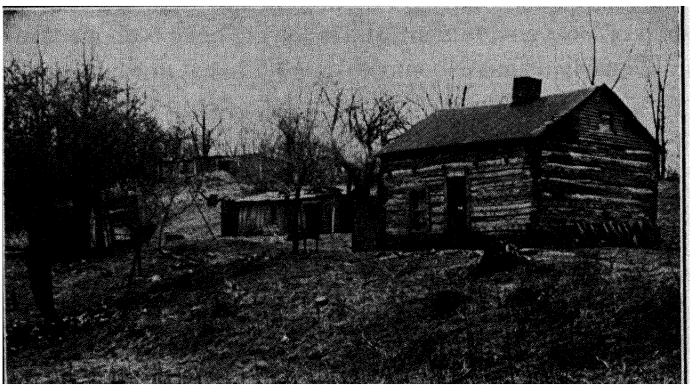
e. Some states, for example, Virginia, are experimenting with trained trial judges to replace the numerous justices of the peace in the trial of offenders. The Virginia system is apparently meeting with approval.

f. One must not overlook the importance of a more enlightened and more concerned public in bringing about more effective rural and urban government. If the public demands clean and honest government, it will get it.

5. *Obtaining and maintaining an adequate religious, recreational, and social life* is an important rural problem.

Through the consolidation of churches, under the so-called larger parish plan, through the subsidization of the salaries of

rural ministers by state, regional, or national church boards, through the better training of ministers, and the increasing use of village and small-town churches by rural peoples, great advances are being made in the improvement of the rural church situation.



Resettlement Administration

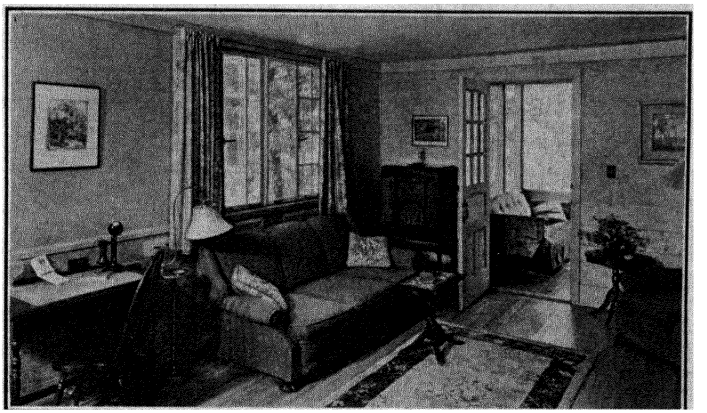
INADEQUATE RURAL HOUSING

Through the establishment of community centers around consolidated schools and community churches and through the development of rural recreational areas, as parks, camping grounds, game preserves, and other types of rural playgrounds, rural recreation should be greatly improved and expanded in the future. The radio, the automobile, and the proximity of rural peoples to cities are affording other avenues of recreation.

Community churches, consolidated schools, the automobile, good roads, and improved home conveniences should allow the farmer and his family more leisure, and the increase of social organizations among rural peoples should bring to the rural world an improved type of rural social life.

6. *Poor housing and lack of home conveniences are other serious rural problems.*

Rural electrification is making remarkable improvements in rural conveniences. As recently as 1935, 85 per cent of rural homes were without electricity. By 1940 this percentage had been decreased to 66 per cent, and by 1945 to 25 per cent. In 1935,



A MODERN RURAL HOME *Tennessee Valley Authority*

This home has electric lights, an electric water heater, an electric refrigerator, a built-in laundry tub, and is heated by electricity. The building is so insulated as to conserve heat in winter and to repel it in summer.

95 per cent of homes did not have water pumped into the houses. This percentage has probably decreased to about 50 per cent.

Between 1930 and 1940 there was an actual decline in the per cent of farms having telephones, the percentages being 34.0 per cent and 25.0 per cent respectively. This decline has been due, perhaps, to the greater use of the automobile, to the depression, and to the decline of local telephone companies.

Between 1930 and 1940 there were slight changes in the percentage of farms having motorized equipment. Automobiles increased only from 58.0 per cent to 58.1 per cent, and farm motor trucks from 13.4 per cent to 15.5 per cent. Farm tractors, however, jumped from 13.5 per cent in 1930 to 23.1 per cent in 1940.

The lack of sanitary toilets, bath facilities, and the proper protection of the family against insects and the danger of intestinal-borne disease germs and parasites are very important rural problems.

Anything which will improve the income and general living conditions of the farmer should improve the home conveniences of the farm.

(If you live in a rural community, work out a survey of the home conveniences of the homes represented in the school. Determine if the school can do anything to better the home conveniences and facilities in homes devoid of them.)

7. *An important rural problem in certain sections is the problem of migratory farm labor.*

Between 1930 and 1940 there was a great stream of migrants (see the map on page 229) into California, Oregon, Nevada, and Florida, as well as into other sections. Following in the wake of these migratory movements are many health problems, unemployment problems, educational problems, and problems of the disadvantaged status of migrants in rural areas.[1]

8. *The waste of natural resources has become a rural problem of momentous scope.* In the following comparisons are two pictures of two Americas, three hundred years apart.[2]

The America of 1630	*Million Acres*
Dense primeval forest	820
Native grass lands — tall and short	600
Open woods, arid lands, mountain tops, etc.	430
Desert	50
	1,900

[1] For an excellent account of the migration problems, see the reports of the U. S. Senate on *Interstate Migration*, Washington, Gov't Printing Office, 1941.

[2] Chase, Stuart, *Rich Land, Poor Land*, New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936.

The America of 1930	*Million Acres*
Merchantable forest — not all virgin	150
Cut-over forest, growing	200
Cut-over forest, dying	100
Farm woodlands	150
Grazing lands — open	330
Farm crop lands (irrigated, 25 million)	400
Farm pasture lands	420
Urban lands	50
Desert and waste	100
	1,900

Some writers have estimated that out of around one billion acres of "agricultural land" in the United States, some 500 million acres have been cultivated in the past. Of this amount, it is estimated by these writers that 100 million acres have been seriously damaged by erosion.[1]

(What are the outstanding rural problems of your state, county, or community, and how might they be solved?)

The Social Impact of Rural Electrification. — Among the modern forces which are bringing about the great changes in rural life, few appear more important than rural electrification in shaping the character and determining the quality of rural life.

At the close of 1934, 743,954 farms, or about 10.9 per cent of all farms, were receiving electrical energy from central stations. By 1946, 3,713,600 farms, or 60.0 per cent of all farms, were receiving electricity from central stations. Following 1935, as the costs of line construction were pushed down the scale and as less expensive transformers and other aids to the economical cost of line construction were perfected and placed on the market, the electrification program expanded to embrace some of the more marginal areas of rural America. During 1939 the daily construction of new electric lines completed averaged 297

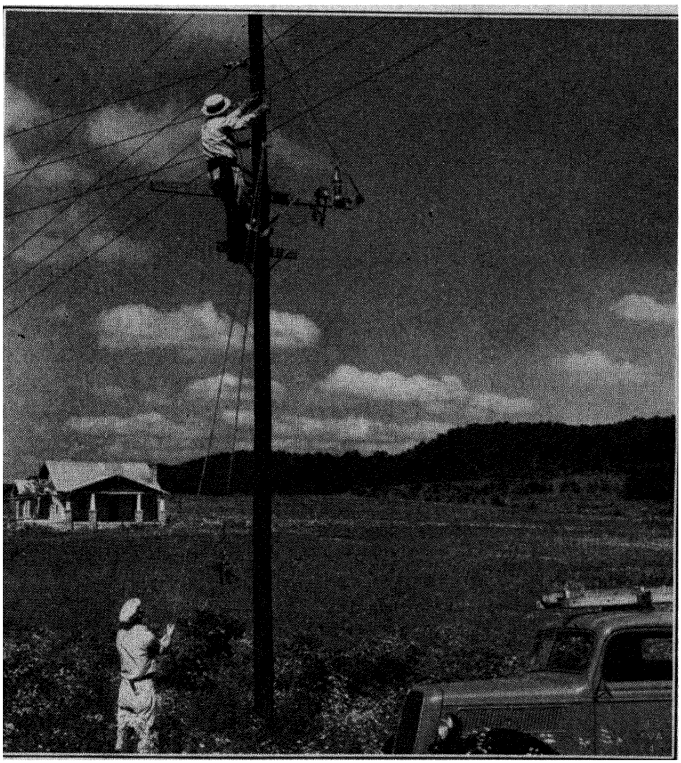
[1] Barnes, Harry Elmer, *Society in Transition*, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939, p. 85.

miles, or 75,816 miles for the year. Between 1939 and World War II and since World War II, manufacturers of electrical equipment, conscious of the possibilities and growing interest in the undeveloped rural electric market, showed themselves not only anxious to develop new and more economical electrical equipment for line construction, but also ready to experiment further in the development of new and more economical electrical appliances. The implications and the problems of this rapidly expanding movement have, perhaps, had no parallel since the days of the construction of railroads, the rural postal service, and hard-surfaced roads.

There are many ways in which the electrification program should contribute to raising the standard of living of rural people. For example, it is easy to visualize how home or community refrigeration may improve and regularize the food supply of families throughout the year, and how quick freezing and refrigeration may enable the farmer to reduce spoilage to a minimum. It is also easy to see how refrigeration may permit the farmer to distribute his sales in such a way as to escape, in part, victimization by the low prices of the harvest season. All of these possibilities should, perhaps, facilitate an improved and more balanced type of agriculture. In many areas, especially of the South, the intensified problem of population pressure upon the land and upon the standard of living may only be avoided by either a rapid migration to urban areas, or an intensified, improved, and more balanced type of agriculture, accompanied perhaps by a rapid industrialization of rural areas.

The use of electrical energy facilitates a decentralized pattern of industry, because electricity may be used economically in small units. Its flexibility, plus the advantages otherwise offered by many rural areas in the form of natural resources, manpower, and good transportation facilities should not only be attractive to industries already established, but should result

in the widespread growth of local industries and the development of new industries. Add to these advantages a large rural population, extensive rural hinterlands around the cities, good roads, the automobile, and a bountiful supply of rural electrical energy,



PUTTING UP POWER LINES TO CARRY ELECTRICITY TO THE FARMERS

plus a short work day and short work week, and there exists a base for an agro-industrial pattern — perhaps a more balanced economy — than has ever appeared in the rural sections of America to date. Out of this pattern of companionship should arise a security and a stability of life in this and future genera-

tions not possessed today by either our industrial or our rural farm cultures.

To the health of rural users of electric energy, electricity should make an important contribution. For example, improved lighting should contribute to the conservation of sight and to the prevention of accidents within the home. Both lighting and refrigeration should promote cleanliness in the home and in the dairy. An indoor water supply, made possible perhaps through an electrically driven pump, should result in improved, sanitary toilet facilities and improved bathing accommodations. A better protected food supply and a more adequate diet throughout the year, made possible through refrigeration, should make definite contributions to the health and well-being of the people whose homes are serviced by such conveniences.

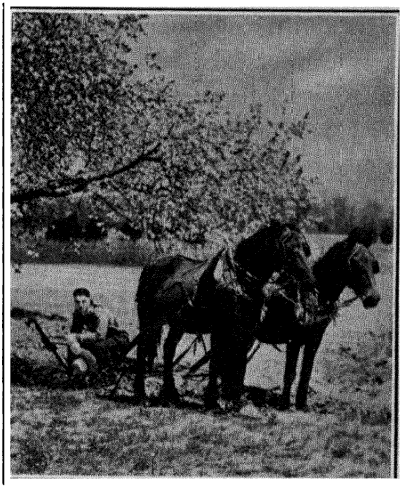
To the task of lifting the excessive burdens of home work from the shoulders of the farm woman, rural electrification should make an important contribution. Out of this should grow more time for relaxation from the routine of home duties, more time for self-improvement, increased hours to be devoted to children, and more time for sociability and making the home livable.

When one is in possession of a home wired for lights and equipped with other conveniences, there is, perhaps, a psychological advantage to be obtained from the feeling that one's home and standard of living is somewhat on a par with the standard of conveniences enjoyed by one's city cousins This lessening of the feeling of psychological disadvantage of living is an important aid in mental hygiene and in creating a satisfactory pattern of rural living.

The impact of electrification upon rural community structure and development should be extensive. The new facilities and conveniences made possible through electrification should add new interest, new significance, and new usefulness to school, church, and grange hall as community centers. By contributing

to rural areas some of the advantages which youth feel exists only in urban communities, electrification should make the countryside more inviting and should have considerable holding power upon rural youth.

It is expected that rural electrification may be one factor in rebuilding many communities around consolidated schools and the cross-roads churches. Communities rebuilt on a larger geographical basis than they have ever used before should enable a return of some of the neighborly spirit to rural life which was lost when the influence of the neighborhood gave way before the impact of the automobile, good roads, and the mobility which resulted from their use.



DOWN ON THE FARM *J. C. Allen*

Granting and hoping that our democratic form of government may continue, it seems that four great institutions which have been developed largely since the Civil War hold within their grasp the destiny of rural life in the United States. The first of these developments is the public school system and the agricultural colleges in the land-grant universities; the second, the agricultural press; the third, the good roads movement; and the fourth, rural electrification. As they have changed the complexion of rural life in the past, each is, perhaps, destined to play a more important part in changing rural life in the future, especially toward making rural life more satisfactory.

(Visit an electrified farm and evaluate the effect of electricity on the farm. If you do not have electric current in your area, what might you do to get such current? Make an inventory of the social results of rural electrification upon a rural community. Study the possibilities of the use of electricity in conserving other natural resources, as coal, oil, etc.)

Conclusion. — Agriculture and rural life are basic to the progress and development of our country. Without the farm, the city cannot exist for long. One of the reasons for city growth in America has been the splendid rural resources upon which the city has frequently and generously drawn. To preserve and develop these resources becomes a community, state, and national problem of the first magnitude.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Rural life in early America.
2. The rural life of other lands, especially Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland, England, and Ireland.
3. Fundamental differences in the rural and urban worlds.
4. The interdependence of city and country.
5. Some important rural problems and their solution.
6. Important agencies which are trying to improve rural life and living.
7. The rural needs of my state.
8. The rural needs of my county.
9. What the federal government is doing to improve rural life.
10. Some of the social effects of rural electrification in my community.
11. How may the rural church be vitalized?
12. A plan for community development for our school area.
13. Why young people have left our community.
14. The pro and con of decentralized industry.

VOCABULARY STUDY

rural	impersonal	electrification
homogeneous	income	consolidation
heterogeneous	tenant	accessible
mobility	recreation	regional

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CHAPTER XIII

INTER-GROUP PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN MINORITY PEOPLES

Races and Racial Features. — Although the use of the term "race" originally referred to the human race, we now use it to designate the three or four great divisions of the human race.

Race may be defined as *a relatively large number of people who have common physical characteristics, which are determined by heredity.* Race forms a convenient basis for dividing the world's population into large categories.

Physical characteristics usually utilized in classifying races are:

1. *Skin color,* as determined by the degree of pigmentation or coloring.

2. *Hair texture,* as determined by its coarseness or fineness and also the shape of the cross section of the hair. In cross section, hair ranges in shape from round among the Indians, who characteristically have straight hair, to oval, among the Negroes, who characteristically have curly hair.

3. *Cephalic index,* which is the relation of the width of the head to the length of the head and which is calculated by the formula:

$$\text{cephalic index} = \frac{\text{width of head} \times 100}{\text{length of head}},$$

and which varies greatly with different races.

4. *Nasal index,* which is the relation of the width of the nose to the height of the nose, when measured from root to base.

When the four preceding bases for race classification are applied to the world's population, it may be divided into four major races:

1. *The Caucasian* or white race. This race may be further divided into three sub-varieties, namely:

a. The Nordics, which are best exemplified by the inhabitants of northern Europe, particularly of the Scandinavian countries. These people have relatively long heads, blonde hair, fair skin, blue eyes, and are tall and large of frame and are sometimes called "Aryans."

b. The Alpines, sometimes called "round heads." The best examples of this sub-race are found in central Europe and are represented by the Swiss, the Austrians, and the northern Italians. In addition to differences in head shape, these people have a darker skin coloring than do the Nordics and are likewise shorter in stature and smaller in body build.

c. The Mediterraneans, the purest examples of which are found in southern Europe. These people have long heads and a dark skin color. The inhabitants of Spain, Portugal, and southern Italy are good examples of this sub-race.

2. The *Negroid* race. The Negroid race constitutes another major race. This race is characterized by woolly or tufted black hair, little hair on the face, broad nose, very dark brown skin, full lips, hair which is light in weight and oval in cross section, and therefore unusually curly, a receding forehead, rather long arms and legs, and usually a short body. It should be explained here, however, that the American Negro is a blending of the Negro, white, and Indian peoples.

3. The *Mongolian* race, third of the great races, is spoken of as the yellow race because of the bronzelike or brown color of the skin. The Chinese, Japanese, Malays, and American Indians are representatives of this race. The race is characterized by yellowish-bronze skin color, short, broad, high fore-

head, and high cheek bones. In general, Mongolians have very little hair on their faces, and they are further characterized by short arms and legs and thin lips. The Chinese and Japanese also have a skin fold at the corner of the eye, which gives the eye a slanted appearance.

TABLE XXIX. POPULATION BY RACE, FOR THE UNITED STATES: 1940 AND 1930[1]

(A minus sign denotes decrease)

Race	1940	1930	Increase, 1930 to 1940	
			Amount	Per Cent
All classes	131,669,275	122,775,046	8,894,229	7.2
White	118,214,870	110,286,740	7,928,130	7.2
Native	106,795,732	96,303,335	10,492,397	10.9
Foreign born	11,419,138	13,983,405	− 2,564,267	− 18.3
Negro	12,865,518	11,891,143	974,375	8.2
Other races	588,887	597,163	− 8,276	− 1.4
Indian	333,969	332,397	1,572	0.5
Chinese	77,504	74,954	2,550	3.4
Japanese	126,947	138,834	− 11,887	− 8.6
Filipino	45,563	45,208	355	0.8
Hindu	2,405	3,130	− 725	− 23.2
Korean	1,711	1,860	− 149	− 8.0
All other	788	780	8	1.0

4. Sometimes a fourth racial classification is made and is given the name *Doubtful.* In this class, the native Australians, and sometimes the Polynesians of the islands of the Pacific, are placed. The native Australians have a skin cast which is Negroid in character, but they also have straight, coarse hair, which is Mongolian in character. For these reasons, these

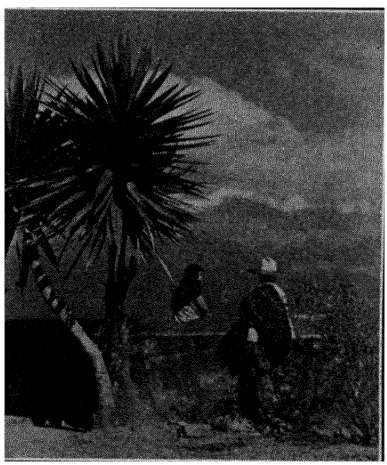
[1] Sixteenth Census of the United States, 1940. Release on "Racial Composition of the Population," February 2, 1942.

people are sometimes designated as belonging to a doubtful or *Australoid* race.

The student must not get into the habit of thinking that the above races are pure races, or that every individual within each race possesses all the characteristics common to his race. Races are no longer pure, although relatively pure racial examples exist within each race.

(Why are tropical people dark-skinned? Does the American Negro population constitute a pure race? Is the Caucasian race a pure race? Is there an Aryan race? A Nordic race?)

The Race Pattern in the United States. — Of the white population in this country, about forty millions are foreign-born persons or the children of foreign-born persons. Of the foreign-born and children of the foreign-born persons, about one sixth are German; one eighth, Italian; and one fifth, of Slavic origin.[1]



H. Armstrong Roberts

A Mexican Scene

Of the 131 million persons in our country, about thirteen million, or 10 per cent, are Negroes. In addition, we have more than 350,000 Indians, about one and a half million Mexicans, around 126,000 Japanese, some 75,000 Chinese, more than 50,000 Filipinos, perhaps 5000 Hindus, and a sprinkling of other minority groups and races.

[1] Wirth, Louis, "Morale and Minority Groups," *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1941, pp. 415–433.

During the decade 1930–40, the nonwhite population of the United States increased 7.7 per cent, as compared with an increase of 7.2 per cent for the white population. The greatest increase in the nonwhite population was in urban areas, where the increase was 19.6 per cent, as compared to 6.9 per cent increase for white persons in urban areas. The nonwhite rural nonfarm population increased 4.8 per cent between 1930 and 1940, as compared with 15.5 per cent increase in the rural nonfarm white population.[1]

The percentage of Negroes in our total population is decreasing, decade after decade, but their number is increasing slowly. In the total population, however, the Negro race in the future will have a less numerical significance than at present. This trend is likely to grow out of the fact that the Negro race in America is not being supplemented by immigration, that the birth rate among Negroes is decreasing very rapidly, and that their death rate is as yet very high. This death rate trend is of grave concern to both white and Negro leaders.

Especially is the infant death rate for Negroes much higher than that for whites. In 1938 the infant death rate (number of deaths under one year of age per 1000 live births) for the United States was 47.1 for whites, 77.9 for Negroes, and 102.4 for other races. In cities of 10,000 or more population, the rate was 44.5 for whites, 84.0 for Negroes, and 54.5 for other races. In rural areas, in 1938, the infant death rate was 49.8 for whites, 74.6 for Negroes, and 120.5 for other races.

Since 1900 the Mexican population has shown a great increase in the United States. This is due to the demand for them as laborers in the South, Southwest, and West, and also to the illegal entry of many of them across the boundary between the United States and Mexico. The eighteen hundred miles of

[1] At the present writing there has not been a breakdown of the 1940 census data by racial groupings other than white and nonwhite.

TABLE XXX. POPULATION OF URBAN, RURAL-NONFARM, AND RURAL-FARM AREAS IN THE UNITED STATES, BY COLOR, 1940 AND 1930 [1]

(1940 data are estimates based on a 5 per cent cross-section of the 1940 census returns. Figures for white population in 1930 have been revised to include Mexicans. Per cent not shown where less than 0.1)

Color and Area	Population		Increase 1930–1940	
	1940	1930	Number	Per Cent
All Classes				
Total	131,669,275	122,775,046	8,894,229	7.2
Urban	74,423,702	68,954,823	5,468,879	7.9
Rural	57,245,573	53,820,223	3,425,350	6.4
Rural-nonfarm	27,094,497	23,662,710	3,431,787	14.5
Rural-farm	30,151,076	30,157,513	-6,437	—
White				
Total	118,213,287	110,286,740	7,926,547	7.2
Urban	67,971,799	63,560,033	4,411,766	6.9
Rural	50,241,488	46,726,707	3,514,781	7.5
Rural-nonfarm	24,827,499	21,500,462	3,327,037	15.5
Rural-farm	25,413,989	25,226,245	187,744	0.7
Nonwhite				
Total	13,455,988	12,488,306	967,682	7.7
Urban	6,451,903	5,394,790	1,057,113	19.6
Rural	7,004,085	7,093,516	-89,431	-1.3
Rural-nonfarm	2,266,998	2,162,248	104,750	4.8
Rural-farm	4,737,087	4,931,268	-194,181	-3.9

boundary line between these two countries, with a normal force of only six or seven hundred patrol inspectors, makes it nearly impossible to prevent illegal entrance of Mexicans.

The numerical importance of Mexicans in some of the states is considerable. In 1940, Texas had a Mexican population of nearly 750,000; California the second largest Mexican population, with nearly 400,000, and Arizona ranked third, with about

[1] Bureau of the Census, Preliminary Release, February 20, 1941.

125,000. New Mexico, Colorado, Illinois, and Michigan also have large Mexican populations. There is also a large amount of Mexican emigration from the United States each year.

Owing to rather strict exclusion laws against them, the Japanese and Chinese populations in the United States remain very stable, with a small increase in each decade. On the other hand, Filipino immigration is rapidly increasing, as is indicated by the fact that the Filipino population in the United States in 1910 was 160, whereas today it perhaps exceeds 50,000. One may say that the Filipinos, who are usually classed as southern Mongolians, form the only nonwhite immigrant group coming into the United States at the present time in any considerable numbers. Under existing laws, the Filipinos do not have the legal status of aliens; neither, according to a Supreme Court decision of 1925, do they have the status of citizens. They desire to come to America because of educational and economic opportunities.

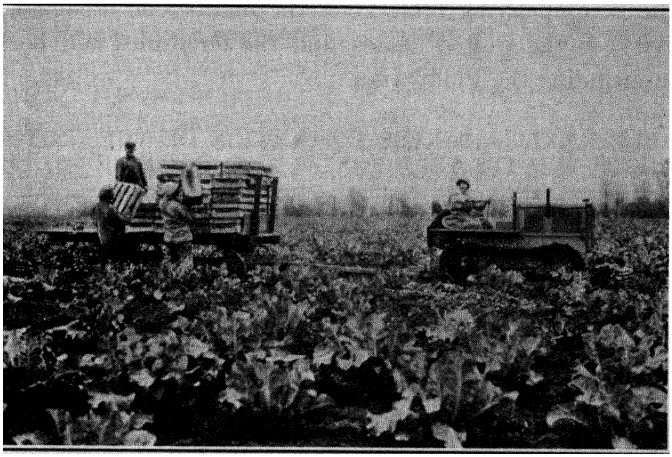
According to the Bureau of the Census,[1] there were 126,947 Japanese in the continental United States on April 1, 1940, of whom 47,305 were foreign-born, and therefore alien and ineligible for citizenship.

In the territories and possessions of the United States, excluding the Philippine Islands, there were an additional 158,501 Japanese, of whom 37,512 were alien foreign-born. The Philippine Islands contained 29,057 citizens of Japan according to the Census of the Philippines taken as of January 1, 1939.

The Pacific Coast States of Washington, Oregon, and California had 112,353 Japanese, or 88.5 per cent of the total in the country. Furthermore, these states contained 40,869 alien Japanese, or 86.4 per cent of the total. California alone had 93,717, or 73.8 per cent of the total Japanese in the United States

[1] Adapted from a release on *Japanese Population of the United States and Its Territories and Possessions*, issued as a press release on Dec. 9, 1941.

and 33,569 alien Japanese, or 71.0 per cent of the total. The Mountain States contained an additional 8574 Japanese, of whom 3937 were alien foreign-born, and the Middle Atlantic States had 3060, of whom 2017 were alien foreign-born.



Courtesy Caterpillar Tractor Company

JAPANESE GARDENERS AT WORK, NEAR TROUTDALE, OREGON
The Japanese wife of one of the gardeners is driving the tractor.

In the territories and possessions Japanese were most numerous in Hawaii, where they numbered 157,905, or 37.3 per cent of the total population. Of the total number of Japanese in Hawaii 37,353 were foreign-born. The remaining territories and possessions, excluding the Philippines, had 596 Japanese, of whom 159 were alien foreign-born. The total number of persons of the Japanese race in the Philippines is not known, but all persons of the "yellow race," of whom the majority were Chinese, numbered 141,811.

In 1930 the total number of Japanese in the continental United States was 138,834, of whom 70,477 were alien foreign-born. During the decade 1930 to 1940, the total number of Japanese decreased 11,887, or by 8.6 per cent, while the number

of alien Japanese decreased 23,172, or by 32.9 per cent. The number of Japanese born in the United States, who are therefore citizens of the United States, increased from 68,357 in 1930 to 79,642 in 1940, or by 16.5 per cent.

The accompanying table gives the number of Japanese, by nativity, in the United States, and the territories and possessions including the Philippines.

TABLE XXXI. JAPANESE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND ITS TERRITORIES AND POSSESSIONS, 1940

Area	Total Population	Japanese		Aliens
		Total	Born in U. S. or Its Territories and Possessions	Foreign-born
United States and All Territories and Possessions	150,621,231	*	*	113,874
United States and Territories and Possessions, exclusive of Philippines and Military and Naval Services	134,146,298	285,448	200,631	84,817
Continental United States	131,669,275	126,947	79,642	47,305
Territories and Possessions, exclusive of Philippines	2,447,023	158,501	120,989	37,512
Alaska	** 72,524	263	149	114
American Samoa	12,908	4	—	4
Guam	22,290	326	288	38
Hawaii	423,330	157,905	120,552	37,353
Panama Canal Zone	51,827	1	—	1
Puerto Rico	1,869,255	2	—	2
Virgin Islands of the United States	24,889	—	—	—
The Philippines	† 16,356,000	*	*	‡ 29,057
Military and Naval Services, etc., abroad	118,933	—	—	—

* Not available.

** Census taken as of October 1, 1939.

† Estimate derived by extrapolation from censuses of 1918 and 1939.

‡ From census taken as of January 1, 1939.

(Study the racial composition of your state. Make a series of charts showing the nativity status of the population of the United States with various census periods. Make a series of pie charts showing the racial composition of the population of the United States at various periods. Construct a line graph showing the amount of immigration to the United States during the last fifty years. Why is the percentage of Negroes in the total population decreasing? List chronologically the important immigration laws and give, briefly, the substance of each. This may be prepared by the class in chart form and hung on the wall of the social science classroom.)

The American Indian. — In 1940 there were 394,280 Indians in continental United States and Alaska. Of this number, 361,816 were in continental United States, and 32,464 in Alaska.[1] Three states, Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico, with Indian populations of 103,200, 50,539, and 31,547, respectively, contain half the Indian population of the United States.

One reliable source comments to the effect that

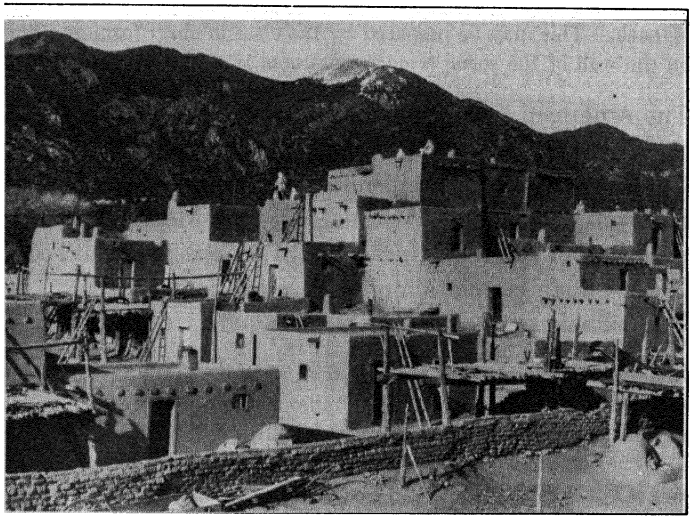
> Indians are increasing today faster than whites. While the Indian death rate, in spite of improvements in the Indian health service, continues higher than that of nonIndians, it is more than offset by the high Indian birth rate. The Indian excess of births over deaths is 8.5 per 1000; that of the whites is 6.2.
>
> Of the total third of a million Indians, about half are considered to be of pure stock. The other half are more or less mixed with white blood and, in two or three tribes, with some Negro blood.
>
> The figure of a third of a million Indians surviving today contrasts with a population in continental United States, at the time of discovery, estimated at between three quarters of a million and one million.[2]

The Indians of continental United States and Alaska represent some 200 different tribes and speak some fifty-five distinct languages. The common language used in communication is

[1] Bureau of Indian Affairs, *Statistical Supplement to the Annual Report* of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, 1940, Washington, D. C., 1940.

[2] American Association on Indian Affairs, *The New Day for the Indians*, Academy Press, New York, 1938, p. 9.

English, with the exception of Spanish, which is used in some areas of the Southwest. It is estimated, however, that around 50,000 Indians do not speak either English or Spanish. Illiteracy is high, estimated at from 20 to 25 per cent, as compared to around 3 per cent for whites and less than 15 per cent for Negroes.



H. Armstrong Roberts

VILLAGE OF THE TAOS PUEBLO INDIANS IN NEW MEXICO

Pueblo villages were built in the form of communal houses.

Relative to citizenship,

Most Indians are "ward citizens." That is to say, insofar as their restricted or trust property is concerned, they cannot deal with it, except with governmental approval. At certain times in the past, large groups of Indians were urged to have the restrictions removed from their trust property, frequently over their own protests, and the result has always been the immediate plundering of all this former trust property.[1]

[1] American Association on Indian Affairs, *The New Day for the Indians*, Academy Press, New York, 1938, p. 9.

TABLE XXXII. SOME FACTS ABOUT AMERICAN INDIANS, 1940

Total Indian population, United States and Alaska	394,280
Total Indian population, United States	361,816
Lands under jurisdiction of Office of Indian Affairs (acres)	55,406,412
Acres of land which are idle	6,464,592
Barren and waste lands	3,047,611
Bed capacity of Indian hospitals	4,755
Total patients in hospitals during the year	65,042
Indians receiving old-age assistance (Oct., 1939)	7,063
Average monthly old-age assistance grant (Indian)	$18.34
Average monthly old-age assistance grant (nonIndian)	$21.56
Families receiving aid to dependent children (Oct., 1939)	1,817
Average family aid to dependent children grant	$17.46
Average family aid to dependent children grant (nonIndian)	$34.12
Indian children, 6–18	88,230
Indian children, 6–18, enrolled in school	74,531

* Averages for states in which the Indians resided.

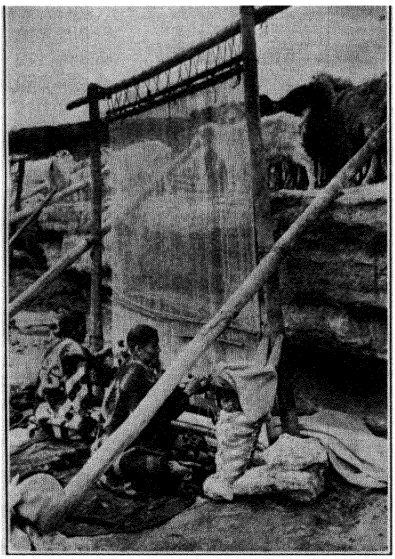
The task of rehabilitating the administration of Indian affairs in this country was greatly pushed forward by the passage of the Indian Reorganization Act, sometimes called the Wheeler-Howard Act, in 1934. Up to that time, the major policy had been to "Americanize" the Indians, that is, change their culture to the characteristics and standards of the white culture. The act of 1934 contemplated a lessening of Federal control and restriction, and new emphasis upon self-government, a greater protection of tribal life, and the development of the Indian cultures.

More definitely, the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 provides:

1. The allotment system is ended, and remaining Indian lands are protected from further loss.

2. Surplus lands, heretofore thrown open to entry by white homesteaders, which have not been entered may be restored, and further land may be bought for Indians.

3. Tribes may organize themselves for mutual benefit and when so organized may enjoy self-government under Federal guardianship.



Courtesy Durango Chamber of Commerce

NAVAJO WEAVERS

Their blankets are famous. Note the papoose.

4. Tribes may incorporate for business purposes.

5. A fund is established for scholarship loans to enable gifted Indians to receive advanced education.

6. The Secretary of the Interior may establish special civil service rules to make it easier for Indians to enter the Indian Service.

7. A revolving loan fund is made available for incorporated communities to enable them to get started supporting themselves.[1]

While there has been some opposition to the Act of 1934, even among the Indians,[2] many noticeable changes for the better have developed. Among these have been the repeal of state statutes affecting the civil liberties of Indians, progress in the direction of self-government, the purchase of additional lands for the Indians, the increased use of Indians in the administration of Indian affairs, and marked improvements in health and education.

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[1] American Association on Indian Affairs, *The New Day for the Indians*, Academy Press, New York, 1940, p. 13.

[2] *Ibid.*, 1940, pp. 32–47.

(Why should the people of the United States seek to develop an interest in Indian cultures? Evaluate the type of education which Indians have received in the past. Make a careful study of Longfellow's "Hiawatha." What are some of the more common words in our language which have come from the Indians? What contributions have the Indians made to the nation? Why not have an Indian social event during which you sing Indian songs, participate in Indian dances, and serve food prepared according to Indian recipes?)

Some Bases of Race Problems. — Why do race problems arise? This is a question which we may well consider.

Race prejudices appear to be more or less universal. Prejudice is not confined to different races only, but may be found between different nationalities within the same race. The Hindus, Jews, Germans, English, and French belong to the same race, but at times prejudice has been very strong between two or more of these peoples. The degree of race prejudice varies greatly with different nationalities.

Race prejudice is not unnatural. The mere fact that two races may differ greatly in characteristics may mark one or both as strange. If one race is established in a land, or has advanced in culture further than the other, it is natural that the former will look upon the latter as being subordinate.

Another basis for race prejudice or prejudice toward a nationality is that we are likely to view the race as a whole and rank its superiority or inferiority on the basis of a few experiences or observations. We may know only three members of a race who appear to be inferior to us, and on the basis of our knowledge of the three, or on the basis of what we read or hear, we form an attitude toward an entire race.

Early home training is responsible for the race prejudice of many people. By the time we are twenty years old, our likes and dislikes are pretty well established. In view of this fact, the home, by exhibiting and instilling race prejudice in

children which they in turn pass on to another generation, tends to perpetuate such prejudice.

Incidents also cause race prejudice to spring up. For instance, as long as there was a great demand for laborers in the Pacific Coast states, there was little antagonism toward the Chinese and Japanese, but, upon the completion of the transcontinental railways between 1869 and 1885, thousands of laborers poured into the West from the East. There were more men than jobs, the Chinese and Japanese competed with the whites for these jobs, and out of this competition grew rioting, prejudice, and legislation against the Chinese and Japanese.

To cite another illustration: under slavery, the social, legal, and political status of the Negro in the southern states was one of inferiority. Almost overnight, the Emancipation Proclamation raised his legal status to that of the white race. In the minds of many southerners, however, the social status of the Negro had not changed. Wherever, then, the Negroes tried to claim their legal status, trouble arose. A law may be quickly enacted, but the public mind usually changes slowly.

The mere presence of a racial group or nationality group in large numbers may also cause race problems to arise. For instance, it is natural that the problems of white and Negro relations would exist in larger numbers and be more serious in the South than in other sections of the country.

There has arisen a growing consciousness of the power of centralized racial and nationality groups, as, for example, the political strength of the Negroes in Chicago or New York.

The problem of housing has become a major one in many foreign areas and in many Negro centers. The low economic status of many of these peoples forces them to seek cheap housing facilities, which are often very inadequate.

With the concentration of races and nationalities into "Chinatowns," "Little Sicilys," "Black Belts," "Harlems," "Little

Bohemias," "Ghettos," and the like, many municipalities have been made keenly aware of the existence of a problem of race or nationality relations. Particularly when the power and expansion of these elements begin to compete with those of other nationalities or groups the problem of race prejudice is aggravated. There is, therefore, a tendency for some of our race problems to shift from country to city as the Negro popu-

INADEQUATE NEGRO HOUSING IN A SOUTHERN CITY

lation, the Orientals, and other foreign groups move cityward. It must be remembered that this is part of a general urbanward movement.

The problem of providing adequate labor and educational facilities for many nationality and racial groups is a major problem, as well as is the problem of preventing open racial conflict. The South in its social planning movements faces the problem of having to provide for two major races.

(If there are nationality or race problems in your state, county, city, or community, try to find adequate reasons why the problems arose. What possible advantages to the Negro race can you see arising out of its tendency to move to the city? What possible problems may arise out of this movement?

Some Proposed Solutions of Race Problems. — For convenience, we may divide our discussion of the proposed solution of race problems into two large divisions, namely, the problem of the Negro and the problem of other races and nationalities.

We shall consider first the problems of the Mongolian and the Caucasian races.

Race problems involving the Mongolians, particularly the Chinese and Japanese, are very largely localized problems belonging specifically to the Pacific Coast region. To those who are opposed to the Chinese and Japanese and to other nationalities, as the Hungarians, Italians, and the like, the only apparent solution to race problems arising because of the presence of these peoples is rigid restriction, if not complete prohibition, of immigration. Toward the Orientals this has been largely the policy of the federal government. Also, those who have opposed the United States having somewhat of an open-door policy of immigration have urged the passage of immigrant restriction laws which would limit immigration largely to peoples from the northern European countries, whence came the original colonists of the United States.

Proposals for the solution of the problems arising from the presence of the Negro in America have been numerous. One of the earliest proposals was colonization in America or the transportation of American Negroes back to Africa. This proposed solution was endorsed by many early American statesmen, including Jefferson, Webster, and Clay. Actually, in 1816, the American Colonization Society was formed, and between 1816 and 1875 it expended nearly three million dollars and sent back to Africa 15,000 Negroes, some 6000 of which were captured in the attempt to smuggle slaves into slave-free states.

Not so long ago Marcus Garvey, a Jamaican tea dealer and a man of wealth, tried to incite a back-to-Africa movement among the Negro people. At that time Garvey employed a

large corps of orators to comb the earth making speeches in an attempt to arouse the Negroes to return to Africa. His arguments were strong. He pointed out how the white race is split by nationalities, creeds, and differences until it has little unity. On the other hand, the Negro race is not so divided. There is unity in the race. Consequently, to get them back into Africa would mean the establishment of an African Empire, such as the white race has never known. Such were his arguments.

Other persons have argued that the Negro should be colonized in America in a certain region, which might be set aside in the form of a reservation. Obviously, there would be many objections to this form of segregation by both whites and Negroes.

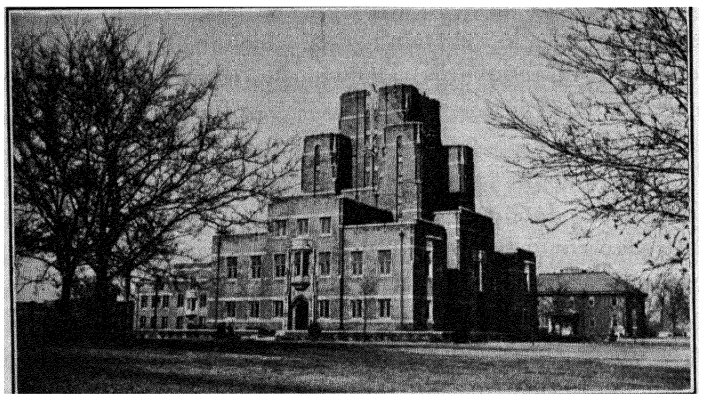
The arguments for colonization are of doubtful validity. From the standpoint of international relations it is very doubtful if the plan could be worked out. What would happen to the Negroes were they returned to Africa is a question which has never been successfully answered. Another question is, could the southern states get along very well without the Negroes? The answer to this question cannot be more than a mere opinion. Negroes are American citizens and will, without a doubt, remain within our country for the years to come.

Some writers have advocated complete social equality for the Negro race with that of the white. Nationally, the Negro has the same legal rights as the whites, but there is not likely to be complete social equality for years to come. Complete social equality would entail intermarriage, a custom which both whites and Negroes would strongly resist.

Education has been pointed out as one of the solutions to many of the problems of the American Negroes. To this end, very effective work has been done under the leadership of some of the foundations, such as the General Education Board and the Rosenwald Foundation. To educate the Negro is to place

within his grasp an effective tool by which he can improve his status through his own efforts.

To break down the Negro tenant system in the South, which was discussed in the chapter on rural problems, will require increased federal aid, whereby homes may be bought by Negroes at low interest rates and small monthly payments over several years. To bring about home ownership among the Negroes would greatly improve their economic and social conditions.



THE LIBRARY AT FISK UNIVERSITY, NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE
Fisk University provides college training for Negroes.

Without a doubt, the final outcome of the problem of white and Negro relations in the United States will be along the lines of biracial development, with both whites and Negroes building side by side their own distinct cultures with much overlapping between them. The relations between whites and Negroes will, in large measure, become more favorable with the years. The two races are rapidly learning how they can live within the same geographical units in peace and harmony. Along these lines will eventually develop the solution of the Negro problem.

(Collect as many proposed solutions of the Negro problem as you can find and critically combine them into a report.)

Some Contributions and Achievements of the American Negro. — From the many contributions made to American culture by the American Negro we shall list a few of the more important:

1. The labor contributions of the Negro slaves, numbering about 548,907 in 1860, to the South and to the nation.

2. Contributions to national defense during periods of national emergency. Some 220,000 Negroes served in the Union army during the War Between the States. During the first World War some 400,000 Negroes served in the army of the United States, and some 200,000 of these reached France. More important roles were played in the second World War.

3. American Negroes have contributed a large number of outstanding educators and scientists, such as Booker T. Washington (educator), James Weldon Johnson (poet), George Washington Carver (chemist), and Charles S. Johnson (sociologist).

4. The Negro has contributed much which is distinctive in American art. Negro spirituals are probably the most distinctive contribution to American folk culture. Folk art and drama, while perhaps less in volume, are no less significant.

Such Negro artists as Samuel Coleridge Taylor, Harry T. Burleigh, the Fisk Jubilee Singers, William C. Handy, Richard B. Harrison, Bill Robinson, Roland Hayes, and Marian Anderson are among the great names of their time.

In speaking of the contribution of the Negro to the Arts, Edwin R. Embree, President of the Rosenwald Fund, says:

> The negro has made unique contributions to the arts. He has furnished America's distinctive folk music and folk art: the spirituals, jazz and swing, the dance, and folklore. This creativeness, swelling up in an ebullient race, is now finding increasing expression in the more sophisticated forms of the fine arts: literature, drama, musical composition, painting, and sculpture. Both in the art of infusing the humblest living with zest and rhythm and in

all forms of folk and fine arts, this race is a lively leaven in American life.[1]

5. In the field of sports, the Negro has been very prominent. Those who have held championships in prize-fighting are Tom Molineaux, world champion in 1810; Jack Johnson and Joe Louis have been title holders over long periods. Jesse Owens won Olympic races in Germany in 1936 and Sol Butler of Drake was the winner of the Inter-Allied Games in Pershing Stadium in Paris. There have been many other distinguished athletes in the brief time that they have been competing in national and international contests.

6. In order to furnish the Negroes' viewpoints of the leadership of their own race and to assume the role of a people entitled to free speech in a democracy, the Negroes have many publications. Those which are outstanding include the *Chicago Defender,* which has been issued for more than twenty-five years under the leadership of Robert S. Abbott, formerly of Georgia. This paper has an international circulation and has always championed the cause of the race. Robert S. Vann is editor of the *Pittsburgh Courier,* a paper which has one of the largest circulations of any Negro paper in America. Among the magazines of note are the *Crisis* and *Opportunity.* During the last few years many Negro colleges and universities are publishing a large number of magazines and periodicals which enjoy wide circulation.

(Get the opinions of five white persons and, if possible, five Negro persons on the contributions of the Negro race to American culture.)

Economic Gains of the Negro. — While it is extremely difficult to assemble adequate material on the economic status of the Negro and the economic gains he has made since emancipation, the 1938–1940 *Report of the Rosenwald Foundation* nevertheless

[1] Embree, Edwin R., *Julius Rosenwald Fund: Review for the Two Year Period, 1938–1940,* Chicago, 1940, p. 6.

TABLE XXXIII. NEGRO PROGRESS IN SEVENTY YEARS[1]

Items	1866	1936	Gain in 70 Years
Economic Progress:			
Homes owned	12,000	750,000	738,000
Farms operated	20,000	880,000	860,000
Businesses conducted	2,100	70,000	67,900
Wealth accumulated	$20,000,000	2,500,000,000	2,480,000,000
Educational Progress:			
Per cent literate	10	90	80
Schools for higher training *	15	800	785
Students in public schools	100,000	2,500,000	2,400,000
Teachers in all schools	600	55,000	54,400
Property for higher education	$60,000	$65,000,000	$64,940,000
Annual expenditure for all education	$700,000	$61,700,000	$61,000,000
Raised by Negroes	$80,000	$3,500,000	$3,420,000
Religious Progress:			
Number of churches	700	45,000	44,300
Communicants	600,000	5,300,000	4,700,000
Sunday Schools	1,000	36,000	35,000
Sunday School pupils	50,000	2,200,000	2,150,000
Value of church property	$1,500,000	$210,000,000	$208,500,000

* Includes public high schools.

gives us an excellent summary of economic gains. To quote from the report:

In economic status it is hard to get accurate figures. Certainly Negroes are below other large groups of the population in income and property ownership. They currently furnish more than twice their quota of relief cases. On the other hand, there is some evidence of progress. Nearly 700,000 Negroes own their own homes, almost double the number of home owners of 1900. In spite of recent tribulations of the farmers, over 150,000 Negroes own their own farms, a total of eleven and a half million acres, more than the acreage of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island taken together or about one-third of the State of Alabama. The value of these farms and homes comes to the impressive figure of two billion dollars.

[1] Work, Monroe N., Ed., *Negro Yearbook*, Negro Yearbook Publishing Company, Tuskegee Institute, Alabama, 1937–38, p. 1.

While the depression has cut the income of Negro workers, as of all workers, the Negro has been steadily advancing in the range of his occupations. During recent decades, teaching and the professions and government service have steadily expanded and now give careers of some distinction to 160,000 of this race.

(Make a study of the economic conditions of the Negroes in your community, state or county by going into a Negro area if possible. Work out a program for improving economic conditions among them.)

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. The problem of Negro truancy.
2. A revival of the ancient subject of restriction of immigration as a debate subject may also revive interest in race problems.
3. Assemble the available data on the subject of white and Negro racial superiority.
4. Prepare a report on how race problems arise.
5. Study past and present immigration laws.
6. For the walls of the social science classroom, prepare maps showing the distribution of Negroes, Mexicans, Chinese, Japanese, and foreign-born groups, by states.
7. Break down the major races and nationality groups in the United States and indicate the gains which they have made historically and otherwise.
8. Effects of heavy migration of Negroes to other sections, economic and political, on the South and the nation.
9. Discuss the role of minority peoples in a democracy.
10. What provisions are made by the charter of the United Nations for the protection of minorities?

VOCABULARY STUDY

race	minority	slavery
nationality	pattern	effected
nordic	oriental	prejudice

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CHAPTER XIV

IMMIGRATION AND NATURALIZATION

Twin Processes. — Immigration and naturalization are twin processes which have taken place in the development of our nation. From a numerical standpoint, immigration has been an important source of population growth in the United States. Over the period 1820 to 1940, 38,290,000 aliens landed on the shores of the United States and most of these have become citizens of the United States.

The contributions of the immigrant to the culture of the United States have been so numerous that it is not possible within the space of this chapter to give any adequate account of them. Many of the fine traits which we now admire, extol and hold dear in the American population could, without a doubt, be traced to the diffusion of these traits from foreign shores through the American immigrant.

The "alien in our midst" is a matter of deep concern during periods of national emergency, especially war-time periods. It is true that some un-American and subversive activities may be traced to alien representatives of unfriendly governments, although, without a doubt, the majority of alien and foreign-born American citizens are loyal to the American flag and are attuned to the American way of life. The Alien Registration Act of 1940 indicates that on July 15, 1941 there were 4,765,654 registered noncitizens in the United States. Among the non-English newspapers published in this country in 1941, 334 were

Slavic, 249 German, 178 Italian, 147 Spanish, and 110 Scandinavian.[1]

In those areas where a considerable portion of the population is foreign-born, it is not unusual to find problems of racial differences and problems of cultural adjustments arising. While

Paul's Photos

A Dutch Scene

This might be in the Netherlands, but it is in Holland, Michigan.

these problems are usually of temporary moment, in some regions they have been rather persistent. Where such problems exist, they may be made the object of intensive study by the students of sociology.

Except during periods of international conflict, as communication and transportation between nations improve, the migration and exchange of people between countries is likely to increase,

[1] See Harrison, Earl G., "Axis Aliens in an Emergency," *Survey Graphic*, Vol. 30, No. 9, pp. 465–468, September, 1941.

TABLE XXXIV. PER CENT OF FOREIGN-BORN IN THE POPULATION BY GEOGRAPHIC DIVISIONS, 1890, 1940 [1]

Divisions	1890	1930	1940 *
Middle Atlantic	21.6	20.4	39.6
East North Central	18.6	12.9	22.2
New England	24.3	22.6	13.0
Pacific	27.2	17.6	10.6
West North Central	17.3	8.2	6.7
South Atlantic	2.4	2.0	2.6
West South Central	4.6	3.6	2.5
Mountain	21.2	10.4	2.3
East South Central	1.6	0.6	0.4

* 1940 column arranged in order of decreasing percentage.

thus bringing to the front the problem of policy with respect to these exchanges.

As some nations become crowded and overpopulated, in the future, without a doubt, some form of international arrangement will be made to adjust the movements of people from one country to another. Such policies call for intelligent knowledge if the solutions of these problems are to be successful.

(Is immigration an important problem for your section of the United States? For other sections? What problems of immigration do you foresee within the next ten years? Has immigration created problems in your community? What are they?)

Volume of Immigration. — The word *immigrant*, according to Professor Willcox, signifies two things — a change of location or place and an intention to change residence.[2] This is in contrast to the much broader term *migration*, which simply indicates a change of abode.

[1] *Sixteenth Census of the United States*, "Population," Second Series, p. 73.

[2] Willcox, Walter F., *Studies in American Demography*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, N. Y., 1940, p. 386.

The flow of immigration into the United States over the period of 1820 to 1944 is indicated in the following table:

TABLE XXXV. IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES, BY DECADES, 1820–1944 [1]

Period	Arrivals
1820–30	152,000
1831–40	599,000
1841–50	1,713,000
1851–60	2,598,000
1861–70	2,315,000
1871–80	2,812,000
1881–90	5,247,000
1890–1900	3,688,000
1901–10	8,795,000
1911–20	5,736,000
1921–30	4,107,000
1931–40	528,000
1940–44	203,589
Total	38,493,589

Table XXXVI indicates an excess of immigrants over emigrants of 8,472,558 between 1908 and 1940. This table also gives the inflow of immigrants and the outflow of emigrants by years from 1908 to 1940.

Table XXXVII indicates the annual quota of immigrants allotted to the various countries under existing immigration laws. Likewise, the number of immigrants admitted from these countries in 1934, 1937, and 1940 are given, together with the total number of immigrants admitted from each country over the period 1934–1940.

It is seen from Table XXXVII that the North European countries are favored under the quota laws. The Northern European stocks made up the bulk of early immigration to

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 388. In this tab e, numbers less than thousands are omitted.

TABLE XXXVI. IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, 1908–1940[1]

Period	Immigrants Admitted	Emigrants Departed *	Excess **
Total, 1908–1940	12,947,677	4,475,119	8,472,558
3 years, 1908–1910	2,576,226	823,311	1,752,915
1908	782,870	395,073	387,797
1909	751,786	225,802	525,984
1910	1,041,570	202,436	839,134
10 years, 1911–1920	5,735,811	2,146,994	3,588,817
1911	878,587	295,666	582,921
1912	838,172	333,262	504,910
1913	1,197,892	308,190	889,702
1914	1,218,480	303,338	915,142
1915	326,700	204,074	122,626
1916	298,826	129,765	169,061
1917	295,403	66,277	229,126
1918	110,618	94,585	16,033
1919	141,132	123,522	17,610
1920	430,001	288,315	141,686
10 years, 1921–1930	4,107,209	1,045,076	3,062,133
1921	805,228	247,718	557,510
1922	309,556	198,712	110,844
1923	522,919	81,450	441,469
1924	706,896	76,789	630,107
1925	294,314	92,728	201,586
1926	304,488	76,992	227,496
1927	335,175	73,366	261,809
1928	307,255	77,457	229,798
1929	279,678	69,203	210,475
1930	241,700	50,661	191,039
10 years, 1931–1940	528,431	459,738	68,693
1931	97,139	61,882	35,257
1932	35,576	103,295	–67,719
1933	23,068	80,081	–57,013
1934	29,470	39,771	–10,301
1935	34,956	38,834	–3,878
1936	36,329	35,817	512
1937	50,244	26,736	23,508
1938	67,895	25,210	42,685
1939	82,998	26,651	56,347
1940	70,756	1,462	49,295

* Aliens departed first recorded in 1908.

** Except for 4 years, 1932–1935, immigration exceeded emigration.

[1] These data were supplied by the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the U. S. Dept. of Justice. June 1, 1941.

TABLE XXXVII. ANNUAL QUOTAS ALLOTTED UNDER IMMIGRATION ACT OF 1924 AND IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED, 1934, 1937, 1940, BY COUNTRIES OR REGION OF BIRTH AND SEX [1]

Nationality or Country of Birth	Annual Quota	Immigrants Admitted,* 1934–40			
		1934	1937	1940	Total
All countries	153,774	12,483	27,762	51,997	233,020
Albania	100	57	98	88	627
Belgium	1,304	104	211	441	1,699
Bulgaria	100	17	57	92	492
Czechoslovakia	2,874	389	1,519	1,979	10,832
Danzig, Free City of	100	8	41	100	444
Denmark	1,181	101	192	255	1,434
Estonia	116	36	30	98	373
Finland	569	114	215	282	1,745
France	3,086	308	566	741	4,029
Germany / Austria	27,370	3,515 / 229	11,127 / 409	26,083	104,164
Gr. Britain					
England	65,721	933	1,418	1,974	10,284
North Ireland		137	133	134	1,074
Scotland		443	483	488	3,328
Wales		53	73	42	406
Greece	307	200	370	346	2,319
Hungary	869	209	739	1,432	5,343
Ireland (Eire)	17,853	322	447	966	4,921
Italy	5,802	1,362	2,905	3,905	20,349
Latvia	236	48	114	184	832
Lithuania	386	124	221	294	1,742
Luxemburg	100	2	10	24	95
Netherlands	3,153	136	347	1,093	3,033
Norway	2,377	155	330	456	2,329
Poland	6,524	1,138	1,855	4,354	21,009
Portugal	440	166	236	417	2,124
Rumania	377	199	371	469	2,522
Soviet Russia	2,712	407	578	1,614	5,991
Spain	252	228	244	225	1,716
Sweden	3,314	153	303	411	1,869
Switzerland	1,707	133	312	617	2,475
Yugoslavia	845	110	527	651	3,496
Other Europe	500 **	183	173	175	1,359
Asia	1,649 **	433	467	797	4,147
American colonies	**	159	339	374	2,352
Other quota regions	1,850 **	172	302	396	2,066
Sex { Male	—	5,920	13,673	26,463	115,330
Sex { Female	—	6,563	14,089	25,534	117,690

* Includes aliens to whom visas were issued during the latter part of the preceding year which were charged to the quota for that year. Nationality for quota purposes does not always coincide with actual nationality. See Section 12 of the Act.

** Quota for colonies, dependencies, or protectorates included with allotment for the European country to which they belong.

[1] Data from Immigration and Naturalization Service of the U. S. Dept. of Justice, June 1, 1941.

America, hence, under present laws, Great Britain, Germany, and Ireland would be favored in their immigrant quotas.

(To what extent has there been immigration into your state and into your county? To your knowledge, has the existence of immigrant classes within your state or county ever created a problem of adjustment?)

Acme

POLISH IMMIGRANTS WATCHING THE WONDERS OF NEW YORK CITY

Immigration Restrictions. — For convenience, we may treat the attempts to restrict foreign immigration to the United States in somewhat chronological fashion. We shall not attempt to brief all of our immigration restrictions, but rather merely to state some of the more important restrictive measures.

Colonial Immigration. — Prior to the time the thirteen colonies became a nation, immigration was a colonial matter over which there was little control. Some of this ineffectiveness was due to the difficulties the colonies had operating as a single unit.

On the whole, the immigrants during the colonial period came largely from England. However, French Huguenots came in considerable numbers, as also did the Scotch-Irish and the Swedes. Some criminals were sent in during the period, as well as a goodly number of indentured servants. For the most part, the colonial period was a period of unrestricted immigration. A new continent was in the process of being conquered and as a rule immigrants were welcomed to the shores of the new country.

Period of State Regulation. — After the thirteen colonies became a nation, immigration became a national problem, but prior to 1875 little was done to develop either national immigration restrictions or to develop a national immigration policy. State immigration restrictions and laws were passed, but these were relatively ineffective because of the fact that there were no uniform policies or laws regulating immigration into the states.

Period of Federal Restriction. — The period of Federal restriction of immigration may be said to date from around 1875. During this period of Federal control the following significant pieces of legislation affecting immigration have been passed by the Congress, along with, of course, other acts.

1. 1875: a law excluding criminals and immoral women from immigration.
2. 1882: a head tax of fifty cents placed upon immigrants. This has been increased over the years until it is now $8.00.
3. 1882: exclusion of defectives, idiots, lunatics, and persons likely to become public charges.
4. 1888: the President was granted power to deport undesirable aliens.
5. 1891: paupers, persons suffering from loathsome diseases, polygamists, and assisted-immigrants excluded.
6. 1903: the insanity clause strengthened to include epileptics, professional beggars, and anarchists.

7. 1907: strengthening of polygamy and prostitution provisions and the addition of victims of tuberculosis and feeble-minded persons to excluded classes.

8. 1917: literacy test provided by a law passed by Congress. This act excluded all aliens over sixteen years of age who were physically capable of reading but who could not read either the English language or some other language or dialect. Exceptions to this requirement were made in the instance of certain relatives of persons residing in the United States and in the instance of immigrants who were escaping either political or religious persecution.

9. 1917: psychopathic personalities, chronic alcoholics, vagrants, and stowaways added to the excluded classes.

10. 1917: The Asiatic Barred Zone which prohibited most Asiatics established.

11. 1921: a quota law, sometimes called the Dillingham law, passed by Congress limiting immigration from any country to three per cent of the number of that nationality present in the United States in 1910, as determined by the Federal Census.

12. 1924: the quota law of 1924 restricted the annual immigration from any country to two per cent of the number of that nationality resident in the United States in 1890.

It should be said in passing that the 1921 law was favorable to the southern European nations, because their peoples came to the United States in large numbers between 1890 and 1910. On the other hand, changing the quota basis back to the 1890 Census discriminated in favor of northern European stocks.

13. 1929: The National Origins Quota law was passed. This law fixed the total number of quota immigrants at 153,774 (see Table XXXVII). The quotas are set up for each country on the basis of the number of people of that nationality or descent living in the United States in 1920. Except for countries from which all immigration is barred, every country is

permitted a minimum immigration quota of at least 100. Canadians or Latin-Americans may enter our country as non-quota immigrants.

(Set up what you would consider to be a desirable set of immigration restrictions on immigration to the United States.)

Nonimmigrants. — Under our immigration laws, certain classes of individuals are regarded as nonimmigrants: The most important of these are:

1. Accredited officials of foreign governments recognized by the Government of the United States, their families, attendants, servants, and employees.
2. Visitors for business or pleasure.
3. Transients (persons traveling from one foreign country to another through the United States).
4. Seamen.
5. Aliens entitled to enter the United States solely to carry on trade between the United States and the foreign state of which they are nationals under a treaty of commerce and navigation, and their wives and unmarried children under 21 years of age if accompanying or following to join them.

Ports of Entry. — Of 70,756 immigrant aliens and 138,032 nonimmigrants arriving in this country during the year ending June 30, 1940, 48,808 immigrant aliens and 79,403 nonimmigrants entered via New York. The Canadian land border is also an important port of entry. Miami, Florida, is also an important port of entry, especially for nonimmigrants.

Ellis Island is so closely associated with immigration that we feel some space should be allotted to it:

Ellis Island is located in Upper New York Bay, about $1\frac{3}{4}$ miles from the mainland. It has been known as "Kioshk" or "Gull Island," as "Oyster Island," "Bucking Island," and "Gibbet Island." It received the name of "Ellis Island" from a Mr. Samuel Ellis, who once owned it. Originally, its area was between 3 and 4 acres, but it is now $27\frac{1}{2}$ acres in extent.

Prior to April 20, 1890, immigration arriving at the Port of New York was under the control of the State, and immigrants were received at Castle Garden, later used as an Aquarium by the City of New York. When the Federal Government assumed charge, immigrants were delivered to the Barge Office, at the Battery, where inspection occurred and detained aliens were accommodated.

About January 1, 1892, Ellis Island was first used for immigration purposes. The main buildings, of frame construction, were destroyed by fire on June 15, 1897, after which work was resumed at the Barge Office and continued there until the new semifireproof buildings were ready for occupancy in December 1900. Thereafter, all immigrants traveling in the third class were brought to Ellis Island for inspection, but within the past few years a change has been made whereby all immigrants, no matter whether traveling first, second, or third class, are examined aboard ship, and only those whose right to admission is in question, or who are waiting for relatives or friends to call, are brought to Ellis Island.

There are now thirty-one buildings, including hospital and power houses. The quarters occupied by detained aliens consist of large, light, well ventilated rooms, with floors and dados of Dutch or white glazed tile. A covered porch is available for recreation in stormy weather, while in pleasant weather a playground, supplied with equipment for games and entertainment for both children and adults, is provided. The detention quarters are equipped with a radio. Dormitories are also of white tile, and each person is allotted a white enameled single bed with woven wire springs, good quality mattress, pillow, blankets, and clean linen. Bathrooms have built-in porcelain tubs as well as showers. Two well equipped laundries are in operation daily.

In addition to aliens arriving from abroad at Ellis Island, there are aliens who have been found to be illegally in the United States and are brought to Ellis Island for detention pending the perfection of arrangements looking to their return to the country whence they came. Such persons include criminals, insane, public charges, etc.

Some twenty social agencies have representatives at Ellis Island. These agencies conduct organized sports, provide entertainment, furnish materials for sewing and knitting, organize classes for children and adults, etc. Every effort is made to treat both immigrants and emigrants humanely, the Government providing food, housing, medical aid, etc.[1]

[1] This description is furnished through the courtesy of the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the U. S. Dept. of Justice.

Naturalization. — Naturalization may be thought of as the process of adopting a foreigner and clothing him with the legal privileges of a native citizen.

Courtesy Harold Davis

NEW CITIZENS

These people have just completed their naturalization proceedings.

There are three steps in naturalization proceedings whereby an alien becomes a citizen. The first step is the alien's declaration of intention to become a citizen. This declaration is sometimes spoken of as the "first paper." The "second paper" or second step (taken at least two years but not more than seven years later) is the filing of the petition for naturalization. Under the general provisions of the law, at least 90 days must elapse after the petition is filed before the petitioner may appear before the court for final action on his petition. The third and final step in naturalization is the hearing before the naturalization court. If upon final reading and examination in open court, the court finds that the petitioner is entitled to naturalization, the petitioner takes the oath of allegiance to the United States and is given the certificate of naturalization.

(Consult the *Federal Textbook on Citizenship*, now entitled *Our Constitution and Government*, as to what alien groups are expected to know before they become citizens.)

Requirements for Naturalization. — Under present laws, the more important requirements for naturalization are:

1. The alien must be 18 years of age or over.
2. The alien must be a white person or a person of African nativity or descent or a descendant of a race indigenous to the Western Hemisphere.[1]
3. He must have been legally admitted to the United States for permanent residence, or in the case of illegal entry, the admission must have been legalized.
4. He must have resided continuously within the United States for five years preceding filing of petition for citizenship. He must have resided for six months preceding application in the state within which he files petition for naturalization.
5. The applicant must be a person of good moral character.
6. He must signify attachment to the principles set forth in the Constitution of the United States.
7. The applicant must sign his petition in his own handwriting, unless physically unable to write. He must be able to speak English, unless physically unable to do so.

(Go to the nearest naturalization court or Federal judge and get him to explain naturalization proceedings. If possible, observe the naturalization proceedings.)

Cost of Naturalization. — How much does it cost to become a citizen? The ordinary costs are as follows: An alien entering this country has to pay an $8.00 head tax upon entry. A fee of $2.50 is charged for a certificate of arrival. There is also

[1] There are certain exceptions to this rule, as government officials, their families, attendants, servants, employees, citizens of the Philippine Islands, who are not citizens of the United States, etc.

a clerk's fee of $2.50 for filing the declaration of intention to become a citizen. There is also a $5.00 fee for the final petition of naturalization. This fee is payable to the court at the time of filing such petition.[1]

(If you know a naturalized citizen, consult him as to what naturalization cost him. May a citizenship be revoked?)

Deportation of Aliens. — Each year a number of aliens are deported from the United States. Leading causes of deporta-

TABLE XXXVIII. ALIENS DEPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1940, SHOWING NATIONALITY BY COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION AND CAUSES

Nationality	Causes								
	Crime	Violation Narcotic Laws	Immorality	Defects: Mental, Physical	Previous Deportation	Longer Stay Than Authorized	No Proper Visa	Unable to Read (over 16 Years)	Miscellaneous Causes
Chinese	1	35	—	4	—	13	25	—	22
English	154	1	9	22	50	57	176	4	65
French	107	3	7	20	36	14	130	10	44
German	23	1	6	5	15	23	41	1	6
Greek	15	4	1	4	5	63	53	1	—
Hebrew	19	—	2	5	12	8	25	—	7
Irish	89	—	7	15	18	17	75	3	33
Italian	85	18	10	14	8	46	79	1	9
Scandinavian	24	—	1	7	6	33	30	—	3
Scotch	64	—	5	18	20	17	72	—	24
All other	933	29	116	248	863	272	1768	311	209
Total	1514	91	164	362	1033	563	2474	331	422

Total for Each Nationality: Chinese, 100; English, 538; French, 371; German, 121; Greek, 146; Hebrew, 78; Irish, 257; Italian, 270; Scandinavian, 104; Scotch, 220; All others, 4479.

[1] Certain special fees for re-entry permits and legalization of entry may also be charged.

tion are crimes committed by aliens, previous deportations, and entering the country without proper visa. Table XXXVIII indicates the composition of aliens deported during the year ending June 30, 1940, as well as causes of deportation.

(What do you believe are legitimate reasons for deporting aliens?)

Assimilation of Immigrants. — There are two points of view with respect to the assimilation of immigrants. One group holds that Old World standards should be broken down and American traits transplanted for them. Another group believes that immigrant groups should be encouraged to retain as many Old World traits and customs as possible as long as these are not detrimental to American unity. The belief is that these immigrant groups have many customs and traditions which should be retained to make our country more striking and interesting. The process of Americanization would be carried on but not at the expense of the loss of all these national traditions.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. The question of the restriction of immigration or the registration of all aliens constitutes a good debate topic.
2. Have a new American citizen talk on naturalization proceedings, or on "What My New Citizenship Means to Me."
3. Study the operation of the national origins law.
4. To what extent is there a problem of bootlegging of immigrants across our borders?
5. Stage a mock broadcast using as the scripts *Let Freedom Ring* and *Brave New World.* Both of these publications are available from the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.
6. What are the arguments against unrestricted immigration between nations?
7. Why do people emigrate from this country?
8. How does the present war influence immigration to this country?

VOCABULARY STUDY

immigrant	transients	quota
migration	visa	alien
naturalization	indigenous	citizen
emigrants	assimilation	indentured

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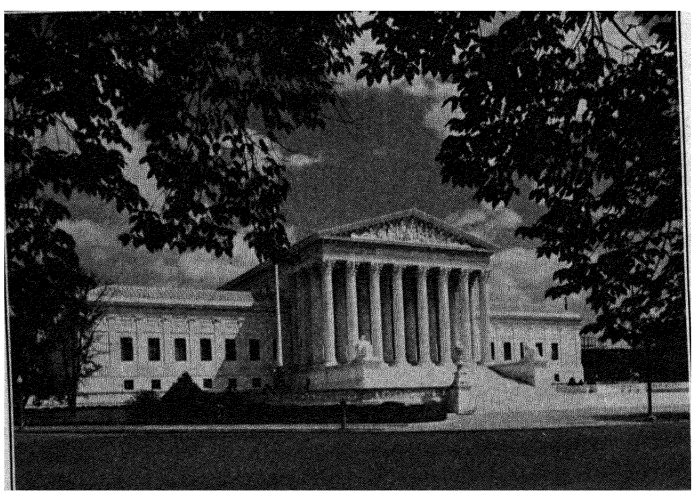
CHAPTER XV

CRIME AND CRIMINALS

What Is a Crime? — So many terms are used in connection with the administration of criminal justice as to make it profitable for us to devote some space to terminology.



SUPREME COURT BUILDING, WASHINGTON © *H. H Rideout*

Crime may be defined as the breaking of a law or the violation of a law. Technically, there must be an overt violation of the law, plus intent on the part of the offender for a crime to be committed.

When one has broken a law and is in the hands of law enforcement officials or the courts, he may be called a *criminal.* Tech-

nically, however, the so-called violator is not fully considered a criminal in America until the courts have found him guilty. One who is making his living or gaining his livelihood solely from crime may be called a *professional criminal.* A person who is in the toils of the law for the first offense is usually called a *first offender*, while one who has repeated the same crime several times, or who has been found guilty of several different crimes, is called a *recid'ivist.* To designate this type of person, sometimes the term "habitual criminal" is used.

Punishment is another term commonly used in discussing crime and criminals. When one is deprived of anything that is generally considered valuable by human beings, he may be said to have been punished. To deprive the individual of his life by electrocution is punishment; to deprive him of his freedom through imprisonment is punishment; or to deprive him of property or money through fines constitutes punishment.

Crimes may also be classified as misdemeanors, felonies, and treason. *Misdemeanors* refer to the lesser offenses usually punishable by fine, a term of less than one year in a local prison, or both, or release on probation. *Felonies* are the more severe or violent offenses usually punishable by fine, a sentence within a state prison of more than one year in length, or both. One is guilty of *treason* when he attempts to destroy the basic institutions, especially government, of a country. Treason is usually punishable by death, banishment, or exile, and is looked upon as a heinous crime.

Crime and criminal behavior are defined by law. The real content of a law, however, is decided by the courts, as they offer their interpretation of the law. These interpretations in turn become precedents. Laws in general may be classified into two groups, common law and statutory law. *Common law* is based upon past legal practices, court decisions, and precedents. Common law, which was inherited by America from England,

is sometimes spoken of as the *unwritten law.* The bulk of laws, however, are written laws, which are often called *statutory laws* and which are enacted by legislative or law-making bodies. Laws defining unlawful offenses against the state are called *criminal laws,* while laws defining unlawful acts against persons are called *civil laws.*

(List acts which you would consider antisocial but which are not prohibited by law. Have a lawyer interpret the different classes of law to the class. Are there any defects in arbitrarily classifying crimes into misdemeanors and felonies?)

The Cost of Crime. — Many attempts have been made to measure or to estimate the cost of crime. As early as 1900, Eugene Smith [1] calculated that 250,000 persons in the United States made their living from crime. He claimed that the profits made from crime by these 250,000 people amounted to $400,000,000 per year, and that an additional $200,000,000 was spent in apprehending and punishing criminals. In 1930, the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection estimated the cost of crime in the United States at the stupendous figure of $16,000,000,000.

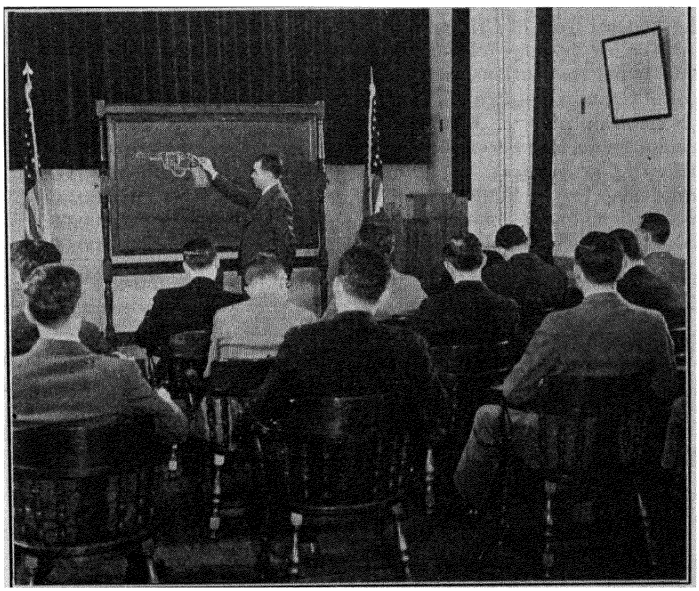
The most thoroughgoing study of the cost of crime made in the United States to date was that prepared by the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement. Among the many significant statements the report contained was one to the effect that no comprehensive scientific study of the cost of crime has ever been made in the United States. The Commission stated in this connection:

It is wholly impossible to make an accurate estimate of the total economic cost of crime to the United States. This is true whether we look at the immediate cost of crime to the tax-paying and property-owning public and the individuals composing it, or whether we consider the net ultimate

[1] Smith, Eugene, *The Cost of Crime,* U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1901.

cost to the community as a whole. Many "estimates" of total cost have been made, but they, in our opinion, have been only guesses; and we do not feel that any useful purpose would be served by still another guess.[1]

Certain data, however, assembled by the Commission give a partial estimate of the cost of crime, which, if the picture



Official Photograph of the Federal Bureau of Investigation

TRAINING SCHOOL OF THE F. B. I.

could be made complete, would reach a sum which would be staggering. A few fairly reliable statistics compiled by the Commission are tabulated in Table XXXIX.

If the crime bill for the United States were accurately figured, it would include at least items similar to those listed on pages 296 and 297.

[1] National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, *Report on the Cost of Crime*, Washington, D. C., 1931, pp. 1–8.

1. The cost of law-enforcement officials, including police and detectives, and the cost of the equipment and facilities used.

TABLE XXXIX. SOME ITEMS IN THE CRIME BILL[1]

ITEM	PER ANNUM
The Federal Cost of Criminal Justice	$ 52,786,000
State Police Systems (eleven states)	2,660,000
State Penal Institutions and Parole Agencies	51,720,000
Cost of Criminal Justice in Cities of over 25,000 Population	247,700,000
Private Protective Services	10,000,000
Armored Car Services	3,900,000
Fraudulent Use of Mails	68,000,000
Insurance against Crime	106,000,000
Loss of Productive Labor Due to Crime	300,000,000
Total	$842,766,000

2. The cost of courts and judges, including juvenile courts and their staffs.

3. The cost of penal institutions, including federal prisons, state and local prisons, reformatories, hospitals for the criminal insane, and prison farms.

4. The cost of protection against robberies, break-ins, forgery, and the like, including insurance against such crimes.

5. Loss of productive labor due to imprisonment and to physical disabilities occasioned by criminal attack and to premature death caused by a criminal attack or to capital punishment of an offender.

6. The moral cost of crime, which can be measured only in terms of the blighted lives of criminals, and the loss of morality among many of their victims is certainly an element in the total cost of crime.

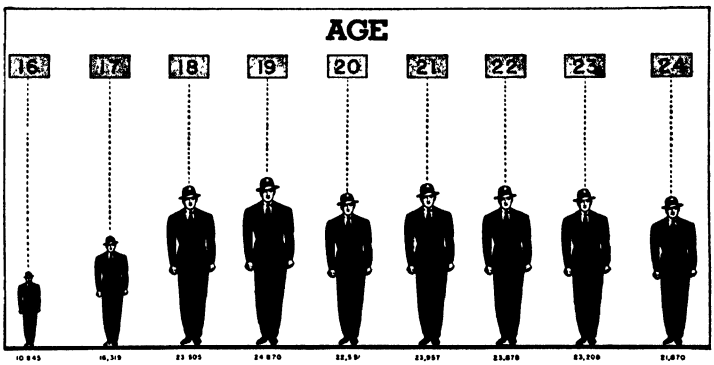
[1] National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, *Report on the Cost of Crime*, Washington, D. C., 1931, pp. 1–8, 69–70, 442. Later data covering the same items are not available.

7. The cost, financial and social, of homes broken by crime.

8. The corruption of legitimate business and politics by a criminal element.

9. The cost of the profits of crime, particularly the profits of organized crime, sometimes spoken of as "racketeering."

During the year 1940, 215 cities with populations of over 25,000 reported the aggregate value of property stolen to the extent of $33,441,858.95. Of all property in these cities, automobiles represented $20,057,956.85. Much of this stolen



NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BETWEEN THE AGES OF 16 AND 24

property was, of course, recovered. In fact, in 1940 the value of recovered property was $22,863,659.51, or 68.4 per cent of the amount stolen. The value of recovered automobiles was $19,330,357.68, which represented 96.4 per cent of the value of cars stolen.[1]

What Price One Bad Boy? — One of the most interesting articles ever prepared on cost of crime is the article by Charles L. Chute of the National Probation Association, entitled "What Price One Bad Boy?" [2]

[1] *Uniform Crime Reports*, Vol. XI, No. 4, p. 193, 1940.

[2] Chute, Charles L., "What Price One Bad Boy?" *The American Legion Monthly*, June, 1937.

The study is of one Willy Jones, aged 21, found guilty of burglary and sentenced to life imprisonment in Sing Sing. In the words of Mr. Chute:

Willy spent the years from seven to twelve in a tenement home with an easy-going, slovenly mother and a brutal drunkard for a stepfather. Poverty always in the house. No encouragement at school. His only outlet for fun or companionship, a gang of tough street boys.

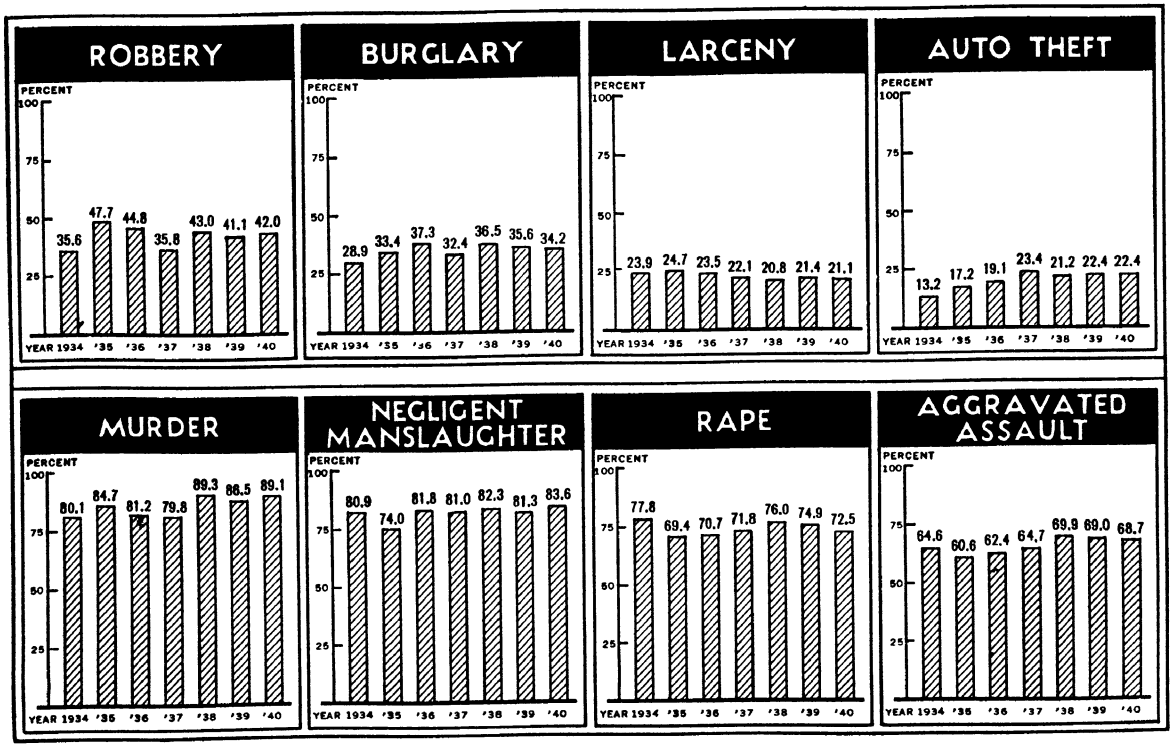
Repeated truancy from school, detention in an institution for delinquents of inferior type, and an armed burglary led up to Willy's imprisonment for life.

In dollars and cents, according to Mr. Chute, the treatment that Willy received has cost the taxpayers something like this — (and cost of apprehension, detention, prison building costs and upkeep, interest on investment and society's loss of Willy as a wage earner are *not* included):

1. Institution for juvenile delinquents: Three commitments, totaling 3 years 2½ months ($35 per month, maintenance only)	$1,356
2. County jail (maintenance only): Three commitments, totaling 1 year 7 months and 5 days ($30 per month)	$575
3. Prison (maintenance only): Two sentences, 2½ years at $402 per year	$1,005
Life (estimated at 40 years)	$16,080
4. Other expenses: Three juvenile hearings, estimated at $50 each	$150
5. Four criminal prosecutions at an average of $200 each	$800
Total	$19,966

(From your city or county budget, figure out the per cent of tax funds which annually goes to pay the salaries of criminal judges and law-enforcement officials. Compare this with the amount spent for other purposes. Collect estimates of the cost of crime in America or in your city, county, or state. In measuring the cost of crime in your community, what items would you include? Can the human cost of crime be measured in terms of dollars and cents?)

Is Crime on the Increase? — Popular opinion probably would agree that crime is increasing; to assemble reliable



CRIME TRENDS IN CITIES, 1934–1940

statistics to prove such a point, however, is beset with many difficulties. In the first place, it is impossible to calculate accurately the total volume of crime. Crime is defined by law. Each year there is a "flood" of new laws and the repeal of only a few laws as compared to new statutes. There are, then, more laws to violate, or to respect, as the case may be, year after year. In the consideration of any increase in crime rate it is necessary to take into consideration the number of new laws passed.

Many crime data are obtained from police records. Many sheriffs, justices of the peace, and many small town and village police do not keep any crime records at all, while an even larger number keep very inaccurate records. Consequently, to measure and compare the volume of crime year after year from these sources becomes difficult.

Some cities, towns, villages, and counties simply compare the total volume of crime year after year, without taking into consideration the fluctuation of population in the unit being studied. Crime rates should always be standardized on the basis of some unit of population, either per 1000 population or 10,000, or 100,000, in order that the data may be comparable.

Many criminal offenses are never known, many more are known only to police, and many are settled outside of court, all of which add to the difficulties of determining whether crime is increasing or decreasing.

The homicide rate, including excusable homicides, as killing in self-defense, is a fairly good index of crime trends and appears to have increased through 1934, but to have declined during the last few years. The trend of the homicide rate is indicated in Table XL.

Crimes against property comprise a larger percentage of all crimes in cities than in rural districts, where a larger percentage of crimes are crimes against persons. These fluctuate greatly,

did not generally increase during the depression period, 1930–1939, and are apparently not on the increase today.

TABLE XL. AVERAGE ANNUAL NUMBER OF HOMICIDES PER 100,000 POPULATION [1]

YEARS	ENTIRE REGISTRATION AREA *
1905–09	5.6
1910–14	6.7
1915–19	7.2
1920–24	8.1
1925–29	8.7
1930–33	8.8
1934–37	9.7
1938–39	6.8
1940–41	6.2
1942–43	5.4

* The "registration area" is the area over which statistics on births, deaths, causes of deaths, and the like are collected.

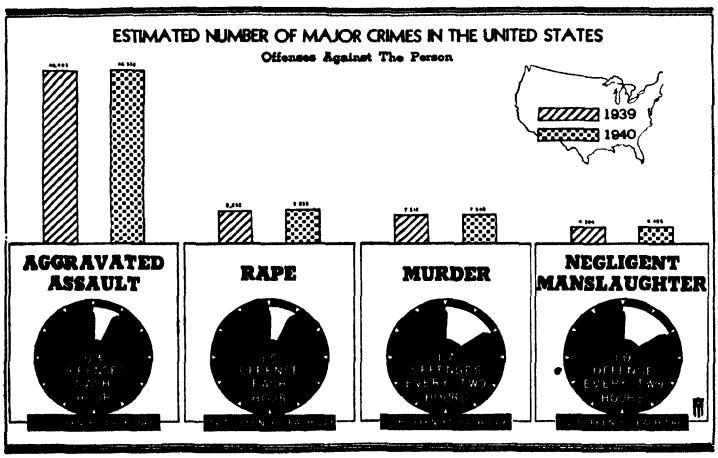
The number of automobiles stolen has increased year after year, but the percentage of automobiles stolen has remained about the same for the last ten years. The percentage of all stolen automobiles recovered increased from about 63 per cent in 1925 to more than 90 per cent at the present time. The losses incurred from mail thefts have declined rapidly from 1920 to the present.

The volume of crime in communities with the same or practically the same populations varies greatly. The Federal Bureau of Investigation lists the following as some of the factors which may affect the amount of crime in a community:

The composition of the population with reference particularly to age, sex, and race.

[1] Sutherland, Edwin H., *Principles of Criminology*, J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1934, p. 28; and *Summary of Vital Statistics, 1940*, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C., November 7, 1941.

The economic status and activities of the population.
Climate.
Educational, recreational, and religious facilities.
The number of police employees per unit of population.
The standards governing appointments to the police force.



The policies of the prosecuting officials and the courts.
The attitude of the public toward law-enforcement problems.
The degree of efficiency of the local law-enforcement agency.[1]

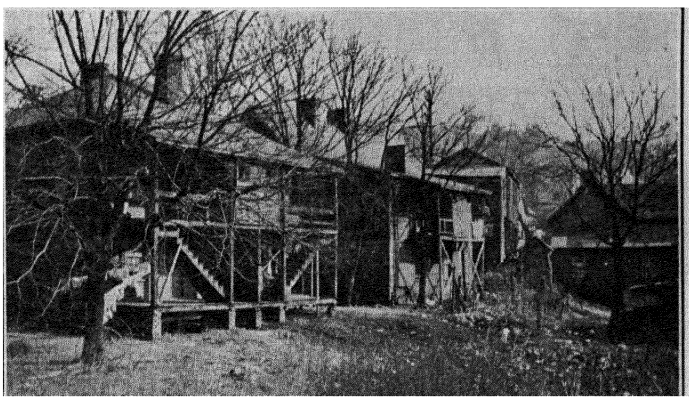
(Obtain statistics on bank robberies to note the trend in this form of crime. Do likewise for kidnaping. How has federal participation in dealing with kidnaping activities influenced the prevalence of this type of crime?)

Some Causes of Crime. — The causes of crime may be divided, for purposes of clarification, into two large groupings: the causes of juvenile crime, juvenile delinquency preferred, and the causes of adult crime. This does not mean that there is

[1] *Uniform Crime Reports*, Vol. 12, No. 3, p. 142, 1941. Washington, D. C., Federal Bureau of Investigation.

not a rather decided overlapping between the two classifications, for there is. Without going into any great detail, we shall list first important causes of *juvenile delinquency,* some of which are:

1. Poor home conditions, such as poverty, homes broken by divorce or desertion, disorganized relationships between members of the family, or homes in which children receive little guidance from parents, often lead to juvenile delinquency.



AN OPPORTUNITY FOR IMPROVEMENT

Improved home environments always produce better civic conditions in any community.

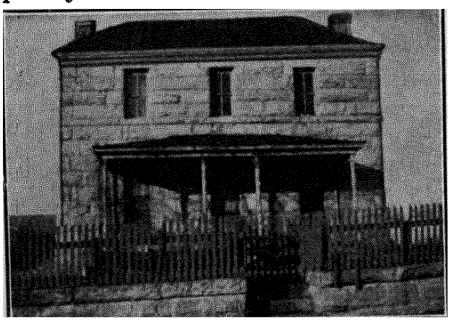
2. An uninteresting or ill-adapted school life, leading to unpleasant school experiences, is often a cause of truancy, one of the most frequent juvenile offenses.

3. Evil associations constitute an important cause of juvenile delinquency. Sometimes these bad associates are leaders of boys' gangs, while in some instances they are adults who willfully mislead juveniles and use them as "tools" for carrying out criminal activity.

4. Poor neighborhood or community conditions, including poor environment, lack of public playgrounds or other pro-

grams of supervised recreation, often cause high rates of juvenile delinquency. Authorities now agree that the best way to prevent delinquency is to keep boys and girls busy with wholesome activity.

5. Mental and emotional defectiveness may lead to delinquency. Sometimes this involves too much self-esteem or bullying, and sometimes inferiority and self-depreciation.



SHORTSIGHTED PENOLOGY
This kind of jail has been called "A Crucible of Crime."

Some of the leading causes of *adult crime* are:

1. Juvenile delinquency, which means that often when the "criminal habit" is begun in youth, it is continued into the period of adulthood.

2. Our slow and uncertain system of criminal justice, which provides many loopholes of escape between the time a prisoner is arrested and the time of his conviction, is an important cause of the high crime rate of the United States. The machinery of justice moves much more quickly in England or in Canada than it does in the United States.

3. Prison treatment may cause released prisoners to commit new crimes. Some types of prison treatment embitter criminals and prompt them to seek their revenge upon society after they obtain freedom.

4. More opportunities to profit from, or "cash in" on, crime has increased "gang" crime, racketeering, and the like.

5. The increase in the number of laws on the statute books has increased the total volume of crime. Since laws define

types of conduct which constitute crimes, the increase in the number of laws is certainly one cause for the increase in crime. Traffic laws constitute an excellent example.

6. Mental deficiency and emotional instability may lead to the lack of self-control, which may result in criminal behavior, or may cause an individual to fail to foresee the results of crime.

7. Unemployment is likely to lead to crimes against property, such as theft, robbery, or burglary. As long as one is busily engaged in productive work, he is likely to give very little attention to crime.

8. The urbanization of population has been a factor in causing crime. With the movement of peoples to cities and with the growth of cities, the lure of crime becomes greater, and the chances of detection for criminal behavior become less. Urban people are not subject to the control of church, family, or community to the degree that rural people are.

9. A frontier philosophy inherited from colonial days is often cited as a reason for the high crime rate of the United States. During this period, many laws had to be made on the spot and enforced on the spot. The imprint of this philosophy is left upon Americans and is indicated by the tendency of many people to obey only the laws they desire to obey.

10. The use of the automobile, which makes escape from scenes of crime easier, has added an important ally to the criminal's aides-in-crime.

11. Delinquency areas, or areas of disorganization in cities, which are usually slum areas, serve as incubators of crime.

12. Unholy alliances between politicians, lawyers, and criminals, which provide protection for criminal groups, lead criminals to commit crimes without undue fear of punishment.

13. The use of alcohol or drugs also contributes to a large amount of crime, not only because the alcohol and drug trade is a major occupation among the criminal element, but because the

use of narcotics leads to instability in the individual, which may cause him to commit a crime.

In olden days it was a habit of thinking to look upon criminality and criminal tendencies as inherited traits. The modern viewpoint takes the stand that criminality is largely the result of sociological factors, such as environment, home training, and the like. However, modern criminology recognizes that a person may inherit a physical cause or a mental condition which makes it easy for him to become a criminal.

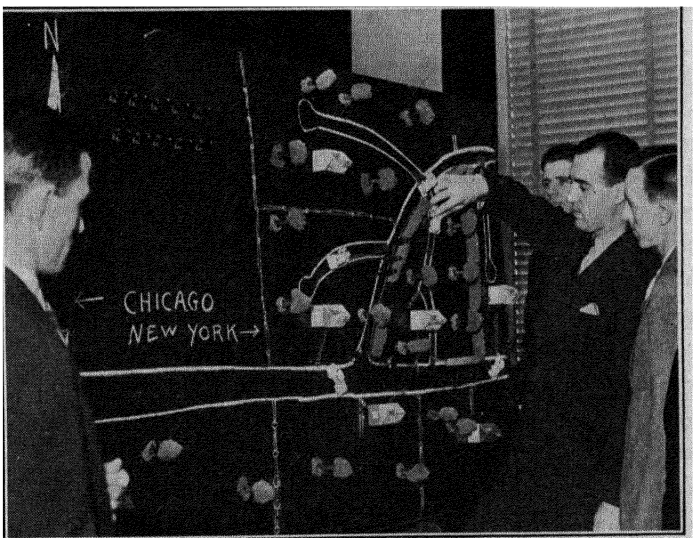
(Visit two or more law-enforcement officials, as the sheriff, the chief of police, the judge of the criminal court, or the attorney general, to ascertain their versions of the causes of crime in the administrative areas they serve. Visit a leading local minister and find out what he believes are the leading causes of crime in the community he serves. Consult the juvenile judge or the school superintendent relative to the local causes of juvenile delinquency. With the opinions of the above officials at hand and with the aid of whatever studies you have available, conduct a round-table on "The Causes of Crime in My Community.")

Treatment of Crime and Criminals. — How should criminal classes be treated? This is a subject of much dispute in which the arguments range from suggesting very kind and gentle treatment to the strictest and most inhuman type of treatment.

We can, perhaps, approach the subject of the treatment of criminals from the angle of considering first some of the theories of punishment which are now prevalent throughout the country. These we may list as follows:

1. *The theory of revenge.* — There are many people who hold that a person should be punished for a criminal act simply to avenge the act. This theory is not concerned with the cause of the crime, the relative rightness or wrongness of it, or the rehabilitation of the criminal who committed the crime, but is concerned solely with applying the ancient doctrine of "an eye

for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth." It is this theory which drives an angry, surging mob into the jail to shackle a helpless criminal and drag his body through the street, and later hang him to a tree. Mobs, motivated by the spirit of revenge, are usually not interested in justice, but only in revenge.



U. S. Department of Justice

TRAINING SPECIAL AGENTS FOR THE F.B.I.

2. *The theory of instilling fear into the criminal and potentially criminal population.* — This theory, in general, believes in severe punishment, because severe punishment is believed to instill fear into the population to a degree which mild punishment will not. To some degree this may be true; at one time in England, however, pickpockets were hanged, and people had their pockets picked while witnessing the hanging of pickpockets.

3. *The theory of disabling the prisoner* so that he cannot inflict another criminal act upon society. One way of doing this is through imprisonment, while another method, which is final

and complete, is the infliction of the death penalty through capital punishment.

4. *The theory of reformation*, which holds that punishment has served its purpose when the criminal has reformed. This involves a change of heart and mind, out of which comes a determination or resolution not to commit additional criminal acts.

5. *The theory of training the individual* and returning him to society equipped to engage in the normal work of society. This is more than reformation; it is reformation plus training and reformation accomplished through training. The motive back of this theory is not to embitter the criminal, but by kind treatment and through prison shops and schools return the individual to society after his prison days are over, in condition to hold a job, to care for his dependents, and to become a stable and effective citizen.

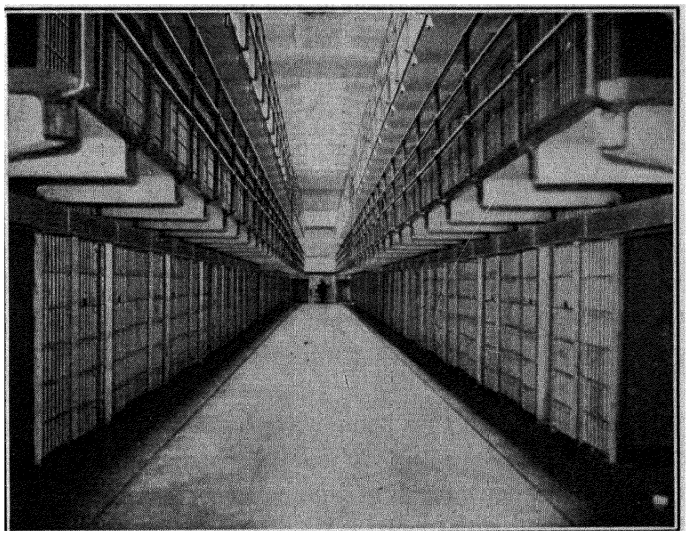
The most prevalent American method of treating criminal groups is through institutionalization in prisons or penal institutions of one type or another. The lack of space forbids any extensive treatment of prison conditions in the United States. We may cite in this connection, however, the conclusions of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement regarding prison conditions.[1] The authors of this report concluded:

1. That the penal system is:
   Antiquated,
   Inefficient,
   Fails to protect society, and
   Hardens the criminal.

2. The Commission considers it unnecessary for the states to spend a large amount of money in building prisons of maximum security type (*i.e.*, prisons equipped with steel cells and stone walls). With proper classification of prisoners, many

[1] National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, "Penal Institutions, Probation and Parole," *Report No. 9*, Washington, D. C., 1931.

could be housed in inexpensive buildings of medium and minimum security type. Money spent for buildings might well be spent in developing and financing an adequate system of probation and parole.



Acme Newspictures

PROGRESS IN PENOLOGY

The "escape proof" cells at Alcatraz Prison, Alcatraz, California, are light, airy, and hygienic.

3. Present sanitary and health conditions of penal institutions are inadequate.

4. No proper penal institutions can be developed until means are found to remove the tubercular, the venereally diseased, the feeble-minded, the drug addict, the sex pervert, and the aged from the general prison population for such permanent or temporary treatment as may be required.

5. The remaining penal population should itself be separated into groups which may be housed in maximum, medium, and minimum security buildings.

6. We find our present system of prison discipline to be traditional, antiquated, unintelligent, and not infrequently cruel and inhuman. Bread and water diets, discipline that kills the best in men, and the minute prison rules that reduce prisoners to automatons and place them at the mercy of the guards who happen to take a dislike to them too often prevail. Brutal disciplinary measures have no justification.

7. There is need for improved official personnel. This involves careful selection, better compensation, and training. A step in the right direction is the prison officer's training school maintained by the federal government.

8. In so far as the prison must employ labor for other than local consumption, we recommend the "state use" system and the employment of prison labor on public works as most advantageous to the state and least injurious to outside capital and labor.

9. We recommend that some wage be paid to the prisoner, not merely as an incentive to good work, but as a means of maintaining his dependents and promoting his self-respect.

10. Individual treatment is the basis of adequate penal treatment and the proper basis of parole.

11. An indeterminate sentence is necessary for the development of a proper institutional program and essential to the establishment of an adequate system of parole.

12. Parole must be considered the best means yet devised for releasing prisoners from confinement. It affords the safest method of accomplishing the ex-prisoner's adjustment to the community. No prison system, no matter how well organized, can be expected to achieve its best results without the co-operation of a well-staffed, well-financed, and properly organized system of parole. Of even more importance is the skillful and sympathetic supervision of the prisoner who is on parole.

13. Probation must be considered as the most important step we have taken in the individualization of treatment of the offender. No man should be sent to a penal institution until it is definitely determined that he is not a fit subject for probation.

From the above recommendations made by the National Committee on Law Enforcement and Observance, it is clear that if the states are going to rehabilitate the criminals they have and if they are to prevent their becoming confirmed criminals, the following facilities and services as a minimum are necessary: (1) A central bureau for study and classification of prisoners following state custody; (2) Adequate institutional facilities for segregation of prisoners by classes; (3) An in-prison training and work program; (4) Use of indeterminate sentences and good time laws; (5) A parole system with adequate personnel and nonpolitical administration.

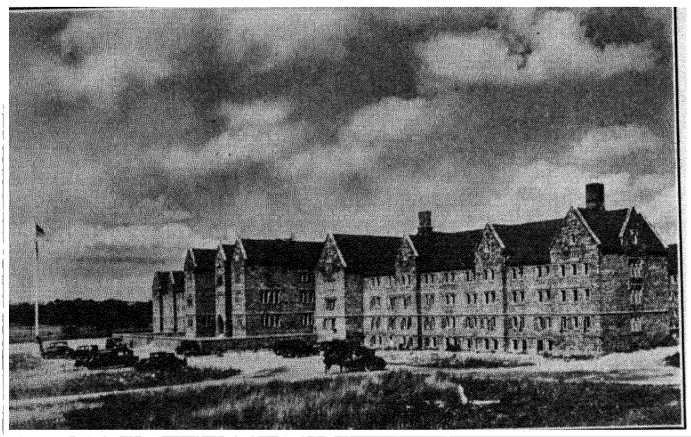
Local Penal Treatment. — Many writers become so greatly concerned over state penal conditions that they overlook the most important penal institution — the local jail or penal farm. We do not mean that the local penal system is more important than the state penal system, but merely that it is numerically more important, since it receives and discharges many more violators than are received by the state prisons.

Numerous studies of local jail situations and conditions have been made. These studies invariably indicate the following deficiencies in local jails or penal institutions:

1. The idleness of inmates. In the smaller jails, where no work programs have been developed, this situation is grave.

2. Lack of facilities for classifying prisoners and for segregating prisoners of different types and ages. As a result, the experienced offender, the first offender, the young and the old and the well and the sick are housed together in the same cell or cell-block.

3. The fee system and its abuse. In addition to magistrate fees and other fees connected with local criminal procedure, two types of fees connected with local penal treatment are greatly abused. These are the fee system of feeding prisoners, whereby



Keystone

WALKHILL STATE PRISON, NEW YORK'S LATEST CORRECTION INSTITUTION
Here men are confined who show promise of future useful citizenship.

the sheriff or other responsible official receives from seventy-five cents to one dollar per day for feeding prisoners, and turnkey fees whereby the sheriff or the jailer gets a fee for locking a prisoner up and a fee for releasing him. Fees thus received are designated as turnkey fees.

4. Insanitary conditions, due often to the lack of adequate supervision.

5. Improper diet, due also to the lack of adequate supervision in the preparation of meals and to the fee system of feeding prisoners whereby the official receiving the fee tries to make as large a profit as possible off the prison diet.

6. Inadequate housing. Many local jails are old and as a result are not only escape-proof but are also exceedingly filthy

and inadequate. This inadequacy is due in part to the smallness of the group served and to the fact that many counties and towns cannot afford to build an elaborate local penal institution.

Some of the recommendations currently being made for the improvement of the local jail system are as follows:

1. The wider use of effectively directed probation. We could well afford to probate more misdemeanants, permit them to support their families and pay their fines on an installment basis rather than to send them to the local jail. These measures might prove even more effective than punitive measures that keep offenders in jail. At the same time, fewer individuals would be exposed to short courses in crime such as accompany short-term sentences in local jails.

2. There is much evidence that many counties are too small, geographically, for efficient penal administration. For this reason, many authorities are advocating state district prisons for all except those awaiting trial. Some of these prisons may be state prison farms or prison camps. England considers five hundred inmates as being the number necessary for an efficient and economical local penal institution. Although America inherited the jail from England, England has discarded the county jail and established regional prisons under state control.

3. Many authorities advocate the abolition of jail sentences of less than thirty days and the substitution of fines or probation for most sentences of less than thirty days' length.

4. Since many persons are committed to jails for failure to pay fines, some authorities advocate the payment of fines on an installment basis. We use the installment plan of paying for all types of articles and services. There is no reason why the system should not be applied to the payment of fines.

5. Improved facilities for the segregation of prisoners according to age, physical condition, and criminal habits are general recommendations pertinent to most jail practices.

6. In many states where the jail system is continued, there is need for more state control of local jails. This should involve:

a. The right of the state to make frequent inspections of all jails and workhouses.

b. The establishment of uniform accounting systems and uniform records would not only be highly economical but immensely valuable in comparing statistics on costs.

c. The state approval of all plans for new buildings would insure greater adequacy of construction costs.

d. The right of the state to specify standards of clothing, diet, exercise, work, accommodations, and the like, is necessary for uniform procedures and practices.

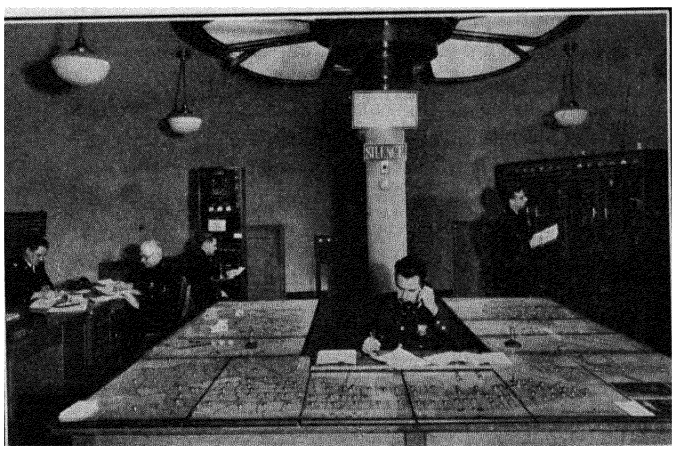
e. The right to condemn and close any jail which does not meet standards should be vested in the state, through, possibly, the state department of public welfare.

(As a class project, work up a proposed prison system for your state. If possible, visit a local jail. Work up a report on probation and another on parole. What are the substitutes for jails which are most commonly recommended?)

Some Suggestions for the Prevention of Crime. — Anything which can be done to improve the standards of living of the great group of American citizens which we might classify as "marginal men" will reduce greatly the crime rate of our country. To this end may be directed slum clearance, minimum wage legislation, old-age pensions, pensions for needy widows with families, aid to dependent children, and movements for the increase of home ownership and still other movements designed to increase the economic status of countless thousands of persons who are driven to criminal activity by the squalor, poor living conditions, and inadequate resources which are theirs.

Supervised public recreation, playgrounds, and diverse types of recreational areas should reduce greatly juvenile delinquency in American communities.

In the field of administration of justice and police administration, much remains to be done. To this end may be directed higher qualifications for entrance to the legal profession, the abolition of fee systems in the payment of salaries, the extension of juvenile courts into small towns and rural regions, the substitution of visiting teachers for truant officers, the improvement of police equipment, and the speeding up of criminal



Brown Brothers

AN UP-TO-DATE POLICE RADIO STATION

The speedy capture of law violators is facilitated by the use of modern equipment like that shown here.

justice. These movements are all designed to decrease crime through, first, prevention, and, secondly, the discouragement of criminal activity through a speedy but sure-footed system of criminal justice.

Summary. — Crime is, then, the violation of laws, and its cost must be measured not solely in terms of financial cost, but also in terms of larger social and human costs. Individuals are not born criminals; they are made so by the social order in which they live. To prevent crime, therefore, we cannot em-

phasize the punishment of individual criminals, but must dig deeper and excavate some of the roots of crime we have discussed in this chapter.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. The origin of the American criminal laws.
2. Resolved: "That heredity is more of an important element in crime than is environment."
3. Report on the cost of crime.
4. Elements which should be considered in evaluating the cost of crime.
5. The most common American crimes.
6. Modern methods of preventing juvenile delinquency.
7. Causes of crime in my community.
8. Modern methods of preventing adult crime.
9. Federal crime control.
10. A program for treating crime and criminals in my community.
11. Crime and the foreign-born.
12. Crime and race.
13. Suggestions for improving criminal procedure.

VOCABULARY STUDY

antiquated	misdemeanor	prevalent
homicide	rehabilitation	statutory
crime	embezzlement	turnkey
truancy	felony	squalor

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CHAPTER XVI

POVERTY AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM

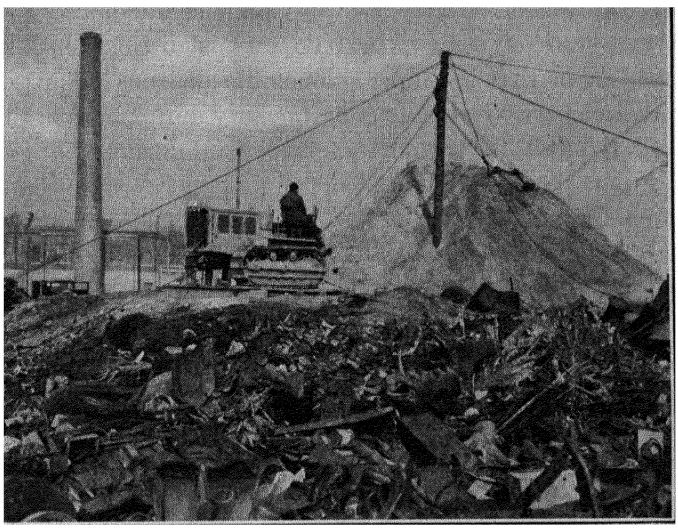
The Problem of Sub-marginal People. — When soil will barely raise enough to pay for its cultivation, it is said to be *marginal* land. Land that will not yield enough to pay for its cultivation is called *sub-marginal* land. An individual whose physical condition is below that of normal individuals may be said to be physically sub-marginal. In the same way, a family whose income or plane of living is below that of families whose means enable them to live in health and decency may be said to be economically sub-marginal, or below standard. Likewise, a person whose educational qualifications are below those of the average of his group may be said to be educationally sub-marginal. Thus we have the term "sub-marginal" in its various usages, but always referring to the person or group "below the normal," "below the average," or "below the standard."

(Are there sub-marginal men in your community? What are some of the reasons for their submarginality? Are there other types of sub-marginal men in your community other than economically submarginal persons?)

What Is a Normal Livelihood? — Reference has been made to "the normal" in the above paragraph. Let us briefly clarify the meaning of this term. To live normally means to live a life of reasonably harmonious and satisfactory adjustment to one's natural and social environment. It means the capacity and the ability to live as nearly as possible a normal life — a type of life normally expected — according to the standards of the period and of the community. The ultimate aim of all normal

individual and social endeavor is the enrichment of the normal life for the masses. This is the purpose of government, of law, of education, and especially of those movements which we designate as public welfare or social welfare movements.

The most valuable product of human society is not an automobile, a magnificent city, a huge navy-at-sea, but a fully and



Courtesy Caterpillar Tractor Company

A City Dump

In times of depression especially, dumps like this are favorite haunts of the poverty-stricken who comb every inch looking for salable articles.

completely developed human personality. The most important values in society are human values — the achievement of a social order in which people will be happy, in which they will be healthy, and in which they can develop themselves or be developed to the greatest possible degree.

(When is a person socially normal, economically normal, physically normal, and educationally normal? Is normality for a large per cent of the population a hopeless quest?)

Poverty Defined. — Poverty has been defined as:

> that condition of living in which a person, either because of inadequate income or unwise expenditure, does not maintain a standard of living high enough to provide for the physical and mental efficiency of himself and to enable him and his natural dependents to function usefully according to the standards of society of which he is a member.[1]

A condition of poverty has also been characterized as the habitual state of being poor.[1] Poverty is distinguished from pauperism in that a pauper is one who depends upon public or private charity for a living, particularly during normal times. Those reduced to temporary pauperism during the recent depression should not be called paupers. They may be more appropriately characterized as "the new poor." On the other hand, those whose entire support or partial support comes from public or private sources are sometimes spoken of as the dependent poor. In their case poverty would be defined as "economic dependence."[2]

The Measurement of Poverty. — To determine what proportion of a population is in poverty, it is necessary to have some measuring system for differentiating the poverty group from the nonimpoverished. To facilitate this measurement, a system of measurements spoken of as "planes of living" has been devised. Definite income figures are assigned to each of these planes, but, inasmuch as these vary greatly as between different localities, they are not given here. These planes of living are as follows.[3]

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[1] Gillin, John L., *Poverty and Dependency* (Revised Edition), Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1939.

[2] Ford, James, and Ford, Katherine Morrow, *The Abolition of Poverty*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1937, p. 1.

[3] As an interesting project, it is suggested that the class set up an income figure for these various levels for their home community and then divide the population into income groups according to this classification.

1. *The luxury level.* — Similar to the comfort level, but having more of each element.

2. *The comfort level.* — This level is difficult to define. It differs from the lower ones in that it provides for more non-essentials and more opportunity for saving.

Farm Security Administration

KITCHEN IN A HOME AT THE POVERTY LEVEL

3. *The minimum of health and decency level, or the subsistence-plus level.* — When the income is sufficient to provide for physical necessities, insurance, recreation which costs money, some funds for cultural and educational advancements, and some funds to provide the thrill of an occasional luxury.

4. *The minimum of subsistence level.* — When the income is sufficient to meet physical necessities but is not sufficient to provide for insurance, emergencies, amusements which cost money, and the like.

5. *The poverty level, or level of destitution.* — When the income,

though carefully or wisely expended, does not meet the physical needs of a family or individual.

The amount of income necessary to keep a family above the poverty level varies from time to time and from place to place because of:

1. *The cost of living,* as, for example, between city and country. While an income of $800 annually may keep a family of five in comfort in an agricultural community, it would probably not keep such a family above the poverty plane of living in New York City.

2. *The spending habits of a family.* — Some families are able to maintain themselves above the poverty level on small incomes, while other families of the same composition, income, social class, and environment are not able to maintain themselves above the poverty level of existence. To teach people how to spend their income effectively is one of the big unsolved problems of American education.

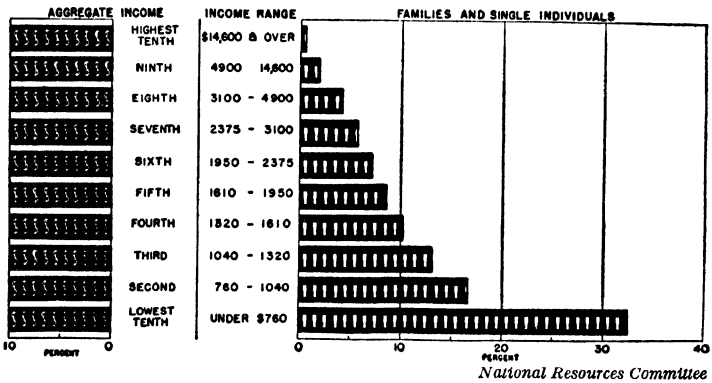
3. *Custom and social pressure.* — Custom and social pressure determine to a large degree the expenses a family has to meet in addition to what is required for the essentials of food, clothing, and shelter. Some families whose incomes are high have to entertain so much or pay so much for rent, by virtue of feeling that they must live in a certain section of the town or city, or have to maintain such a large group of servants or expensive automobiles, that they save proportionately less than lower income families who have to expend less because of social customs or pressure.

4. *Income.* — One cannot for long expend more than his earned income, unless he has an inheritance. Income limits, for most families, the plane of living it is possible for them to obtain and maintain. Professor Bossard says:

> Other things being equal, our planes are as high as our incomes permit. A relatively small proportion of persons or families make any accumulation

of property, clearly indicating that the vast majority live up to the limits of their incomes. It is to be noted, too, that the group, after developing its planes to the limits of income, immediately makes that plane the irreducible minimum.[1]

We see, therefore, that a plane of living which may be a comfort plane in one locality may not be in another. A poverty wage in a large city or complex social order may, in a more simple social environment, provide for a health and decency plane of living. The cost of maintaining a certain plane also varies with time, price levels, and the like.



National Resources Committee

PROPORTION OF NATION'S FAMILIES IN CERTAIN INCOME CLASSES

(Why are statistics on the percentage of persons in poverty difficult to obtain? What determines the plane or level of living of families in your community?)

How Prevalent Is Poverty? — Through the use of statistical techniques, social scientists are now assembling fairly reliable data on the extent of poverty in the United States and throughout the Western World. In some of the Eastern nations, as China and India, the statistical estimates of the extent of poverty are as yet largely a wild guess.

[1] Bossard, James H. S., *Social Change and Social Problems*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1938, p. 168.

As early as 1891, Richard T. Ely estimated that there were three million paupers in the United States. He classified as paupers the recipients of charitable aid. In 1904, R. Hunter estimated that four million or more persons were dependent upon the public for relief. Later, Dr. Maurice Parmlee estimated the number of paupers in the United States to be about one per cent of the population during normal times and that the number receiving charitable aid was equivalent to five or ten per cent of the population. He estimated that the percentage of the total population in poverty was much greater.[1]

Among the more comprehensive and recent reports of income distribution are two studies made by the National Resources Committee. These reports, entitled *Consumer Incomes in the United States* and *Consumer Expenditures in the United States*, show that the 29 million families in the United States received incomes totaling slightly more than 59 billion dollars. Commenting on the distribution of the incomes, the Committee says:

> This $59 billion was not, however, equally divided. Roughly 65 per cent of all families received less than $1,500 in the year 1935–36, 42 per cent less than $1,000, and 14 per cent less than $500. About 13 per cent received incomes of over $2,500, about 3 per cent incomes of $5,000 and over, and about 1 per cent incomes of $10,000 or more. This 1 per cent, however, enjoyed a little over 13 per cent of the $48 billion aggregate income received by all families in 1935–36, while the 14 per cent with incomes under $500 received about 3 per cent of this total. The families with incomes of $5,000 and more — 3 per cent of the total number — received 21 per cent of the total family income, in contrast to the 16 per cent received by those with incomes under $1,000 — 42 per cent of all families.[2]

The preceding data show rather clearly that quite a large proportion of the population receive wage earnings so small

[1] Parmlee, Maurice, *Poverty and Social Progress*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1916, p. 105.

[2] National Resources Committee, *The Consumer Spends His Income*, Washington, D. C., 1939, p. 4.

TABLE XLI. DISTRIBUTION OF FARM, RURAL NONFARM AND URBAN FAMILIES BY RELIEF STATUS AND INCOME LEVEL, 1935–36

Relief Status and Income Level	Number of Families			
	All Groups	Farm	Rural Nonfarm	Urban
Receiving some relief	4,487,100	600,600	1,094,300	2,792,200
Not receiving relief				
Under $500	2,654,310	1,091,010	546,870	1,016,430
$500–$1000	6,155,830	2,135,450	1,203,190	2,817,190
$1000–$1500	5,967,510	1,394,830	1,174,540	3,398,140
$1500–$2000	4,085,190	730,810	712,760	2,641,620
$2000–$3000	3,671,980	518,580	589,950	2,563,450
$3000–$4000	1,181,990	160,630	164,920	856,400
$4000–$5000	402,590	48,430	63,120	291,040
$5000–$10,000	510,010	63,950	91,540	354,520
$10,000 and over	283,790	22,910	38,810	222,070
All non-relief families	24,913,200	6,166,600	4,585,700	14,160,900
All families	29,400,000	6,767,200	5,680,000	16,953,100
	Per Cent of All Families			
Receiving some relief	15.3	8.9	19.3	16.5
Not receiving relief				
Under $500	9.0	16.1	9.6	6.0
$500–$1000	20.9	31.6	21.2	16.6
$1000–$1500	20.3	20.6	20.7	20.0
$1500–$2000	13.9	10.8	12.5	15.6
$2000–$3000	12.5	7.7	10.4	15.1
$3000–$4000	4.0	2.4	2.9	5.1
$4000–$5000	1.4	.7	1.1	1.7
$5000–$10,000	1.7	.9	1.6	2.1
$10,000 and over	1.0	.3	.7	1.3
All nonrelief families	84.7	91.1	80.7	83.5
All families	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

that they cannot accumulate savings sufficient to provide for human needs and then meet the emergencies of sickness, death within the family, unemployment, old age, and invalidism, without partial or complete dependence upon others. They can save but little to protect them against economic hazards and insecurity.

A study of family expenditures, published in 1941 by the National Resources Board,[1] gives the distribution of families by income status in 1935–36 as on page 325.

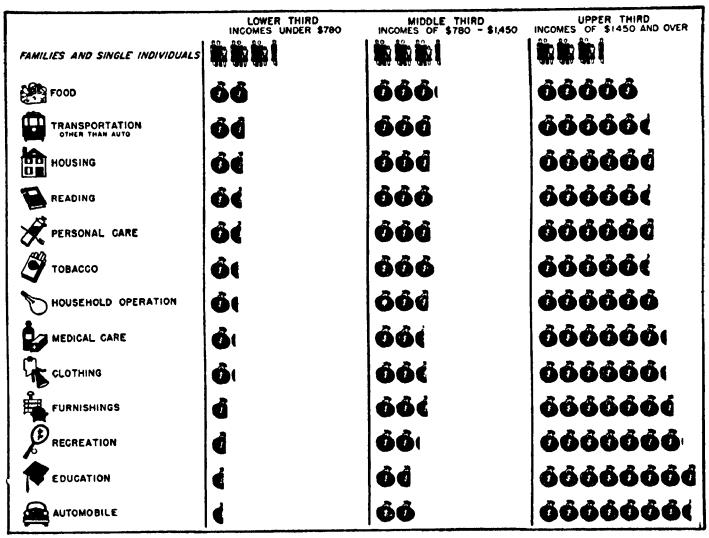
During the last several years, various forms of public assistance, provided on a cooperative basis between the various units of government and the federal public works program, have come to the assistance of millions of low income families.

In a recent year, 2,038,440 persons were receiving old age assistance, 71,193 aid to the blind, and 646,801 children in 255,674 families were receiving aid to dependent children. At the same time, 1,574,621 persons were on work relief projects under the supervision of the Works Progress Administration. These figures do not include thousands of persons being cared for by local general relief agencies and, of course, give us no picture of the thousands of families who live at a subsistence level and who are not registered on the rolls of any public or private relief agency.

It is obvious, then, from the above citations, that poverty, during normal times, is a problem of serious moment. Then when periods of depression come, those normally belonging to the poor class are the first to feel the pinch of economic necessity and their standards of living recede farther and farther toward the zero point. Let us now turn our attention to the causes of poverty.

[1] National Resources Board, *Family Expenditures in the United States*, Washington, D. C., June, 1941, p. 7.

(How many dependent persons in your community or county? What proportion of the population of your city or county belong to the wealthy class? The middle class? The poor class? Is true wealth measurable only in terms of money?)



How Families of Different Incomes Spend Their Money

Some Important Causes of Poverty.[1] — Without going into a lengthy discussion of the causes of poverty, we may group the major causes as follows:

1. Insufficient production, caused by:
   a. Unfavorable climatic conditions, as droughts, short seasons, and the like.
   b. Catastrophes, as floods, tornadoes, and earthquakes.
   c. Infertility and nonproductiveness of land resources.
   d. Lack of machinery for agricultural and industrial production.

[1] The wise teacher should not expect students to memorize this extended list of items. It is presented to show the inclusiveness of the causes of poverty, a detailed discussion of each cause not being possible in the text.

e. Lack of application and use of scientific methods in the utilization of natural wealth.

f. An inadequate land supply, resulting in land resources too inadequate to produce an adequate supply of food and a sufficient income for those who live on the land.

(What countries of the world would you say suffer from insufficient production? What sections of the United States suffer from lack of sufficient production?)

2. Incapacity and other individual causes, due to:
   a. Low mentality, affecting 10 to 15 per cent of our population.
   b. Lack of sufficient and adequate education.
   c. Lack of native ability and acquired skill, necessary to compete effectively in a competitive society.
   d. Lack of initiative, shiftlessness, and laziness.
   e. Sickness, producing, according to some estimates, as much as one fourth of all poverty.
   f. Death of the breadwinner or desertion of the breadwinner, leading to broken homes with an accompanying insecurity for the members.
   g. Insecure old age and invalidism due to old age.

Committee on Economic Security

PHYSICAL HANDICAPS

Handicaps like this are common causes of poverty.

3. Economic or social causes:
   a. Low wages and wage scales that have lagged behind rapidly increasing standards and costs of living.
   b. Concentration or polarization of wealth into the hands of the few.

c. War, and the after-effects of war, as, for example, the World War, which cost directly about two hundred billion dollars and the Second World War, which bids fair to cost even more.
d. Political exploitation and corruption in government.
e. Poor housing, which is likely to contribute as much as anything to poverty of ideals.
f. Unwise charity, which causes people to depend upon and rely upon charity.
g. Unemployment.[1]
h. Unemployability, due to physical incapacity, mental deficiency, old age, and the like.
i. Fraudulent and deceptive business practices.
j. Overpopulation, which is limited largely to the Eastern world and which, in many countries, is the result of incomplete development of natural and industrial resources.

(Make an inventory of the causes of poverty in your community, city, or county. How does unwise charity cause poverty? List in parallel columns the causes of poverty today in comparison with the causes of fifty years ago.)

Relation of Poverty to Other Social Problems. — Poverty is not only a serious social problem within itself, but it is also a cause of other social disturbances. Poverty, without a doubt, breeds sickness, juvenile crimes, adult crime, vice, ignorance, and the general unhappiness of those who have to live in the squalor of it.

Again, statistical evidence is gradually pointing the way to the extent which poverty contributes to other social problems. For instance, a study based on a canvass of 2,308,588 persons in 81 cities in 1935–36, during the national health survey by the United States Public Health Service, revealed the following significant relationship between income and acute and chronic illness:

[1] For a more extended treatment of the effects of unemployment, see the chapter dealing with this problem.

TABLE XLII. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ILLNESS AND INCOME [1]

Ill Persons	Number of Illnesses for Each 1000 Persons during One Year		Number of Days in One Year That Each Ill Person Was Disabled	
	Acute	Chronic	Acute	Chronic
In families on relief . . .	163	71	4.4	11.9
In families with incomes of:				
Below $1000	119	54	3.1	8.6
$1000–$2000	117	38	2.8	4.8
$2000–$3000	113	37	2.8	4.3
$3000 and over	111	38	2.8	3.9
All groups (average) . . .	124	48	3.2	6.6

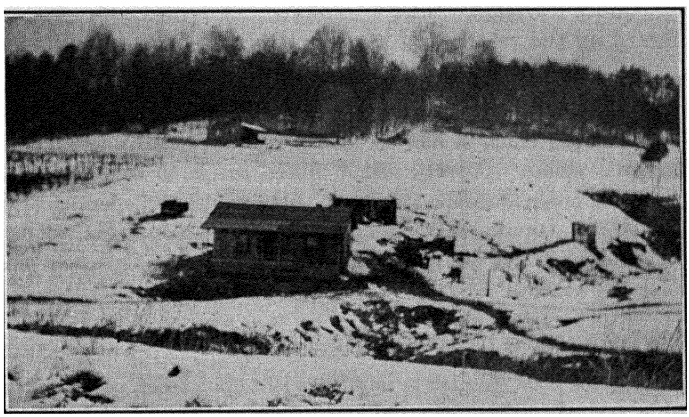
Much evidence exists to show that there is a close relation between mortality rates and economic status, mortality rates being high among families of low economic status. Especially is the infant death rate much higher among the lower income families.

Although there is not complete agreement among nutritionists and child development experts as to the relation between income and nutrition and between income and physical development, there is a good deal of evidence that malnutrition and lack of proper physical development often accompany poverty.[2] This is not to say, however, that all persons in poverty are underdeveloped or suffer from malnutrition. Neither is it to say that all persons in families of substantial incomes are properly nourished or show normal physical development.

[1] National Resources Planning Board, *Our National Resources: Facts and Problems*, Washington, D. C., 1940, p. 32.

[2] For an interesting discussion of this problem, see Bossard, James H. S., *op. cit.*, pp. 144–146.

Poverty also retards mental development in that children are often kept away from school because their families cannot provide them with books, clothing, or food. Many pupils have to leave school at the close of the elementary school period, because their parents cannot pay their expenses in secondary school. Many high school graduates should continue their education in college, and would like to do so, but their families do not have sufficient income to defray their expenses. The



A Stranded Population

In this case a timbered-out area is responsible for the remnant population.

incomes of many families are depleted for food, clothing, and shelter; consequently, sufficient funds do not remain for magazines, newspapers, books, and other facilities necessary for educational advancement.

Professor Bossard believes that there is a close relationship between mental health and income. He also believes that our attitude toward others is greatly influenced by income. Regarding the latter, he says:

It is apparent to begin with, that the inability to meet the standard of living of one's group leads in the case of many persons to a process of ra-

tionalization which minimizes or negates entirely the desirability of maintaining its standards. Just as the student who cannot pass a course attempts to retain his self-esteem by denying its worth, so the individual who cannot live as well as his fellows is prone, for like reasons, to reject the propriety of their standards. Ultimately, there may crystallize out of such sequence of thought, either the resignation of despair or an inciting sense of resentment against the injustices of life. Neither is desirable; both lead to unwelcome consequences. The former is apt to result in that lack of application which spells defeat; the latter to incite to that misdirection of energy which means crime.[1]

Regarding the relation of poverty to crime, Sutherland says:

Poverty, together with the display of wealth in shop windows, streets, and picture shows, generally means envy and hatred of the rich and the feeling of missing much in life, because of the lack of satisfaction of the fundamental wishes. Poverty seldom forces people to steal or become prostitutes in order to escape starvation. It produces its effect most frequently on the attitudes, rather than on the organism, but it is surprising how many poor people are not made delinquents rather than how many are made delinquents.[2]

As has been stated by the Fords,

For all of the poor, whether or not dependent upon relief, poverty means hardship. If relieved in time, the diet though meagre may be sufficient; but undernourishment is common. Restricted income means that clothing, furniture and utensils cannot be replenished when they wear out. Many suffer seriously from inappropriate or insufficient clothing during the winter season. In cities their homes generally consist of one, two, or three rooms, of which only one is heated even in the winter months, in the oldest and least sanitary tenements or shacks of their community. Life ordinarily lacks comfort and even privacy; for among the chronic poor several persons must often sleep in the same room or even in one bed. Life is lived in constant fear of hunger, of eviction, of the almshouse and the pauper's grave. In rural regions many of the dangers may be accentuated because of the unavailability of organized relief. In both city and country years

[1] Bossard, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

[2] Sutherland, E. H., *Criminology*, J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1924 (Revised Edition, 1934), p. 169.

of poverty may break health and spirits, and so handicap the growing child in physique, training and attitudes that normal life and happiness may be rendered unattainable.[1]

The preceding discussion shows clearly the relation of poverty to other social problems. If poverty could be eliminated, at the same time a multitude of other social problems would be reduced. From the time an individual is born until he dies, his status and well-being are greatly affected by the economic status in which he finds himself.

(Make a careful survey of your community to determine what other social problems are due to poverty. Present this for class discussion.)

The Treatment and Prevention of Poverty. — As has been pointed out by the Fords,[2] four principles are at the present time stressed in the treatment of poverty. These principles are:

1. The *principle of individualization* in determining causes.
2. The *principle of cooperation,* not only between the client and the treatment agency, but also between the various treatment agencies.
3. The *principle of adequacy* in an attempt to adjust the family or individual to a wholesome standard of living.
4. The *principle of rehabilitation,* with its emphasis upon the self support of the individual or family who is under treatment.

Even though the above principles are well recognized procedures in social case work and in rehabilitation procedures, many agencies do not follow them, and, besides, there are many people who take the viewpoint that poverty cannot be materially reduced, much less eliminated. They base their belief on the fact that poverty is an age-old problem. Such people, however, overlook the fact that poverty has been greatly reduced in some countries within the period of the last one hundred years. The

[1] Ford and Ford, *op. cit.*, 1937, pp. 2–3.
[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 14–15, 1937.

little country of Denmark, through co-operation, hard work, and the application of science to agriculture, virtually eliminated poverty. Switzerland has accomplished the same goal, under the most unfavorable geographical factors. In speaking of a village in Denmark, Terpenning says:

FARMING IN THE SOUTH *Charles Krutch*

In the south the Negro farmer is beginning to neglect the single-crop system of cotton farming for a more diversified system of agriculture. Such a system of diversified farming should greatly protect the Negro race against the hazards of poverty.

There is not a house in the village which has a poverty-stricken appearance on the outside. Whether roofed with thatch or tile, on a large holding or on a small one, they are in good repair and show evidence of some effort at beautification. I saw at least a dozen from the inside, and found the interiors most pleasant and spotlessly clean. In the home in which I found lodgings, I counted forty-one framed pictures in three rooms, six of these being oil paintings.[1]

[1] Terpenning, Walter A., *Village and Open-Country Neighborhoods*, Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1931, p. 326.

Elsewhere, Terpenning remarks, "Almost every student is impressed with the absence of invidious class distinctions and extremes of demoralizing wealth and poverty in Denmark." [1]

Many recommendations have been made for the prevention and elimination of poverty in the United States. A small minority of American citizens have pointed out that the unequal distribution of wealth in the United States is too great for either individual or social welfare. These same persons have indicated that no small amount of poverty is due to the gross inequalities of the distribution of wealth. They, in turn, have urged reforms in the redistribution of wealth through heavy taxes upon incomes and inheritances.

Most socially-minded persons point to the need for a minimum wage system in the United States as a method of preventing and treating poverty. Such a wage system would be standardized as to minimum on the basis of the income necessary to keep a typical family on a health and decency plane of living. Not only would such a wage system raise materially the incomes of millions of workers, but it would prevent much cut-throat competition in the industrial and economic field by standardizing to a degree the cost of production. Minimum wages based on a health and decency plane of living also would greatly increase the productiveness and morale of workers. The experience with minimum wages for workers in many quarters bears out this conclusion.

An adequate and accessible system of public education extending from the kindergarten through college is necessary before poverty will be reduced to the minimum in the United States. Nothing equips the individual to master the emergencies of life and to keep himself above the level of mental and economic poverty as much as an effective education.

The United States must continue in its attempt to resettle

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 351.

stranded populations and to remove peoples from sections where they cannot possibly make a good living, before poverty can be reduced in rural areas. To aid people to help themselves is the philosophy underlying such resettlement projects.

In order to conserve its natural resources for the future and, accordingly, to prevent poverty in the future, the United States must increasingly look forward to conserving its natural resources in the years to come. To this end, the conservation of oils, gases, minerals, soils, timber, water power, and plant and animal life must progressively continue.

The protection of the investor and the consumer against fraudulent practices and bogus investments of one type and another is a service which both state and federal governments must continue to give if poverty resulting from fraud, bad investments, and the like is to be prevented.

The mentally deficient and mental defectives seldom maintain themselves above the poverty level. To prevent these classes from reproducing additional deficient and defective persons is an adequate step in reducing poverty.

There will always be need for old-age pensions, aid to dependent and neglected children, unemployment compensation, compensation for industrial accidents, mothers' aid pensions, aid to the blind and other groups who cannot successfully make their own way in a competitive world.

(Study and evaluate the methods for caring for the poor in your state. Evaluate the almshouse as an institution for caring for the poor. In what way will the conservation of natural resources aid in preventing poverty? What attempts have been made to resettle stranded populations in the United States?)

Conclusion. — There is no problem which deserves the clear thinking of an intelligent citizenry more than does the problem of eliminating, or at least decreasing, poverty in the ranks of mankind. Most of the suggested remedial measures have

failed, because they advocated tackling the problem from one angle. Poverty is a problem so great and so complex that it must be attacked from many angles. Some of these approaches, if intelligently carried out, will reduce the blighting effects of poverty among all the races of mankind.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. How the poor were cared for in ancient times.
2. How the poor were cared for in medieval society.
3. How the poor were cared for in eighteenth and nineteenth century England.
4. Studies of theories of how to prevent poverty.
5. How Denmark has reduced poverty in the last hundred years.
6. The need for social security in the United States.
7. Prepare an essay on "How I Would Eliminate Poverty in My Ideal State."
8. The relationship of poverty to other social problems.
9. How poverty is prevented in my community.
10. How poverty is treated in my community.

VOCABULARY STUDY

marginal	income	unemployability	normal
subsistence	poverty	mortality	pauper
morbidity	luxury	nutritionist	sequence
aggregate	polarization	pension	unemployment
malnutrition	blighting	demoralizing	rehabilitation

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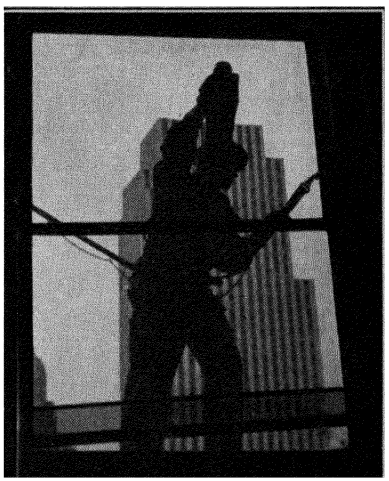
CHAPTER XVII

UNEMPLOYMENT

The Essentiality of Work. — Those of us who work often feel that our jobs are difficult, that the labor we do is more or less drudgery, and that the grass is greener in other occupational fields. When, however, these same people are thrown out of work they are anxious to get back to the job they formerly considered a drudgery.



SOCIAL ASSETS

Men at work, earning incomes and rendering services, are social assets of the highest order.

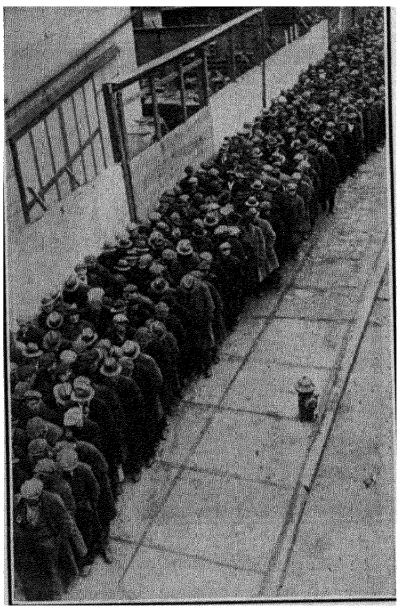
Three aspects of work are important. In the first place, the *income* from work is important; secondly, the *services rendered* by men-at-work are a social necessity; and, thirdly, the *activity*, or the mere fact of being busy or having one's time occupied, is necessary for individual well-being. Regarding the value of work, Ralph Flanders says:

> Steady work in itself is more of a satisfaction than most people would believe who have never tried it. And this is true even when the work would appear to an onlooker to be monotonous and uninspiring. The satisfactions of function and of objective achievement are real, effective, and widespread.[1]

[1] Flanders, Ralph E., *Taming Our Machines*, Richard R. Smith, New York, 1931, p. 211.

(Make a study of why people prefer to be employed. Which jobs in your community would you consider to be most necessary or most foundational? From unemployed persons, obtain opinions as to why they would prefer to be at work.)

Unemployment and Unemployability. — Unemployment is hard to define. In a broad, general sense a man is unemployed when he is out of work or when his time is not occupied. More technically, when a man is capable of work, is willing to work, is available for work, but has no work, he is said to be *unemployed.* This is substantially the same definition as that used by English employment offices.



Acme Newspictures

SOCIAL LIABILITIES

These unemployed are waiting outside a municipal lodging house in one of our eastern cities on a cold winter day.

When a person is available for work and work is available, but he cannot work because of age, physical disability, or some other handicap or industrial restriction, he may be said to be an *unemployable.* It is not always easy to differentiate between the two, particularly the border-line cases. Unemployment is usually more of a temporary state of being than is unemployability, which is sometimes pretty nearly permanent.

(Indicate the chief types of unemployables in your community. How should the methods of treating unemployment and unemploy-

ability differ? Is unemployability likely to increase or decrease in America? Why?)

The Volume of Unemployment. — As early as 1920 unemployment in the United States embraced 1,401,000 individuals. Three years later there were 1,532,000 unemployed persons. By 1926 the number had increased to 1,669,000 and by 1929, to 1,800,000 persons.

Beginning with the depression which started in 1930, unemployment reached 4,500,000 and increased to a peak of 12,000,000 in 1932 and 1933, decreased to 10,000,000 in 1934, and then declined to 8,282,000 in 1937, increasing again to about 9,000,000 in 1939.

The latest national census of unemployed was conducted during the week of March 24–30, 1940. The returns from the census indicated 7,490,332 unemployed. This figure is obtained by adding 5,110,270 persons reported in the census as seeking

TABLE XLIII. EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES, MARCH 24–30, 1940[1]

Total persons 14 years old and over	100,972,196
In the labor force	52,840,762
Employed (except on public emergency work)	45,350,430
At work	44,049,743
With a job	1,300,687
On public emergency work (WPA, NYA, CCC, etc.)	2,380,062
Seeking work	5,110,270
Not in the labor force	48,131,434
Engaged in own home housework	28,838,484
In school	9,070,986
Unable to work	5,220,098
In institutions	1,226,374
Other	1,986,348
Unknown	1,789,144

[1] *Unemployment in the United States*, March 24–30, 1940, Press Release of the Bureau of the Census, April 25, 1941.

work and 2,380,062 persons on the payrolls of Federal agencies conducting public emergency work programs, excluding students on the National Youth Administration student work program.

The table on page 341 indicates the employment status of persons 14 years of age and over in the United States as of March, 1940.

(If there is an employment office in your community, visit it to ascertain the unemployment problems in your community as well as the way in which the employment office functions. Make a study of the characteristics of the unemployed of your community. Why is it a grave problem when a man is out of work?)

TABLE XLIV. EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF PERSONS 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE LABOR FORCE, FOR THE UNITED STATES, URBAN AND RURAL: MARCH 24–30, 1940 [1]

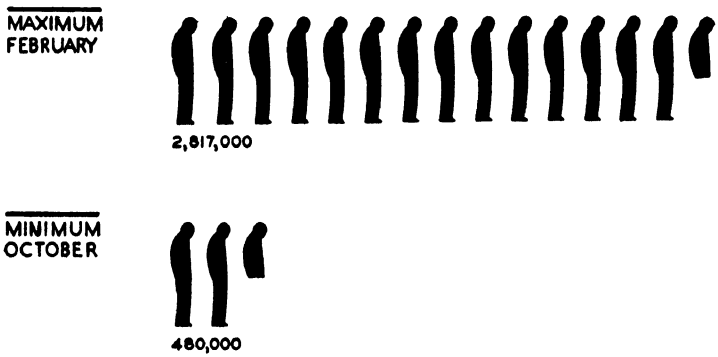
Area	In the Labor Force				Total
	Total	Employed (except public emergency work)	On public emergency work (WPA, NYA, CCC, etc.)	Seeking work	
United States . .	52,840,762	45,350,430	2,380,062	5,110,270	100.0
Urban . . .	32,613,234	27,666,402	1,338,919	3,607,913	61.7
Rural-nonfarm	9,719,014	8,026,100	657,715	1,035,199	18.4
Rural-farm . .	10,508,514	9,657,928	383,428	467,158	19.9

Types of Unemployment. — There are several types of unemployment and many suggestions for relieving each type.

1. *Seasonal unemployment,* resulting from seasonal fluctuations in production and demand. Among the suggested measures for attacking this problem are: (1) planned production, extending production over a twelve-months period; (2) "fillers" for slack seasons, as the coal and ice industrial combination; (3) decentralization of industry, allowing people to fall back

[1] Bureau of the Census, Release, April 4, 1941.

upon the land, which they would live on during slack seasons; and (4) minimum living wages, which permit persons to save enough to tide them over short periods of unemployment; and (5) unemployment compensation or insurance.



FLUCTUATION IN UNEMPLOYMENT

Each figure represents 200,000 unemployed in all industries during the prosperous year of 1929.

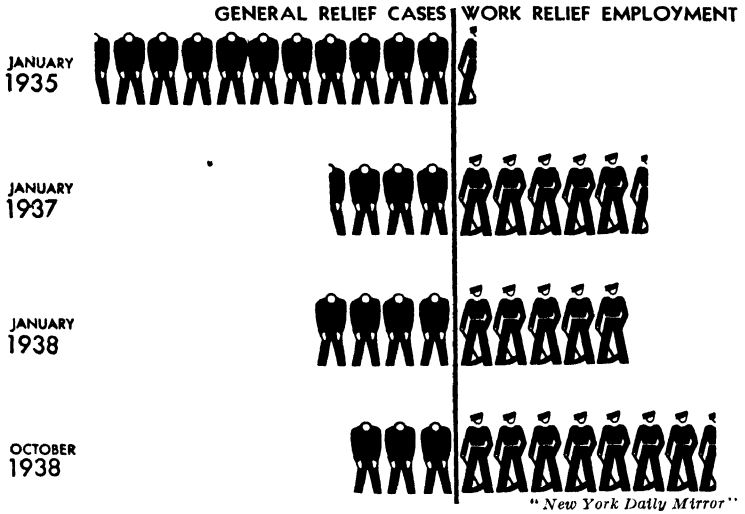
Even during prosperous years, there are certain seasons out of the year when unemployment is much greater than during other seasons. This leads to the whole problem of seasonal unemployment, as is indicated by the accompanying figure.

The following data indicate the fluctuations in major industries during certain months in 1929: [1]

Industry	*Variations in Employment*
Automobile manufacture	May, 24 per cent more than in December
Women's clothing	March, 35 per cent more than in July
Ice cream making	July, 41 per cent more than in January
Stoves and furnaces	March, 43 per cent more than in June
Millinery	April, 65 per cent more than in July
Fertilizer	April, 137 per cent more than in June
Building construction	July, 13 per cent more than in March

[1] *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, November, 1930. Quoted in Anderson, H. Dewey, and Davidson, E. Percy, *Occupational Trends*, Stanford University Press, Stanford, Cal., 1940, p. 5.

2. *Cyclical unemployment,* resulting from depression periods in the business cycle. Suggested measures for attacking this type of unemployment are: (1) setting aside part of the profits of the company as an unemployment reserve; (2) unemployment compensation, either state or nationally administered; (3) control of securities, thus preventing excessive speculation in securities, particularly those which are worthless and do not



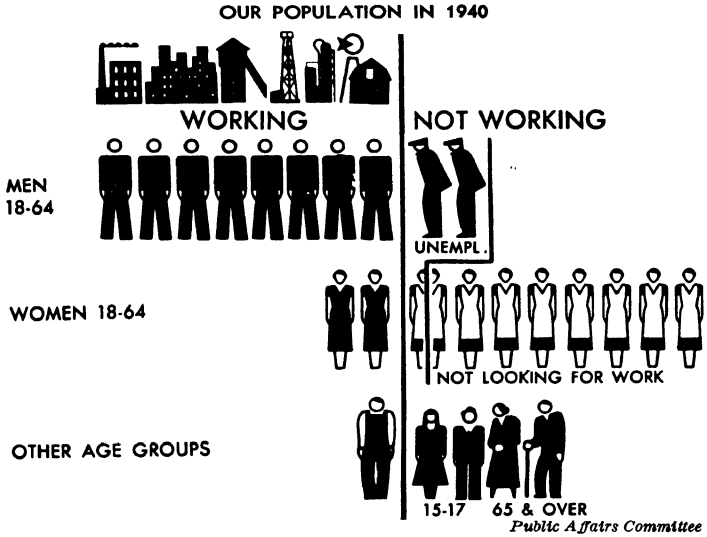
RELIEF RECORD

Each symbol represents 500,000 persons on relief.

conform to blue-sky laws; (4) decentralization of industry, with many of the workers living on the land; (5) a planned system of public works which would allocate the major portion of public works projects to depression periods; (6) public relief for the unemployed; (7) the governmental control of money and credit; and (8) more accurate business forecasting.

3. *Technological unemployment,* resulting from the replacement of men by machines, or the conversion of industries from peace time to a war time basis. In consideration of this type of

unemployment, we must not overlook the fact that the improvement of technological processes and the invention of machines have furnished new jobs for workers. Probably the government should forbid or control the use of a machine which would displace thousands of men; but we should not "junk" our machines or curb invention. The challenge is how to use our machines for the greatest advancement of the public welfare.



EMPLOYED AND UNEMPLOYED
Each symbol represents 4,000,000 persons.

4. *Consolidation unemployment,* resulting from the consolidation or merging of industrial or commercial establishments. Usually some workers are displaced when such mergers are made.

5. Unemployment resulting from the *decay of industries.* Some industries have had to close their plants because their products are no longer needed. Many mined-out [1] or lumbered-out areas have left thousands of stranded people either unem-

[1] See Morris, Joseph H., *The Plight of the Bituminous Coal Miner,* University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1934.

ployed or with very little to live on. The rebuilding of new industries to replace the dead or dying ones and the removal of stranded population groups to areas which afford industrial or agricultural employment are necessary.

6. *Unemployment resulting from industrial disputes.* Probably the only solution to this problem even in peace time may be a national law requiring all disputes to be submitted to a tribunal for arbitration.

7. *Efficiency unemployment,* resulting from the application of efficiency methods to production, as the speeding up of output per worker, piece-work rates, bonus systems, and the like. These in particular eliminate many aged workers.

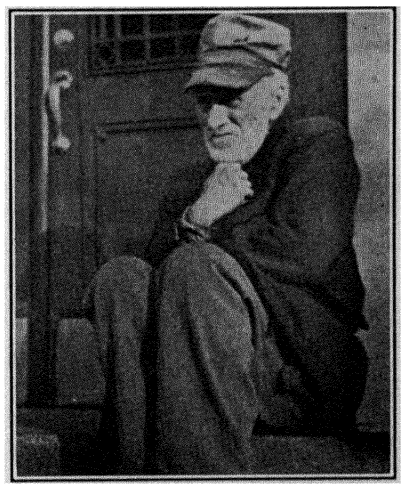
8. *Unemployment resulting from the absence of contact with jobs,* particularly during normal times. Many people do not know how to contact a job. Until the depression we, in the United States, did not give much attention to employment offices. Under the National Social Security Act, such offices were established under the general supervision of the United States Department of Labor.

9. *Unemployability,* which is the result of old age, maximum age restriction, or physical and mental handicaps. Old-age pensions, projects for the handicapped, and institutions for the handicapped are suggested methods of treating unemployability. Health preservation in youth and middle age, educational training, life insurance, and savings should certainly guard against the contributory causes of unemployability.

Illness is an important cause of unemployability. In this connection the U. S. Public Health Services made a national health study in the winter of 1935. They found that:

> Six million people in the United States are unable to work, attend school, or pursue other usual activities each day during the winter months on account of illness, injury, or gross physical impairment resulting from disease or accident.

Unemployment among middle and upper age groups is a fact. The legislature of the State of New York in 1938 and 1939 made a rather extensive investigation of why middle-aged persons are discriminated against in employment, thus tending automatically to class many middle-aged persons as unemployables. Twenty-one causes of discrimination in the employment of middle-aged persons are given, many of which are not supported by the facts, as the investigating body points out.[1]



Committee on Economic Security

THE HANDICAP OF OLD AGE

Old age is a major cause of unemployability.

1. Increased rates of compensation insurance.
2. Middle-aged men subject to higher accident rate.
3. Middle-aged men more susceptible to vocational diseases.
4. Insurance companies urge employment of younger men.
5. Increased rates of group insurance.
6. Increased rates for employers under own pension plans.
7. Physical unfitness in middle-aged.
8. Refusal of employers to hire men suffering from minor disabilities by reason of increased compensation insurance hazard.

[1] *Preliminary Report* of Joint Legislative Committee on Discrimination in Employment of the Middle Aged, Legislative Document (1938) No. 75, State of New York, J. B. Lyon Company, Albany, New York, 1938. There is also a 1939 report by the same body.

9. Speed up in industry.

10. Displacement of middle-aged by modern machinery.

11. Industry's preference for younger men who can be hired more cheaply and trained more readily.

12. Middle-aged less efficient than younger men.

13. Public demand for younger people in some occupations, such as waitresses, clerks, stenographers, and office workers.

14. Middle-aged lacking in present educational requirements.

15. Unemployables due to loss of skill in particular occupations, due to lay-offs during depression years.

16. Lack of skilled tradesmen in middle-aged groups.

17. Skilled tradesmen eliminated by different and more efficient methods of manufacture.

18. Skilled tradesmen eliminated by industries going out of business due to change in styles and modes.

19. Industry's failure to train employees for middle-age usefulness.

20. Discrimination practiced by municipal, state, and federal civil services.

21. Relief clients discriminated against.

(Very carefully evaluate the validity of each of the preceding items. What possibilities does decentralized industry offer for preventing unemployment or reducing the ill effects of unemployment? Is there, or is there not, a problem of technological unemployment? What are the main characteristics of the unemployment provisions of the Social Security Act?)

Some Individual and Social Effects of Unemployment. — Some of the effects of unemployment, particularly if it is prolonged, may be listed as follows:

1. The search for a new job is usually the first problem which the unemployed person faces and the first thing he undertakes after losing his job.

2. The loss of status as a skilled laborer by having to accept work in the unskilled labor group. It is claimed that during the depression from 1930–1939 as many as 50 per cent of skilled laborers had to accept unskilled labor jobs.

3. The depletion of cash reserves or savings.

4. The loss of homes.

Courtesy Memphis "Press-Scimitar"

VICTIMS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

5. The overcrowding of homes, necessitated by families having to "double-up" in order to "weather the depression."

6. The loss of individual and family purchasing power, which is significant from both a national, individual, and community standpoint. The drop in national income between 1929 and 1932, occasioned by unemployment would have bought 54 million new automobiles or about two cars for every family in the nation.

It is estimated, also, that the loss in national income from 1929 to 1937, due to idleness of men and machines, was 200 billion dollars.

7. Inadequate medical and dental treatment, due to lack of funds for such treatment.

8. Increased manufacturing costs due to curtailed production.

9. The sweating of laborers in an attempt to produce articles to sell at bargain prices.

10. Resentment and the development of anti-social attitudes, because of the inability to find work, even though willing to work.

11. Malnutrition and general detriment to health, of both children and adults.

12. The slipping back of standards of living.

13. The increase of crime, particularly crimes against property.

14. Silent suffering by those out of work who are unwilling to seek or accept relief.

15. Increase of relief and the expansion of relief agencies to cope with increasing case loads.

16. Remedial legislation in an attempt to prevent unemployment and to facilitate the handling of relief funds.

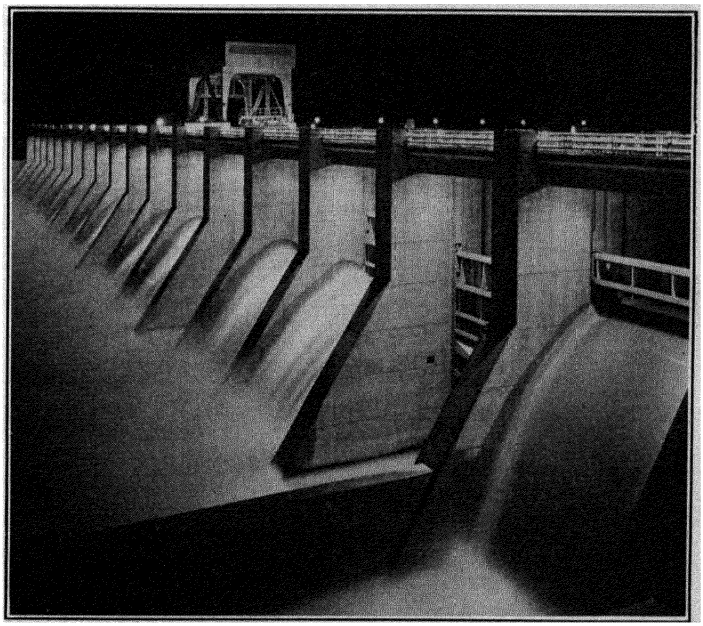
17. Unemployability, resulting from being thrown out of work for a number of years and the fact that some persons would rather be on relief than work.

For other effects of unemployment upon men and their families, we may turn to certain writers who have studied the problem seriously. One writer relates how

> when the day's "work" becomes a search for work, the whole manner of life changes. It is not merely that the income is reduced and has to be got from other sources, nor that it is impossible to live at the old standards and even difficult to keep the home together. These are big changes calling for drastic alterations. But no less important are the changes that in-

evitably occur in a man's relation with others, in the home, in the community, in religious life, in the use of leisure time.[1]

The effects of unemployment upon the social order as a whole are presented vividly by another writer, who says:



Tennessee Valley Authority

CHICKAMAUGA DAM AT NIGHT

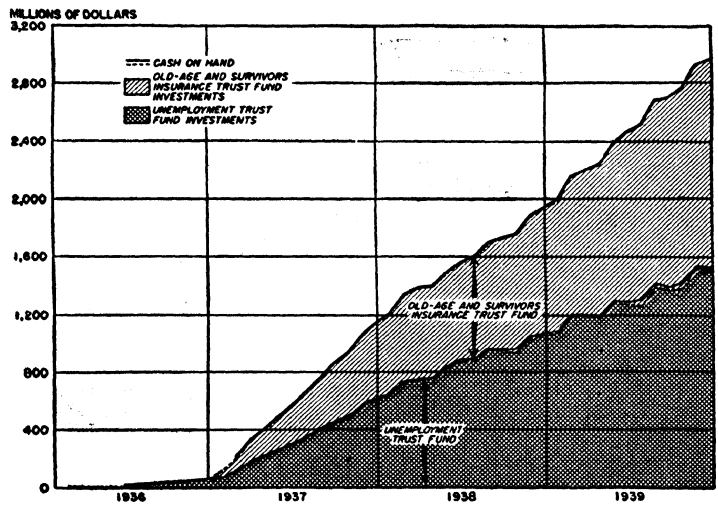
The many dams constructed by the Tennessee Valley Authority furnished employment to thousands of workmen.

Unemployment is not merely an industrial disturbance; it is a social phenomenon. It touches everybody — not only the employees of rich and substantial corporations who happen to be laid off. It pulls down sales and incomes and values of every description, even those far away from the point of origin. The former employer of a jobless man may have been employed by the Standard Oil Company, or, on the other hand, he may

[1] Bakke, E. Wight, *The Unemployed Man*, E. P. Dutton and Co., New York, 1934, p. 48.

have been employed by some poor little tailor who was always hard put to it to pay his rent. That should make no difference. In either case the man is out of work, and the impact on the social order is the same in either case.[1]

(In parallel columns, list the good and bad effects of unemployment. Prepare an essay on "The Human Cost of a Bargain." What are the good and bad effects of relief? How do you believe relief should be administered?)



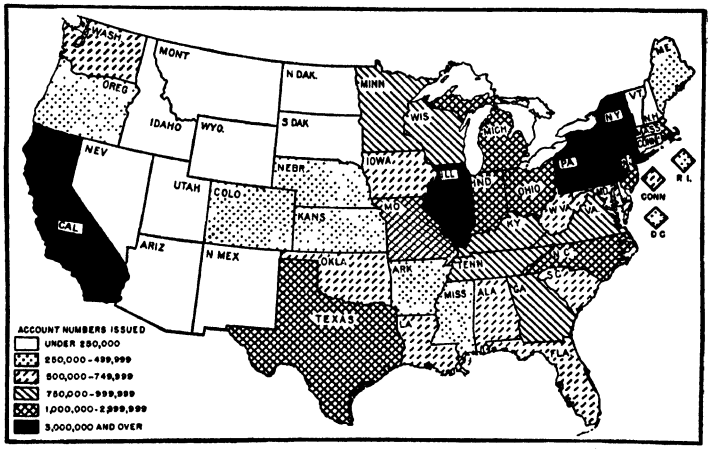
Source: Daily Statement of the U. S. Treasury

SOCIAL SECURITY TRUST FUNDS

Unemployment Insurance. — In 1935 Congress passed the far-reaching Social Security Act, which provided not only a federal tax for unemployment insurance, a tax which could be partially offset by a state tax for the same purpose, but also a framework by which the states could set up unemployment insurance schemes, subject, of course, to certain federal restrictions.

[1] Elbert, Robert G., *Unemployment and Relief*, Farrar and Rinehart, New York, 1934, p. 22.

The various unemployment schemes as they operate provide for a payroll tax shared by employer and employee, and collected from employers. Most of these funds go into an unemployment reserve account, which is held in the Federal Treasury in the name of the state. This money is released to the state on the basis of need to meet unemployment claims. The cost of administering the system is borne by the Federal Government. What the scheme amounts to



Social Security Board

EMPLOYEE ACCOUNTS

is a federal-state system of unemployment insurance. The graph on the opposite page shows how the unemployment trust funds have increased.

By December 31, 1939, 47.7 million employee unemployment compensation account numbers had been established in the offices of the Social Security Agency in Baltimore. The above map shows the distribution of these accounts by states.

The size of weekly unemployment benefit payments may be roughly indicated by the graph on page 355. The size

of these payments varies from quarter to quarter, but the range of fluctuation is not far from the trends indicated in the following data for the last quarter of 1939:

TABLE XLV. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF BENEFIT PAYMENTS FOR TOTAL EMPLOYMENT, BY SIZE OF BENEFIT CHECK, UNITED STATES, OCTOBER–DECEMBER, 1939 [1]

Amount of Check	Per Cent
Less than $2.00	0.2
$ 2.00–$ 3.99	1.8
4.00– 5.99	8.2
6.00– 7.99	17.9
8.00– 9.99	15.7
10.00– 11.99	13.9
12.00– 13.99	10.9
14.00– 15.99	25.4
16.00 and over	6.0

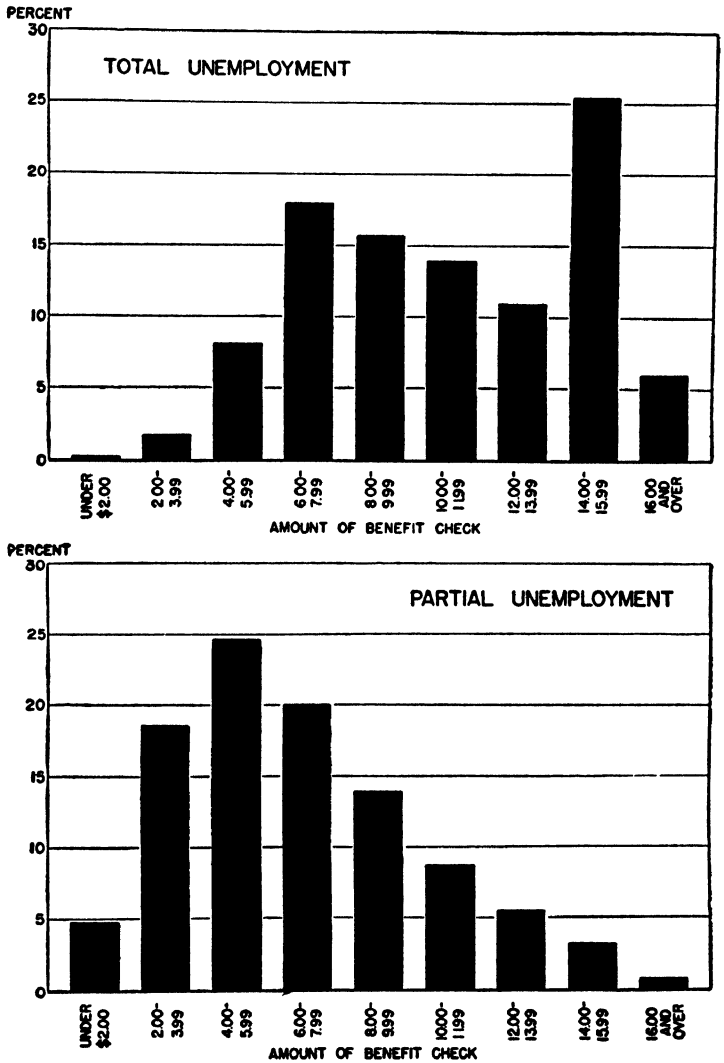
Employment Offices. — The states and the Federal Government in co-operation maintain throughout the United States a system of employment offices.

An examination of the active files of the employment offices in April, 1940, disclosed that 5.1 million persons were then seeking work through these offices. Of this number 3.8 millions were men and 1.3 millions women. About one fourth of the active registrants were under 25 years of age; about one half between the ages of 25 and 44 years; and one fourth were 45 years of age or over.

A further analysis of the active registrants in these offices in 1940 disclosed that the skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled groups were about equally represented, with about one million registrants each. In addition, there were some 657,000 persons

[1] *Social Security Bulletin*, Vol. 3, p. 41, February, 1940.

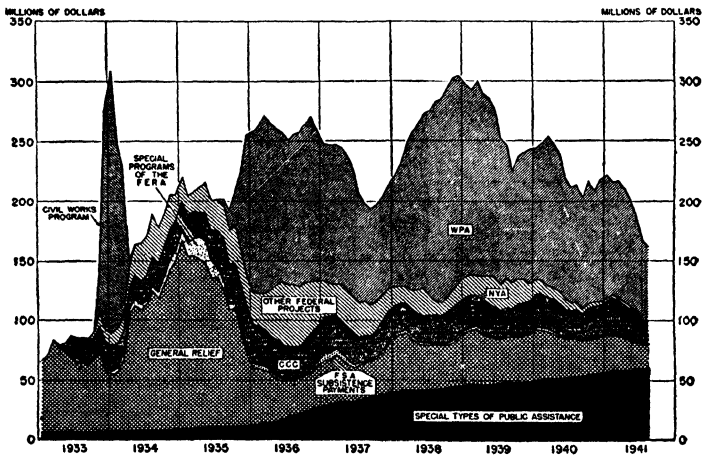
classified as clerical and sales workers, 625,000 service workers, 443,000 workers in agriculture, forestry, or fishing, 169,000



COMPENSATION FOR UNEMPLOYMENT

classified for professional or managerial positions, and 144,000 with no recent work experience.[1]

(What are the characteristics of the unemployed of your community? Visit the employment office of your locality and study its organization and services.)



This graph shows the earnings of persons employed on Federal projects from January, 1933 to August, 1941

Federal Works Projects. — Beginning with the depression in 1930, the Federal Government instituted a series of work projects and works services. Between that time and the present, various organizations, including the Civil Works Administration, the National Youth Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the Works Progress Administration, have been set up to supervise public works programs. In 1940, 2,380,062 persons were employed on such projects.

As an indication of the work accomplished by one of these

[1] Social Security Board, *Fifth Annual Report, 1940*, pp. 73–74.

agencies, during the three-year period ending July 1, 1938, W.P.A. workers built:[1]

17,562 new public buildings,
279,804 miles of highways, roads, and streets,
22,247 miles of new roadside drainage ditches,
29,084 new bridges,
357 airports and landing fields,
15,000 parks, playgrounds, and athletic fields,
11,600 swimming and wading pools,
6,086 miles of new water mains,
4,091 storage dams,
8,855 miles of storm and sanitary sewers.

(Critically evaluate the work of the W.P.A. in your community. Give the arguments for and against a permanent public works agency.

What are the arguments for and against unemployment insurance? Make a report on the Wisconsin Unemployment Insurance Plan. Study in detail the Wagner Bill, often called the National Security Bill. If your state has an unemployment insurance plan, study it.)

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Causes of unemployment during normal times.
2. Occupational and industrial fields in which unemployment risks are greatest.
3. Case studies of the effect of unemployment.
4. Unemployment insurance in Great Britain.
5. The unemployment insurance system of my state.
6. The unemployment insurance plan provided for in the National Security Act.
7. Debate: "Resolved, That work relief for the unemployed is superior to direct relief."
8. Unemployment in other countries.
9. How to minimize unemployment.
10. The adjustments we made when unemployment struck my family.
11. Causes of unemployability in your community.
12. What may be done to reduce unemployability?

[1] Federal Works Agency, *Facts About Unemployment*, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1940, p. 16.

VOCABULARY STUDY

custodian	arbitration	chronic
decentralization	alleviate	unemployability
technological	depletion	compensation

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CHAPTER XVIII

OTHER PROBLEMS OF OUR INDUSTRIAL CIVILIZATION

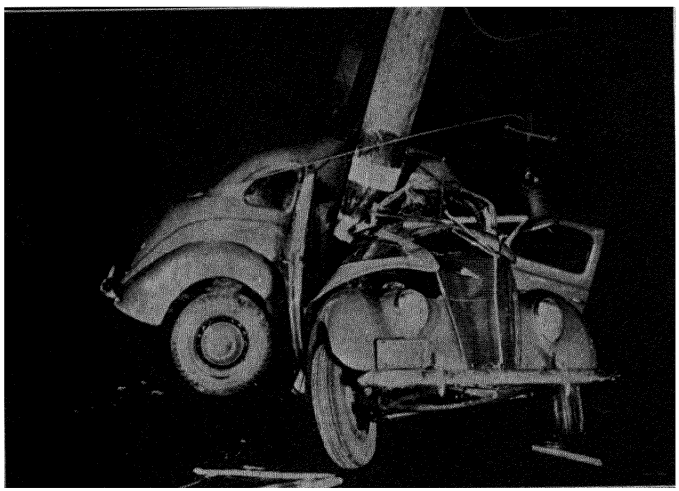
I. The Problem of Accidents

The Problem. — There are many reasons why some people fail to adjust themselves to the situations and problems created by our industrial civilization. Some are born or reared under such circumstances that they reach maturity unsuited or untrained for industrial employment. Because of their incompetency, many of these persons cannot make an adequate living. This creates serious social problems for their relatives and friends and also serious results for their community.

There are, on the other hand, many of our more promising citizens who fall into the dependent classes through accident, disease, or some other condition which appears to be inevitable in our industrial and social order. It often happens that these individuals become entangled in the meshes of death and circumstance and become dependent in a comparatively short time. The problem is becoming increasingly complicated, since our industrial order is advancing somewhat more rapidly than our social adjustment. Standards of efficiency are making the struggle for economic security more and more difficult year after year.

It would be a great tragedy for one to awaken in the early hours of the morning and hear a newsboy crying that all the inhabitants of Pennsylvania had been laid low by some catas-

trophe; then, listening further, that all the people in the bustling city of Allentown had been killed and half the people of Pittsburgh had been crippled for the remainder of their lives. This would startle the listener and cause him to shudder with mingled emotions, yet such a catastrophe would represent only what actually happens in the United States every year.



Courtesy National Safety Council

A HIGH-SPEED SKID

Autos are the chief source of accidents in the United States. Most auto accidents are due to excess speed.

Accidents proved fatal to 92,623 persons in 1939 and to 96,500 persons in 1940. From 1932 to 1939 more than 800,000 individuals in the United States lost their lives through accidents. Imagine death by unnatural causes for such a large number of our population! In addition to these casualties, there are annually around 400,000 permanently disabling injuries. However, to make the picture complete, we must add to the preceding figures some 9,000,000 persons who are disabled annually.

According to recent data,[1] the nation's accidents may be figured at approximately the following rates:

All Accidental Deaths:

1 every 5⅓ minutes
11 each hour
264 per day
1,850 each week
96,500 killed during the year

All Accidental Injuries:

1 every 3⅓ seconds
18 per minute
1,000 each hour
25,000 each day
174,000 every week
9,100,000 injuries in 1939

Motor Vehicle Deaths:

1 every 15 minutes
94 per day
34,500 deaths for the year

Motor Vehicle Injuries:

1 every 26 seconds
140 each hour
3,300 per day
1,200,000 during the year

Total Accident Costs:

$113 per second
$9,500,000 per day
$3,500,000,000 for the year

Over the last forty years the annual death toll from diphtheria decreased 92 per cent, typhoid fever 92 per cent, tuberculosis 60 per cent, whereas the annual death toll from accidents increased 34 per cent.

The economic cost of 96,500 deaths and 9,000,000 injuries, could it be adequately computed, would be enormous, while no financial estimate can be placed upon the amount of human misery involved, because human misery cannot be measured in terms of dollars and cents.

Accidents are no respecters of state lines, cities, social class, persons, or sects. They are prominent in every state, city, and county. They lurk on every street, in every place of work, and in every home. They claim kings, princes, and the well-to-do, as well as paupers, beggars, and people of every age.

The automobile and its use is a contribution of our industrial age. Its positive value and usefulness need no defense. From a utilitarian standpoint, it speaks for itself, but from its presence

[1] *Accident Facts* (1941 Edition), National Safety Council, Chicago.

and use have arisen many social problems, not the least of which are automobile accidents.

(In co-operation with other social science classes, work out a home accident prevention program in your school.)

Traffic Accidents. — In 1940 accidents rode the highways and claimed as their toll 34,500 dead, 1,200,000 injured, and $1,600,000,000 in costs and property damage.[1]

The following table gives a ten-year comparison of the deaths from automobile accidents in terms of the number of cars in operation and in comparison to the number of miles traveled.

TABLE XLVI. TRAVEL DEATH RATE[2]

Year	Deaths	Cars	Miles Traveled	Deaths per 10,000 Cars	Deaths per 1 Million Miles
1930	32,929	26,545,000	189 billion	12.4	17.4
1939	32,386	30,615,000	270 billion	10.6	12.0
1940	34,500	32,025,000	286 billion	10.8	12.1
10-year trend	+ 5%	+ 21%	+ 51%	− 13%	− 30%
2-year change	+ 7%	+ 5%	+ 6%	+ 2%	+ 1%

During 1940 pedestrian accidents killed 12,500 in traffic deaths, or, to phrase the statement differently, about two out of five traffic deaths in 1940 were pedestrians.

Collisions between automobiles accounted for 9,950, or 29 per cent, of all traffic deaths as well as 700,000, or 58 per cent, of all non-fatal traffic injuries.

Data on the ages of people who met motor vehicle deaths in 1940 are given in the following table.

[1] See *Accident Facts* (1941 Edition), National Safety Council, Chicago.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 26.

TABLE XLVII. DEATHS, INJURIES, AND DEATH AND INJURY RATES AMONG TRAFFIC VICTIMS, 1940[1]

Age	Number		Frequency of Death	Rates per 100,000 Population			
				Total		Pedestrian	
	Deaths	Injuries		Death	Injury	Death	Injury
All ages	34,500	1,200,000	1 in 36	26.2	910	9.5	200
0–4	1,150	40,000	1 in 36	10.9	380	6.6	190
5–14	2,550	160,000	1 in 64	11.3	710	6.7	380
15–24	6,800	310,000	1 in 47	28.5	1300	3.3	100
25–44	9,650	410,000	1 in 43	24.2	1030	4.9	120
45–64	8,800	220,000	1 in 26	33.8	840	15.2	220
65–over	5,550	60,000	1 in 12	61.6	670	39.9	280

The National Safety Council gives the following summary of the causes of traffic accidents:[2]

1. Unsafe speeds.
2. Violating right-of-way.
3. Unsafe acts by pedestrians.
4. Drinking drivers and pedestrians.
5. Physical defects and bodily impairments.
6. Driving by very young and very old drivers.
7. Violation of traffic laws by bicyclists.
8. Defective motor vehicles.
9. Obstruction to drivers' vision as snow, rain, and sleet.
10. Highway defects.
11. Darkness.
12. Road and weather conditions.

We see from the preceding data the acuteness of the problem of automobile accidents. What to do about this situation is an important problem. Among the many suggestions which

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 38. Certain adaptations have been made in the table.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 32–33

have been made for decreasing the prevalence of automobile accidents are the following:

1. State laws requiring the licensing and registration of all operators of motor vehicles.

2. Establishment of drivers' tests under the supervision of the state highway patrol or some similar body, and also automobile test stations where automobiles may be inspected with a view to determining whether or not they are roadworthy.

3. The establishment of age minimums for operating a motor vehicle.

4. Laws requiring that all operators of motor vehicles carry liability insurance so that there would be funds to pay for personal injuries or property damage in case of a collision.

5. Better local law enforcement, involving the complete enforcement of existing traffic laws, the scrapping of obsolete cars, the prevention of "ticket squashing," and the like. Obviously, if traffic laws are worth having, they are worth enforcing.

6. Education of the public, and especially children, in safety regulations and along the lines of traffic regulation.

7. Extension of experimentation with various types of safety measures and appliances for vehicles, streets, and highways.

8. Establishment of "safety lanes" for the examination of motor vehicles to determine their roadworthiness.

9. The establishment of local safety patrols, particularly school and church patrols, to supervise traffic at highway and street crossings. Such patrols are as necessary in many rural districts as in cities.

10. Attempts to establish national uniform driving and licensing practices and regulations are, perhaps, movements in the direction of a more adequate safety program.

11. Treating high accident locations.

12. Restriction of parking for safety.

13. Highway lighting where necessary.
14. Checking of all highway designs for safety.

We have more automobiles than any nation; we are developing the greatest network of highways to be found in the world; yet, there is no doubt but that our operators of motor vehicles are the most careless, the most *reckless*, or the least *wreckless*, of any in the world. America will, in time, adjust itself to meet the situation, but the adjustment is very slow in maturing.

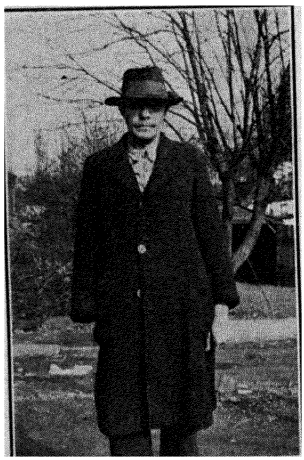
(Make a study of automobile accident trends in your state, county, or city. Try to ascertain the chief causes of these accidents in your county. Work out a highway safety program for your county. Organize a highway or street safety patrol for your school. Make a study of aviation accident trends.)

Recreation Accidents. — A very desirable by-product of our industrial civilization is an increasing amount of leisure. This increased leisure has been accompanied by a considerable increase in the number of recreational accidents. In 1934, for instance, individuals who went swimming, riding, hunting, and hiking increased the number of accidental deaths by 17,500, the permanent disabilities by 60,000, and the injured by 2,000,000. In 1939 there were 5450 drownings, excluding those occurring in connection with transportation accidents. The above prevalence of recreational accidents seems entirely too high for the number of people participating in leisure-time activities, and opens up a large field for instruction in safety education, swimming, life saving, and various forms of first aid.

Industrial Accidents. — The majority of people term life on the farm as the safest from accidents of all the industrial environments. Agriculture, however, heads the list for 1940, with 4500 deaths due to industrial accidents, which number is 26 per cent of the total for all occupations. Since the occupation of agriculture is generally not covered by compensation laws or insurance provisions, the accident situation in rural regions has

received much less consideration than it deserves. Trade and service industries came in for second place, with a total of 3700 deaths. Construction projects accounted for 3100 deaths. Transportation and public utilities were responsible for 1900 deaths in 1940.

The death-by-accident total for manufacturing is estimated at 2000, or 12 per cent of the fatalities in all occupations. Contrary to popular view, most industrial accidents do not occur in factories, but to workers in other occupations. There was an increase of approximately 10 per cent in industrial accidents from 1939 to 1940. Some of this increase might have been due to the larger number of persons at work on defense projects.



AN ARGUMENT FOR SAFETY EDUCATION

The empty sleeve is often a symbol of neglect in safety education and safety measures.

Industries vary considerably in the frequency of disabling injuries, the lowest being the tobacco industry, with a total of 2.77 disabling injuries per 1,000,000 man-hours, and the highest being lumbering, with a total of 45.50. The table opposite shows the industrial accident rate as found in *Accident Facts for 1934 and 1940*.[1]

As is indicated by the data on the opposite page, commendable results in the reduction of frequency of accidents were made by a large number of industries between 1934 and 1940.

It is further indicated by these data that considerable variation existed in accident rates as between different industries. The average 1940 frequency rate for the 30 reporting industries

[1] The National Safety Council, Chicago.

TABLE XLVIII. THE HIGH AND LOW OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS, 1934 AND 1940

Industry	Number of Disabling Injuries per 1,000,000 Man Hours	
	1934	*1940*
Tobacco	3.13	2.77
Laundry	5.03	5.81
Printing and publishing	6.38	8.81
Cement	6.50	4.90
Rubber	9.25	8.27
Machinery	9.33	9.40
Textiles	9.73	7.77
Glass	9.84	6.60
Chemical	10.30	8.65
Nonferrous metals	10.30	9.83
Public utilities	10.54	12.15
Steel	10.81	6.54
Marine	12.14	18.34
Sheet metal	14.07	11.44
Petroleum	14.31	11.60
Woodworking	14.99	16.40
Metal products (miscellaneous)	15.02	12.27
Tanning and leather	15.36	16.18
Food	16.42	14.04
Quarry	17.34	13.20
Paper and pulp	19.07	15.38
Transit	19.29	14.24
Automobile	22.24	6.92
Foundry	23.24	19.60
Clay products	24.82	19.23
Refrigeration	27.62	27.27
Construction	31.89	33.47
Meat packing	38.61	12.77
Mining	51.45	34.24
Lumbering	83.83	45.50

was 12.52. Mining companies in 1940, with a fatality rate of more than ten times the average, had a frequency rate of about three times that of all industries. Sheet metal plants, on the other hand, had a frequency rate which was slightly less than the general average, with the rate for permanent partial disability being more than twice that of all industries.

According to reports to the National Safety Council from 3866 industrial units, serious injuries accounted for about 83 per

cent of the time lost through accidents. Hence, it is evident that serious accidents — deaths and permanent disabilities — continue to be the heaviest drain on American industry from a time and money standpoint.

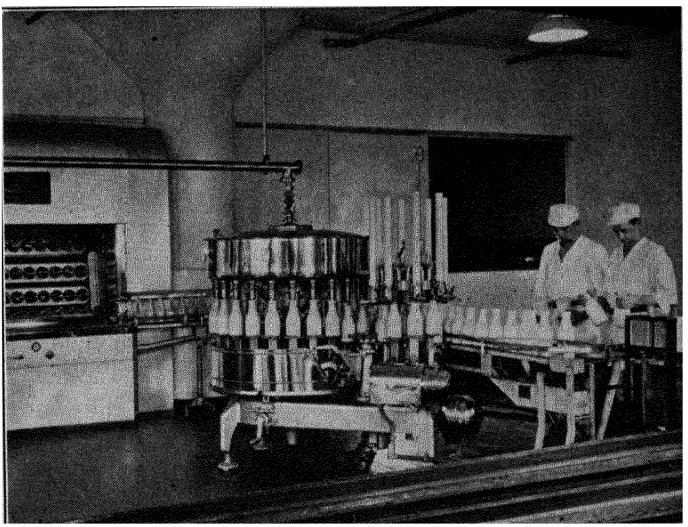
Ninety-five per cent of all the disabling injuries which were reported to the National Safety Council were of a temporary nature, and the employee was able to return to his work in a comparatively short time. Only one per cent of all the accidents were fatal, and only 4 per cent represented permanent disabilities. Fatal accidents (deaths), which represented only one per cent of the cases, accounted for 60 per cent of the time loss. Permanent disabilities, representing only 4 per cent of the cases, caused 23 per cent of the time loss.

Prevention of Industrial Accidents. — While some of the accidents in industry are due to the carelessness or negligence of the employees, there are many which occur through no fault of the worker. Factories are rapidly installing safety devices and are giving more attention to lighting, to other safety precautions, and to safety education. Most of them have notices posted in conspicuous places, warning the worker of danger. The railroads have made a marvelous record in reducing their accidents, and it is likely that other industries will take some lessons from them. Some industries employ a safety engineer in an attempt to reduce the number of accidents, and many carry various forms of workmen's compensation insurance, which provide funds for the injured worker or, in case of a fatality, funds for his heirs.

(Why is lumbering a hazardous occupation? Compute the cost of industrial accidents in the United States. Have a local lawyer speak on workmen's compensation laws of your state. After his speech, check with any persons who have been injured in industry and with the local welfare office on the adequacy of workmen's compensation laws in your state.)

II. Industrial Health

The Health of Workers in Industry. — The men and women who make up the industrial population work under conditions from which frequently arise certain physical handicaps and general physical inferiority, which is reflected in a high death



Courtesy The Borden Company

A Healthful, Sanitary Plant

rate from specific diseases among them. The men who carry industrial insurance have a mortality rate of 43 per cent between the ages of forty-five and fifty-four. The more important of these diseases are lesions causing cerebral hemorrhages, Bright's disease, and organic diseases of the heart. These are attributed to long, continued, strenuous labor, exposure to extreme heat, rapid changes of temperature, and often specific poisons, known as industrial poisons.[1]

[1] Dublin, L. I., "The Mortality Trend in the Industrial Population," *The American Journal of Public Health*, 19 : 475–476, 1929.

Industrial Poisoning. — Industrial poisoning is not so important from the standpoint of frequency as are the industrial diseases and industrial accidents, for there are fewer working people employed in trades in which there is danger of poisoning than in the dusty trades, or at hot and dangerous labor in factories operating heavy machinery. But the effects of poisons are more definite, and, as more is known concerning the action of certain poisons, their importance as a factor in industrial health is constantly increasing. Also, as knowledge grows concerning such poisons, preventive methods become better understood, and a greater responsibility for such prevention is placed on the state, on the employer, and on the physician. It is often possible to plead ignorance as to the exact cause of the sickness rate and death rate of textile workers, for instance, because we do not understand what part in health is played by cotton lint, or wool dust and what part by the fatigue of standing amidst noisy, vibrating machinery, or by low wages.

Lead when taken internally and brought into the intestinal tract requires considerable quantity and considerable time to produce serious poisoning. On the other hand, absorption by the respiratory organs is very rapid, and severe symptoms appear quickly. Lead poisoning may be produced by merely injecting lead into the nose. More rapid poisoning may be obtained by injecting lead into the trachea. As much may be absorbed in this way in one day as would be absorbed by the intestinal tract in months. The reason for this is that the lead enters directly into the circulation rather than going to the liver, as in intestinal absorption.

There is a very important discovery, which shows that the best way to keep down lead poisoning in industry is to control the dust-laden air and the fumes which carry the particles of lead. It is considered that the handling of lead in the solid form is harmless, and that the only danger is from fumes or dust.

Fumes from the lead mines in Utah have produced frequent poisonings. In Colorado smelters, it was found that nine tenths of the cases of lead poisoning were among the men who attended furnaces, but who constituted only one half of the force. In the Utah smelters, men handling solid pure lead were poisoned only to the extent of 14.3 per cent, while the men cleaning the flues from dust which was only 45 per cent lead had a rate of 62.5 per cent. Out of a total of 487 cases of lead poisoning in California, no less than 338 were men who used torches on the red-lead painted sides of battleships in the process of scraping them.[1]

Industrial poisoning from mercury is usually troublesome in that it is irritating to the skin, the mucous membrane, and the eyes. The quantity of mercury in the air needed to produce chronic poisoning has never been determined. The General Electric Company, however, has produced a device for the estimation of mercury vapor. In this way, it can be determined just how much mercury vapor may be admitted into a room before it becomes dangerous. Hatters, furriers, and metal workers and laboratory men often contract a slow form of poisoning from mercury. These poisonings are known to produce nervousness (tremors), which affects the muscles of the eyelids, tongue, and fingers. It increases with the effort to control it and decreases when no attention is given to it.

Phosphorus is one of the older industrial poisons and, consequently, one of the best understood. The first case of poisoning from white phosphorus was found in Vienna in 1833. The first cases to be treated in the United States were in the Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, in 1851. The poisoning known as "Phossy Jaw" causes large eruptive growths at the sides of

[1] Hamilton, Alice, *Industrial Toxicology*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1934, Chapter II.

the neck, loss of weight, anemia, and a septic type of fever ranging from 99° F. to 104° F.

The dangers from phosphorus poisoning are now removed from the match-manufacturing industry, from fireworks manufacturing, and from similar industries.

There are a number of other industrial poisons, such as coal-tar derivatives, nitroglycerin, and alcohols. It will be necessary for the reader to consult additional sources in magazines, labor reports, and books on industrial poisonings in order to get the additional causes of toxic poisoning. We shall list some of the protections against industrial poisoning.

Protective Measures against Industrial Poisoning. — The prevention of industrial poisoning is primarily the task of the plant or safety engineer, who, of course, must have the support of his company, with the additional co-operation of the physician and the employee and the local and state health department. Men in dangerous industries must understand how various poisons enter the body, whether it be through the skin, the food, or tobacco.

The majority of industrial poisons may be controlled by the following suggestions:

(*a*) Prevent formation or escape of gases, fumes, and dust.

(*b*) If (*a*) is impossible, remove by means of exhausts.

(*c*) If (*b*) is impossible, dilute as much as possible by abundant ventilation and by fans blowing air past the face of the worker.

(*d*) If all these are impracticable, protect the worker by a filter mask or positive pressure air-mask.

(*e*) If all the above measures are impracticable, select men with proved resistance to the poison and put them on short shifts.

(*f*) For poisons which enter through the skin, prevent escape of fumes and dust and prevent spilling liquids.

(*g*) Maintain scrupulous cleanliness of benches, apparatus, etc.

(*h*) Provide and launder washable working clothes.

(*i*) For all, provide adequate washing facilities and a clean lunchroom.

Workers with poisons that enter through the skin and workers exposed to excessive dust in the air should have shower baths provided with hot water, soap, and towels.[1]

The above are the suggestions for the management. A capable physician is often able to select the proper man for each job, those who can better perform the more hazardous tasks being assigned them.

It has been demonstrated by experiment that Negroes are less subject to materials that irritate the skin than are other races. It should be seen that proper food, clothing, and shelter are provided, and that the proper sanitary conditions are given the employees. They should also be protected from long hours, extreme heat, and humidity. Heat and humidity increase the absorption of poisons that enter the body through the skin. Such working conditions should be enforced by state and national laws, and the workers in these occupations should receive the maximum protection from conditions due to no fault of their own.

Industrial Diseases. — In the asbestos industry it is not infrequent for a diseased condition called *asbestosis* to develop from particles of asbestos which are breathed into the lungs. Men who work as rock drillers, blasters, and quarrymen in hard rock, where they are inadequately protected, often develop a disease known as *silicosis*. Hard tissue develops around the hard dust particles in the lungs, thus replacing the normal lung tissue. Tuberculosis often develops along with silicosis. Then, too, there are various kinds of skin diseases, collectively called "industrial dermatitis," which are caused by materials which irritate the skin.

(List the chief causes of industrial poisoning. What is being done to prevent industrial poisoning and industrial accidents in your state?

[1] Hamilton, Alice, *Industrial Toxicology*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1934, pp. xii–xiii.

What are the functions of the state in the prevention of industrial accidents and industrial poisoning? What may employers do in the prevention of such hazards? Have a safety engineer discuss industrial hygiene before the class.)

III. Vocational Guidance

Guidance in Modern Education. — One of the major problems of our industrial civilization is vocational guidance, in which the more formal and matter-of-fact instruction is rapidly being replaced by the less formal. The richness of the curriculum and the fact that modern schools are shifting greater responsibility onto the pupil for the planning of his own education require a much greater consideration for direction and guidance. Many of the high schools and all colleges of today have deans to give advice to students. In addition to this, there are vocational guidance directors who devote their entire time to the guidance of pupils.

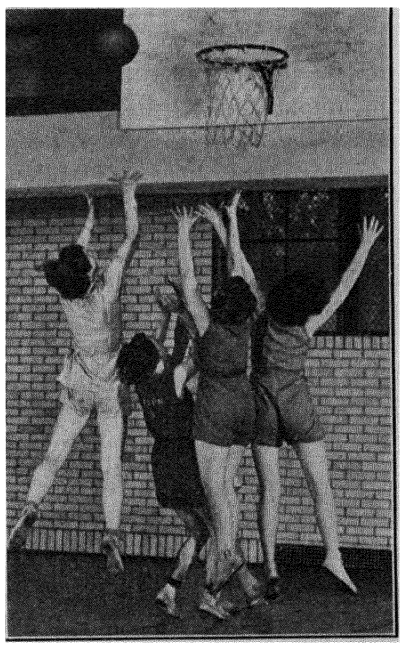
In this way, it is possible to make a study of the abilities and aptitudes of the child in order that he may be trained for the vocation for which he is best suited.

Types of Guidance. — Guidance is of two distinct types. One type attempts to aid the student to find his way through the routine and complexities of the school or college program of studies. Such guidance is termed "educational" and is strikingly illustrated by the organization of a so-called "Freshman Week" in colleges. Many institutions of higher learning require new students to report a week before school opens in order to learn the requirements, academic as well as administrative. They are also introduced to the social life of the campus.

The second type of guidance looks toward the student's future and aims to assist him in choosing a vocation. The student finds the vocation which is suited to his abilities and chooses the subjects and activities which will prepare him for the vocation.

This is called "vocational guidance." It is one of the latest, yet most important, additions to modern high school and college programs.

The Need for Vocational Guidance. — With no accurate method of vocational selection for the graduates of our high schools and colleges, there is small chance of the pupil choosing the vocation for which he is best suited. The boy who would be an outstanding chemical engineer may spend his time poring over the various items of a department store. The young man who has the ability to manage a large firm may secure a job trucking freight to the department store. The high-school girl may have a charming voice, yet she spends her years as clerk in a five-and-ten-cent store. These are noble occupations, but the examples cited obviously possessed abilities along other lines. Such cases as these allow very little development in one's particular interests and may lead to dissatisfaction and unsatisfactory work. In order to build a society which is happy, there must be development of talent on the basis of abilities and interests.



Courtesy Detroit Public Schools

ATHLETICS IS PART OF THE SOCIAL LIFE OF SCHOOL

Much of our guidance takes place after one begins his vocation. In some fields there is more or less preparation in the

school or under school supervision. In still other occupations, a long period of highly specialized preparation precedes actual entrance upon the duties of the occupation, as in the case of law or medicine. Regardless of the vocation which one plans to enter, guidance is a necessary part of the process of transfer from school to occupation.

More workers are probably dissatisfied with the kind of work in which they are engaged than is commonly supposed. The monotony of work in which one has no interest may be more serious and of more far-reaching consequence than industrial accidents and diseases. Many have come to look upon their jobs as a means for family existence. The pay check is the ultimate goal. Yet we know that a happy life cannot exist if there is hatred of one's job. Vocational guidance has the possibility of bringing happiness to the worker, because he may be trained for the task which he most enjoys. This may prevent one's taking the first job which is offered, regardless of its present or future possibilities. "Blind-alley" jobs will cease when our youths are properly selected and trained.

Persons Who Choose Unwisely. — Many persons who try to select a vocation make a mistake and enter one in which they cannot succeed or in which they have no special interest. As a result, they fail to give satisfactory service to their employer and to society, and they themselves are unhappy, for they are trying to do something they detest.

In order to see the diversity of reasons for which men enter their occupations, let us examine the figures in the table on the opposite page.[1]

Preparation for a Vocation. — When vocational guidance had its beginning in 1900 with the work of Frank Parsons in the Boston schools, it was intended to prepare classes for vocations.

[1] Kitson, Harry D., *I Find My Vocation*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1931. pp. 7–9.

TABLE XLIX. REASONS FOR ENTERING OCCUPATION, 500 CASES

Reason	Number	Per Cent
Choice	251	50
Chance	152	30
Necessity and other reasons	47	10
Inheritance of a business	45	9
Parents' wishes	5	1
Total	500	100

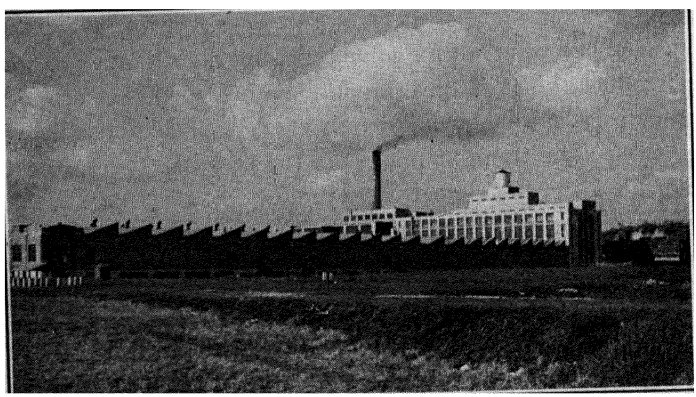
This need had been felt for some time, but no attempt was made to introduce the work into the public schools. There are today courses in vocational guidance in every school system of consequence. The trend at present is to extend the work into the junior high and the elementary schools.

Some of the more important fields of employment and attempts at training are:

1. *For business pursuits.* — Preparation in regular school classes in advance of employment has proved very popular in commercial education. According to a report of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as early as 1925, there were 309,395 enrollments in commercial subjects among the 678,935 pupils who were enrolled in the 1571 public high schools included in the Association. The program has been in operation a comparatively short time, and there are insufficient records to show what results are being obtained. But this is a step in the right direction, and it is reasonable to suppose that employers will select their leaders from those who have had technical training.

2. *For homemaking.* — The work of homemaking is conducted on the same general plan as the commercial program. Pupils are trained in advance of actual responsibility for work. The North Central report just referred to shows that 100,156

girls, or 33 per cent of those enrolled, were pursuing this work as early as 1925. While this may appear to be a small number, it is recognized that the majority of these girls will assume responsibilities, and the training in actual cooking, sewing, child care, costume designing, etc., will be of much value to them. At present this vocation gets nothing like the attention it deserves, but it is becoming more popular as the idea of homemaking takes the place of wage earning.



A Decentralized Industry

This plant is located in a small town, but many of its employees live on the land from ten to forty miles away.

3. *For agricultural pursuits.* — We have an agricultural population of more than 50,000,000, yet the high schools are enrolling only around 75,000 pupils for agricultural occupations. Most of the agricultural work is accomplished through the federal government, which provides vocational training through the Smith-Hughes Act. There are many opportunities for service in the field of agriculture for the city pupil as well as for the country pupil. We need training in conservation, crop control, disease and insect prevention, forestry, and diversified farming.

4. *Industrial education.* — Preparation for industrial occupations has been largely left to the industries. About twenty-five years ago, there was a movement to teach boys and girls of high-school age some kind of trade. Since that time, a large number of trade schools have been established in the North, and they are slowly penetrating the South.

While there are certain trades or occupations calling for special training, such as brick-laying, plumbing, painting, pattern-making, printing, and the like, which require the training of efficient teachers in properly equipped schools, there are some occupations which necessitate very little special training. This is notably true of unskilled and many semi-skilled labor jobs. Many of the more skilled labor jobs require from six months to several years for mastery.

Vocational Guidance for the Handicapped. — It has been estimated that there are more than 10,000,000 children in the United States who are vocationally handicapped. These are distributed as follows:[1]

Blind	15,000
Partially blind	50,000
Deaf and hard of hearing	3,000,000
Crippled	300,000
Mentally deficient	6,500,000
Definitely feeble-minded	850,000
Intellectually subnormal	5,650,000
Tubercular	400,000
Suspected tuberculosis	850,000
Heart disease	450,000

From the above, it is clear that there is need of a very carefully devised program of guidance for many unfortunate boys and girls. Only those who have made a careful study of this type of work should be entrusted with these young lives. The task

[1] President's Research Committee, *Recent Social Trends*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1933, p. 757.

is too large for individuals or private organizations and should receive public support from all society.

Suggestions in Choosing a Vocation. — It is hoped that the pupil will be stimulated to study and read widely, and that he will try to choose the proper vocation and prepare to fill it efficiently.

1. It is necessary for one to acquire an "ambition pattern" and to carry out the plan. There is nothing to be gained by drifting or in trying to prepare to do every task. One should obtain a broad education and should learn to do thorough work.

2. It is necessary to obtain information about conditions, opportunities, rewards, and chances for advancement in the vocation which one selects. One should consider the hazards of the occupation, the amount of native ability needed for it, one's special adaptation for it, the education and training required, and the economic, the social, and the moral point of view.

3. Self-analysis is essential. It is very important that one learn his abilities, aptitudes, skills, and general interests, as well as his shortcomings and defects.

4. As one takes his literary training, he should also be allowed to pursue training in his favorite vocation or profession. The occupations which require the longest periods of training usually get the most satisfactory rewards in the way of social, spiritual, and financial gains.

5. One should obtain the very best training which his financial and mental condition will permit.

6. One should consider a vocation in which there are opportunities to grow.

7. One should avoid occupations which are overcrowded, unless he prefers to excel.

8. One should remember that he may be suited to several kindred occupations.

9. One should enter the vocation of his choice and the vocation in which he will be interested and happy.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What difficult items should be considered in computing the cost of illness?
2. What great advances have been made in making medical aid available to the poor?
3. Industrial accident laws of my state.
4. Workmen's compensation in my state.
5. The most dangerous trades.
6. The relative frequency and importance of accidents in the home and on the farm.
7. The preparation of safety slogans and safety posters.
8. The vocational choices of the pupils in our school.
9. Make a study of the leading occupations and the leading occupational requirements in your locality.
10. Prepare a written discussion on your chosen occupation, giving the reasons why you are choosing it, the requirements for it, etc.
11. Have representative business men and professional men come in and discuss their jobs before the class.
12. Discuss the very important problem of what constitutes a proper relationship between capital and labor.

VOCABULARY STUDY

infections	vaccination	accident
contagious	inoculation	pedestrian
immunity	fatality	disability

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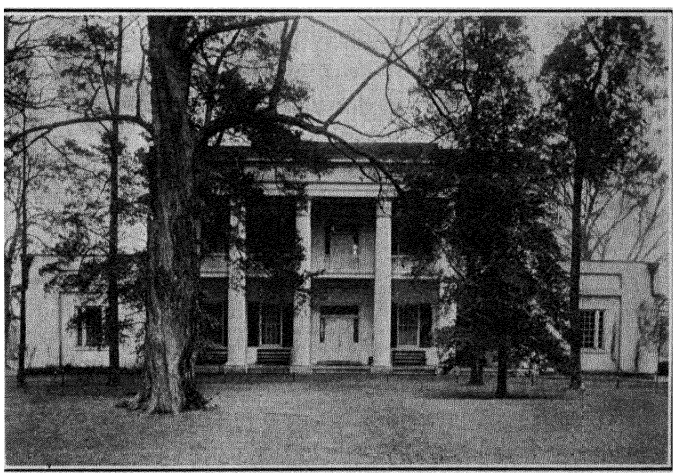
CHAPTER XIX

THE SOCIAL PROBLEM OF THE MENTALLY AND PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

The Need for Mental Health. — The more complex our society is, the more competitive it becomes. For this reason we



Wiles, Nashville

A FINE, OLD SOUTHERN PLANTATION HOME

This is *The Hermitage*, home of Andrew Jackson. Such an environment would certainly be helpful to mental health.

shall need not only to develop the mental qualities of our population but also to conserve these developed faculties in the most efficient manner possible. The development of such faculties is the problem of education, while the conservation of them is the task of mental hygiene.

Accompanying the growing complexity of the social order has been an increased mental strain upon the people. There is much "high pressuring" of the population. Everywhere there is advertising to make people want to buy the world's goods. There have sprung up many methods, such as installment buying, to make buying easier. The results are that many people buy beyond their income and, as a result, find themselves badly in debt. From such debtorship there inevitably arises much mental strain.

The great increase in social mobility, the growth of diverse organizations, and the increase of contacts necessary to carry on the affairs of life create conditions and cause much mental strain which many persons find devitalizing. Under such pressure, many people break down and may become temporarily or permanently mentally defective.

One of the greatest burdens of expense upon our population is the care and treatment of the mentally defective and the mentally diseased. Many states find that as much as one sixth of their revenue is consumed by such care. But, on the other hand, if the mentally diseased are given improper care and treatment, crime, accidents, misery, and degeneracy will more than absorb any savings resulting from the supposed "economy" of leaving them at large and to their own fate. Our increased cost of the care of the mentally handicapped arises, not so much from the increase of their numbers as from the increasing discovery of them and the increased efforts of the states to do something about the problem.

(Why is the problem of mental health becoming more important?)

Our Changing Attitude toward Mental Defectives. — Formerly the insane were regarded as a menace and the source of many social evils. Consequently, the treatment they received was similar to the treatment afforded criminals, lepers, and other

outcasts. They were secluded and segregated under such conditions that they often perished for want of the bare necessities of life.

If proper progress is to be made in the care of the mentally ill, we must change our attitude toward those who are mentally sick. Only time and education will convince the public that mental illness is essentially the same as any other form of illness and that it is not any more a sin or disgrace than any other form of illness. The modern tendency is not to look upon the mentally defective as "crazy," or as clowns or jesters, but simply as persons who have an ailment not unlike any other physical ailment.

(What steps have given rise to the changed attitude toward the mentally ill as contrasted with former attitudes?)

Types of Mental Handicaps. — Two large classes of the mentally handicapped are the *mentally deficient*, or feeble-minded, and the *mentally defective*, or insane. We shall consider mental deficiency first.

It is apparent that no positive definition may be assigned to feeble-mindedness, but there seems to be substantial agreement that the term denotes the following:

1. A marked limitation or deficiency of intelligence, frequently associated with other shortcomings of personality.
2. A lack of normal development, rather than mental disease or deterioration.
3. An inability to adjust one's self to the social and economic surroundings and to organize one's normal social activities.

The Missouri Code Commission gives a splendid definition of feeble-mindedness, which is as follows:

A state of restricted mental development which exists to such a degree at maturity that one cannot adapt himself to his environment or maintain an independent existence without external support and supervision.

The following grades or degrees of feeble-mindedness are ordinarily made:

The idiot, with an intelligence ranging from zero to that of a two-year-old child.

The imbecile, with an intelligence or mental age ranging from three to seven years.

The moron, with an intelligence or mental age equivalent to that of a child between the ages of eight and twelve years.[1]

In the days when it was considered that there were only two gross forms of feeble-mindedness, known as *idiocy* and *imbecility,* there was little difficulty in defining the problem. But with the decision that the *moron,* which exists on the line between deficiency and normality, should be included among the feeble-minded, there arose a serious problem of definition as well as identification. The recognition of the moron followed the invention and application of the famous French work, the Binet-Simon method of intelligence-testing, and its numerical grading scale in terms of mental age and later of the intelligence quotient, or I. Q. For some time after the development of these tests, it was believed that the presence or absence of mental deficiency could be detected solely by the rating received on intelligence tests, which, of course, was not true.[2]

(What is your concept of feeble-mindedness? Would a person in New York City who is socially inadequate because of feeble-mindedness be equally inadequate in a simple agrarian community?)

A Note on Early Intelligence Testing in America. — Dr. Henry H. Goddard was one of the first to introduce the Binet-Simon Intelligence Test into America. In 1910, he recommended to the American Association for the Study of the Feeble-

[1] Different authorities vary in their concept of idiocy or moronic condition.

[2] In connection with this topic, consult the chapter on "Biological Factors in Social Development."

minded that, according to test-ratings, the feeble-minded should be sub-classed as follows: *idiots*, those with a mental age up to and including two years; *imbeciles*, those with a mental age of from three to seven years, inclusive; and *morons*, those with a mental age of from eight to twelve years. This recommendation was generally accepted, and for a time it was felt that those who, according to the test, had a mental age of twelve years or less were to be regarded as feeble-minded.

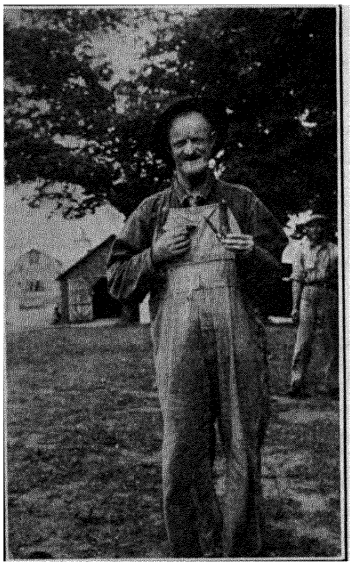
Dr. Goddard himself has said that the morons were more or less arbitrarily placed at twelve years, because a survey of institutional inmates showed this to be the upper mental level of persons in the institutions for the feeble-minded. For a time, Dr. Goddard contends, people rather carelessly assumed that everybody who tested twelve years or less was feeble-minded.

The Extent of Mental Deficiency as Determined by Tests. — According to the official report of those tested during the First World War, 47.3 per cent of the white men drafted were found to have mental ages of less than thirteen years, and thus would have been considered feeble-minded, according to the accepted standard of classification. Many persons hastily assumed, upon the above basis, that at least 50,000,000 people in this country were feeble-minded. Accounting for the fact that many leaders in business and industry were not selected, it was estimated that, of the white drafted men, 19,000,000 had mental ages of less than eleven years.

Various authorities since the First World War have referred to necessary qualifications in interpreting intelligence-test scores and, in particular, those of group examinations. When these are applied to adults, it may be that more deductions should be made. More especially is this true of those who did not care whether they passed any kind of test and of those who were too worried to think of tests. The army results are considered

rather high estimates, for, before the First World War, feeble-mindedness was considered as characteristic of not more than 2 per cent of the population.

At any rate, it is not considered a very reliable standard to judge the entire population by the army draft findings. We should certainly not think of terming one sixth to one half of our population as socially and economically incompetent. Many of the men who made low scores on the tests had been doing satisfactory work in industry and in the various pursuits of America. The army tests seemed to indicate that a fairly low rating in an intelligence test does not necessarily, within itself, imply feeble-mindedness. The various aspects of personality and behavior must be taken into consideration to determine various skills and aptitudes. Regarding this, Davies says:



INMATE OF A COUNTY HOME

No sharp dividing line can be drawn between feeble-mindedness and normality simply because none exists. The high-grade feeble-minded on the one hand, and the dull-normal on the other hand, do not represent wholly different groups of human beings, but rather a continuous series differing in degree but not in kind, and shading almost indistinguishably into one another. Especially when the supreme test of social competency is taken into account, who is feeble-minded and who is not becomes a matter of relativity.[1]

[1] Davies, Stanley Powell, *Social Control of the Mentally Deficient*, Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1930, p. 7.

Binet and Simon state that a peasant who is normal in simple rural surroundings may be termed a moron in the city, and that retardation is a relative term, which must be taken into consideration in order to judge each particular case. There is considerable controversy as to just where the line should be drawn with reference to the feeble-minded, but, as we indicated earlier in the chapter, it seems rather conclusive that those who are incapable of social and economic adjustments may be considered as feeble-minded. Gavian and others say:

> An intelligence quotient of 100 is considered normal or average. It means that the physical and mental ages of the individual being tested are the same. If the mental age of a child is four years, while his physical age is eight, his intelligence quotient is only 50, which is very much below normal. If his mental age is ten, however, while he is actually only eight, then his intelligence quotient is 125, which is very superior.[1]

Some classify an individual with an intelligence quotient of 85 as a *moron*. Dr. Rugg, in *The Great Technology*, contends that

> The lowest 1% go to 70 or below; the highest 1% reach 130 or above.
> The lowest 5% go to 78 or below; the highest 5% reach 122 or above.
> The lowest 10% go to 85 or below; the highest 10% reach 116 or above.
> The lowest 20% go to 91 or below; the highest 20% reach 116 or above.
> The lowest 25% go to 92 or below; the highest 25% reach 108 or above.
> The lowest 33⅓% go to 95 or below; the highest 33⅓% reach 106 or above.

In the broadest sense, mental deficiency may be considered both intellectual subnormality and feeble-mindedness. There is no doubt but that today mental deficiency presents one of the largest and most challenging problems of society. The number of intellectually subnormal people in our country is very large. There are also many who are positively feeble-minded. How to care for and treat such persons and how to prevent others from developing becomes one of the great problems for the normal to cope with.

[1] Gavian, Ruth Wood, *et al.*, *Our Changing Social Order*, D. C. Heath and Co., 1934, Boston, pp. 200–201.

(Tell why it is hard to distinguish the various degrees of mental deficiency. Give the age levels of the three classes of feeble-mindedness. What are the three chief methods of determining mental deficiency? Name some pioneers in the field of intelligence testing. Why do the mentally diseased constitute a social problem?)

Some Causes of Feeble-Mindedness. — One must not confuse feeble-mindedness with insanity. The former begins to show early in life, often as soon after birth as the child begins to develop a personality. Normal mental development simply does not take place. Furthermore, feeble-mindedness is considered incurable, while insanity may be cured.

A marked percentage of cases of feeble-mindedness are considered to have an hereditary causation. Ordinarily, two feeble-minded parents will produce only feeble-minded children. Where one parent is feeble-minded, there is less chance of the offspring being feeble-minded, but again the chance of feeble-mindedness is not negligible. Imbecility and idiocy are most often the result of the existence of mental deficiency in the germ plasm of the parents.

It is now recognized that accidents, especially accidents at birth, various poisons, certain diseases, as scarlet fever and rickets and other conditions which destroy the functions of the entire body, may cause mental deficiency. Evidently, then, feeble-mindedness may result from any accident, disease, infection in the mother before birth of child, or condition which prevents normal development, either before or after birth. The hereditary aspect of feeble-mindedness is, however, greatly emphasized by the fact that numerous feeble-minded persons are exceptionally strong physically.

Some Consequences of Mental Deficiency. — The most important result of mental deficiency comes from the incomplete development, the inadequacy, and the inability of the person to develop his qualities, and to organize his normal social activities.

In short, one of the great tragedies of feeble-mindedness is the inadequate equipment for life which is caused by it. However, the person with mediocre intelligence who puts forth every effort toward the development, conservation, and utilization of his talents is due much commendation.

Feeble-mindedness among females is closely related to vice. A great many prostitutes, dope fiends, and persons who engage in sex crimes, and disorderly conduct, are feeble-minded persons. Many of these individuals find it difficult to make a living at a legitimate trade or occupation, consequently, they seek a living through vice.

Feeble-mindedness leads to no small amount of juvenile delinquency. The feeble-minded boy or girl may become discouraged in school and, consequently, may drop out and become truant. Truancy then may lead to juvenile offenses. The feeble-minded boy or girl often cannot foresee the consequences of crime; they often have difficulty in distinguishing between right and wrong; they often have no sense of proper conduct and, therefore, act anti-socially.

Although intelligence is as much a problem of crime as is feeble-mindedness, there remains the fact that a large proportion of habitual criminals are feeble-minded. Feeble-mindedness is especially characteristic of a large percentage of habitual criminals who frequent local jails and workhouses. Ofttimes this element of the criminal group does not commit many serious offenses, but the members of the group are continually in the toils of the law.

Illegitimacy, although not confined to feeble-minded mothers, is very common among unmarried, poverty-stricken feeble-minded women. Many child mothers are definitely feeble-minded. The usual estimate is that 50 per cent of the mothers of illegitimate children are feeble-minded.

Feeble-mindedness is always a cause of some unemployment.

There has been, to date, little provision for the care of the feeble-minded in industry, since most jobs and positions are open to individuals who have a mentality of normal or above. The feeble-minded, therefore, become irregular and untrustworthy employees. Many resort to petty thievery or some other form of undesirable activity. Some become paupers, vagabonds, and beggars, who often spend many years in the institutions which society provides for the indigent and defective.

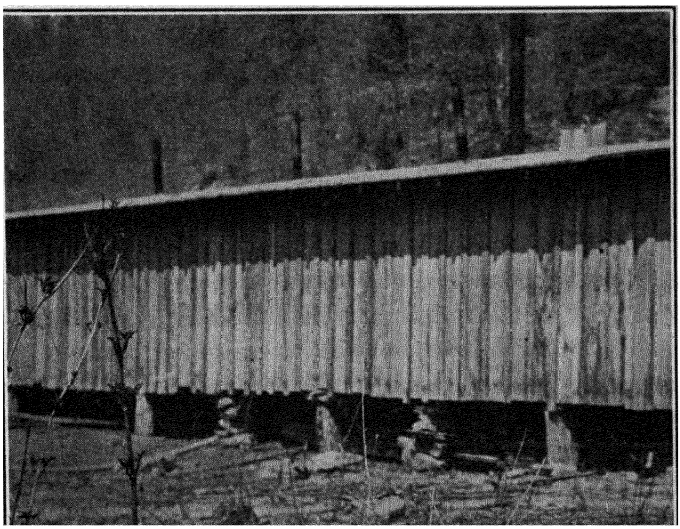
(List the various problems created by the mentally defective. What are the effects of feeble-mindedness upon a population? Give as many causes of feeble-mindedness as you can.)

Treatment of the Mentally Deficient. — There are many suggestions for the care of the mentally deficient, but only a few will be enumerated here. We, however, advise further reading in the vast amount of literature which is being written on this subject at the present time.

1. *Investigation for identification.* — Every child in school who is apparently defective should be examined both physically and mentally. Many of the cities and a few states, as New York, Massachusetts, and Missouri, have mental examinations for retarded children. There are many who are retarded because of adenoids, defective vision, dulled hearing, malnutrition, rickets, and other conditions. It is only fair to learn the seat of the trouble and give the child a chance for normal activity. Or, society should allow him the privilege of entering an institution of a corrective nature or one in which he needs to be permanently lodged.

2. *Sterilization.* — More than half the states of the Union have sterilization laws. Many of the people, however, doubt the advisability of such laws, on the grounds that sterilization is morally wrong. Some say that it is class legislation and might be used in a discriminating and punitive manner. It is felt by

many writers that until sterilization can be made absolutely adequate and reliable, there should be measures other than sterilization invoked for preventing the feeble-minded from reproducing. These persons advocate education, birth control, marriage regulation, and segregation.



A PRODUCT OF INDIFFERENCE

Some insane persons are found in county almshouses, most of which are inadequately equipped and staffed for the proper care of the insane. Here is a rear view of one of the worst county almshouses in the South.

3. *Segregation.* — It is believed by many that the best way to prevent the growth in population of the feeble-minded is through segregation. While segregation through institutional care has failed to solve the problem, it certainly is a step in the right direction. There can be no doubt that institutional provision is one of the best methods of caring for the mentally deficient, provided such schools are educational and rehabilitative in nature. Today, mental institutions are so limited in

their equipment that they may care for only the most needy cases.

The community programs for the training of the deficient were intended to lessen the need for institutional care, but they discovered so many additional cases that they actually increased the problem. Despite the limited support given by some states and cities, the institution remains one of the major means of social control for both the mentally deficient and the defective.

4. *Education of the mentally deficient.* — The original schools in America, and without a doubt in your state, were formed for the education of the select few. Finally, with the advent of public education in America, it was found that a large number of over-age, retarded children were in the public schools. At first, these were believed to be lazy, but psychologists and persons who have given examinations have discovered that these children were lacking in intellectual capacity for learning. Since this discovery has been made, the burden has been placed upon the public schools. There is, as yet, poor provision for the education of these children, but the responsibility for educating the subnormal child is recognized throughout the United States.

Most authorities agree that about 2 per cent of the usual school enrollment are so mentally retarded as to require special instruction in separate classes. Goddard found 2 per cent of 2000 public school children whom he examined to be mentally defective. Terman examined 1000 unselected school children and found their intelligence quotients under 73. A survey by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene in fifteen states revealed 1636 children, or 2.8 per cent, as mentally defective, and 1619 others, or 2.7 per cent, who were diagnosed as borderline mental defectives. Wallin believes that the 2 per cent estimate may be too high and that only about one half of one per cent of the children in our public schools would be truly feeble-minded.

The school can be the greatest as well as the most efficient agency for getting in touch with all of the mentally deficient of school age. After they are located, they should, by means of the compulsory attendance laws, be brought to school for work or for examinations in order to determine the particular difficulties of each individual. Those who are mentally deficient should have records which are kept strictly confidential. In a southern city excellent work is being done by one of the senior high school principals, who has what is called the "K" Club for those who are of low mentality according to standardized tests. Since this club has been organized, there have been flower gardens constructed, shrubbery planted, necessary stools and other furniture built, and all minor repair work done by these boys. The girls are trained in nursing by allowing them to look after the smaller children whose mothers work in factories.

A survey by the Federal Children's Bureau of 1000 young men and women who formerly enrolled in special classes for mental defectives in the cities of Rochester, Newark, Cincinnati, Oakland, San Francisco, and Los Angeles indicated that these people obtained work in semi-skilled operations in factories. Some of these manufactured automobiles; some, metal goods; some, clothing; and some, lumber and furniture. About 12 per cent of the boys were engaged in transportation work, such as driving teams, trucks, and taxis. The most frequent occupations of girls, next to factory work, were personal and domestic service, restaurant, laundry, and sales work.

Including all occupations, the average beginning wages for boys and girls ranged between $12 and $14 weekly. Most of these were soon raised to $14 and $16 per week, respectively. In addition to this, 78 per cent of the boys and 80 per cent of the girls were termed satisfactory in their work by the employers. The unsatisfactory workers were found in the skilled trades, clerical work, and messenger service.

These studies indicate that a very large proportion of the special class graduates, although mentally deficient, were taught so as to be able to make their way in a decent and respectable manner. Many of them have become assets to their communities. These results of special training indicate what can be accomplished with the mentally defective. They also show that there is a need for making such training facilities available to all mentally deficient children in our school systems.

When our public schools have fully recognized that they have no right to deprive any child of educational opportunities suited to his needs just because he appears on one of the lower levels of intelligence, and when they shall have provided a sufficient number of classes, supplemented by competent examiners and advisers, then a large part of the mentally deficient problem will have been solved.

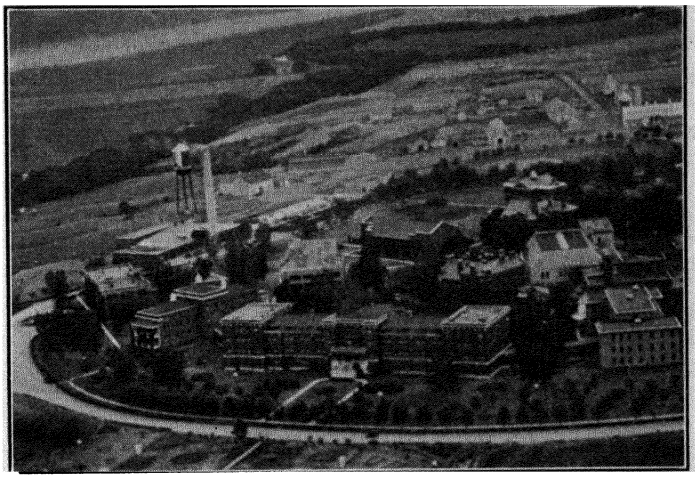
(How does your state, county, or city care for the mentally deficient? Name the various methods of caring for the mentally deficient. Tell how the special training classes are superior to most home or institutional care for these children. Do you favor care for all defectives at public expense, unless they can be made self-supporting? How do you account for most of the work of a corrective nature in only a few states and communities?)

The Mentally Defective. — Any mental maladjustment which may cause a rather radical departure from the normal may be termed mental disease or mental defectiveness. Any person who acts in an abnormal manner for any great length of time may be suspected of being mentally unbalanced. *Insanity* is a term which may be applied to a person who is deranged, either temporarily or permanently, after enjoying a normal mind. Insanity is a legal term and does not apply generally to the mentally defective.

Frequency and Probability of Insanity. — In 1910, the number of admissions to hospitals for mental diseases was sixty-six

per 100,000 population over fifteen years of age; later, in 1923, it was eighty-two. In 1923, for every 100,000 population, over fifteen years of age, in the United States, there were 240 patients in mental hospitals. By 1938 this number had arisen to 384.

At the beginning of 1938 there were 499,879 patients on the books of hospitals for mental diseases. Of this number, 424,028



A MODERN HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE

This is an airplane view of the State Hospital at Jamestown, North Dakota.

were in state hospitals, 38,735 in county and city hospitals, and 11,655 in private hospitals.[1] Out of some 800,000 hospital beds in the country, 531,000 are occupied by mental and nervous cases.

Data presented at the 1938 meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science gave a figure of 3 million persons temporarily or permanently disabled by mental diseases and mental deficiency at any given time. The data estimated

[1] Bureau of the Census, *Patients in Hospitals for Mental Disease*, 1938, Washington, D. C., May 27, 1940.

hat 5 million dependents were deprived of their support because of such illness and that the total number of those suffering as a result of mental diseases and deficiency runs to around 14½ millions on any given day.

The probability of insanity, as is well known, increases with age. This point is well illustrated from a study in New York State, made by Ogburn and Winston. They say:

> The probability of a young white man in New York State from 15 to 20 years old becoming sick enough to be sent, and being sent, to a hospital for mental disease is 1 in 2500, while for men aged 35–39, the chances are 1 in 1000.[1]

To substantiate their point, Ogburn and Winston submit the following table.

TABLE L. PROBABILITY OF INSANITY IN NEW YORK STATE, ACCORDING TO AGE[2]

Age in Years	One Out Of
15–19	2504
20–24	1394
25–29	1246
30–34	1177
35–39	1036
40–44	1061
45–49	1126
50–54	1150
55–59	995
60–64	850
65–69	630
70–74	543
75–79	465
80–89	409
90–99	230

[1] Ogburn, W. F., and Winston, Ellen, "The Frequency and Probability of Insanity," *American Journal of Sociology*, 34 : 822–831, March, 1929.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 824.

The preceding table shows the frequency of insanity according to age groups and as measured by those in mental hospitals. We must remember that there are a number of insane persons who never reach institutions.

As to the probability of insanity during one's lifetime, Ogburn and Winston remark:

> It seems to be a fact that the chances of a white person 15 years old in such a state as New York or Massachusetts being committed to a hospital for mental diseases during the course of a life-time (the mortality and commitment rates remaining the same as in 1920) are about 1 in 20, and that very probably the chances of developing a psychosis or severe incapacitating neurosis, whether sent to a hospital or not, are somewhere near 1 in 10.[1]

Some Causes of Mental Disease. — Formerly all mental troubles were thought to be inherited. The taint of insanity was supposed to run through the family and to be visited on each succeeding generation. People who misbehaved seriously were formerly considered "crazy" because of the influence of the devil, who supposedly got inside and made one do things he should not. It is generally believed that certain families are more likely to develop mental diseases than others, just as certain families seem more susceptible to cancer, tuberculosis, or heart trouble.

In many cases there are physical causes of insanity, such as abnormal glands, the use of drugs, industrial poisoning, alcoholism, pellagra, or lead poisoning. In some cases, diseased tonsils, tumors, long-neglected teeth, kidney disorders, and similar conditions may be contributing causes for insanity, and their removal or cure will usually produce a rapid change for the better.

The seed of mental disorder may be implanted into the young child by harsh treatment, excessive fondling and babying by parents, or too close association with quarrelsome, unhappy, or

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 831.

poorly adjusted persons. Any of the above conditions may so influence the child's personality as to make him offensive to society. If one's environment presses too hard upon him, he is likely to become mentally diseased. Anyone who is pressed too much by his environment may suffer from mental disorders.

Neurotic (Nervous) Cases. — People who have nervous disorders are generally included in the following classes of mental difficulties: hysteria, neurasthenia, psychasthenia, and drug addicts. *Psychasthenia* is considered the most complicated of the nervous disorders, because its symptoms are both intellectual and emotional — fears, doubts, anxieties, compulsions, and the like. These people have no objects to which they can point, but they enjoy telling of the many things which exist in their own minds.

1. *Neurasthenia* is somewhat similar to psychasthenia in that there is nothing to show, but there is a great deal of which one may complain. His complaints in this case are largely physical — pains, aches, weaknesses, fatigue, tears, sleeplessness, etc. The neurasthenic is positively sure that his troubles arise outside himself. Doctors may examine him from time to time, but he refuses to believe that serious physical conditions do not exist. Then he goes to see another doctor and gets the same results, unless the second doctor is a "quack."

2. *Hysteria* is another type of behavior in which the patient has nothing to say. He merely lets the symptoms speak for themselves. This individual's troubles are always physical and very serious; they are never mental according to his ideas.

3. *Anxiety neurosis* is a mental condition which makes one liable to persistent fear of the future. The insecurity of our modern industrial order is responsible for such a condition. Many of those suffering from an anxiety neurosis say they do not know where the next morsel of food is coming from. They are also fearful that they will get no clothing when their present

clothes wear out. If the strain of insecurity is lessened, the condition may improve.

Treatment of Nervous Cases. — Many of the conditions which cause neuroses are aggravated from one's childhood. Others have developed too far in the wrong direction to be helped much by the school. Many of those with few hardships find it difficult to endure the strain of modern times. If one can get the neurotic to see into his own mental condition, a good start will have been made. Many times the physical health is low and needs to be built up. Operations are often successful in restoring normality.

Psychoses. — A psychotic usually is judged legally insane. There are many varieties of psychoses, each with a characteristic symptom.

1. *Hallucinations* are based on false impressions. One hears certain noises at night. The house may be haunted. There may be imaginary voices or objects which have never, and never will, exist.

2. *Delusions* are false beliefs which are cherished even though they may be wrong or false. The person may imagine himself a great personage — Lincoln, Shakespeare, King George, or even God. He may take the opposite view and consider himself a miserable sinner, an outcast of society, a friendless person, alone in the world, or one whose influence other people want to destroy.

3. *Illusions* are misinterpretations of actual sensations. A person may fancy that certain tastes are poison, or that certain objects about him are harmful.

4. *Obsessions* are persistent ideas, emotions, or impulses, which are hard to control. One may have doubts concerning his friends or his relatives. There is usually one fear which is above all others. He may say that he has been injured or has lost a great deal of money.

5. *Flight of ideas* is a state of confusion in which there is a lack of proper co-ordination and, consequently, poor association or faulty thinking.

6. *Exaltation* or *mania* is a state of unusual happiness, often combined with tireless energy. There may be alternating periods of happiness and depression.

7. *Depression* is a state of hopelessness, generally followed by a desire to end everything.

8. *Apathy* is a condition attended by inattention to outside affairs. There is no concern, and the emotions fail to respond to usual stimuli.

The Treatment of the Mentally Ill. — Many people have long held that the mentally ill are incurable and that about all that may be done is to institutionalize them. This theory exists in spite of the fact that some 17 per cent of mental patients fully recover and that another 29 per cent recover sufficiently to be sent home. This theory has led to the operation of many mental hospitals without adequate attention to the care and treatment of patients.

Also, in many instances mental hospitals have been administered from top to bottom by political appointees who have used the hospitals as a source of political patronage. Such practices not only retard treatment programs, but also waste the taxpayers' money. As Albert Deutsch has so well phrased the situation: "The solution to the state hospital program . . . won't be found in bricks and mortar alone. Even more urgent is the need for revamping institutional operation." [1]

In addition to being outworn, dilapidated structures, many mental hospitals are pathetically overcrowded. Some authorities indicate that at least 150,000 more beds are urgently needed in mental hospitals. In order to supply such beds, federal aid has been frequently suggested.

[1] *PM Magazine*, August 8, 1941, p. 12.

Some experts estimate that the mental hospitals have less than 50 per cent of the doctors they need and that there is serious need for more than 10,000 nurses and attendants to care for the mentally ill. Especially serious is the need for physicians trained in psychiatry and nurses trained especially for the care and treatment of mental patients. The states need also to pay better for positions in mental hospitals and to make tenure secure in order to attract the best of medical and nursing talent.

Within the last two decades a number of treatments for mental diseases have been perfected. By hydrotherapy, the use of drugs such as insulin, occupational therapy, surgery, and the use of certain food elements, as vitamins, thousands of fully cured mental patients are being returned annually to their homes. About 10 per cent of all mental diseases may be traced to a syphilitic condition. The great efforts now being made to stamp out this disease will be reflected in a reduced insanity rate. It is estimated that around fifteen out of every hundred mental patients are victims of alcoholism; hence the wisdom of the effective control of the sale and use of alcohol.

Deutsch points out that

> Social and economic insecurity plays a considerable role in mental disorders. Available figures indicate that economic crises have done much damage to the nation's mental health. Further expansion of economic and social security would undoubtedly prove a great preventive measure against mental disease.[1]

While it is true that there is much to be learned about mental disease, it is equally true that only a small proportion of the knowledge we have relative to mental disease is being applied.

Mental hygiene programs should be developed in order to teach the problems of mental health, which is just as important as physical health. There should be studies of the mental health

[1] *P M Magazine*, August 8, 1941, p. 12.

of families in which there is a tendency toward any mental disease. Every child should have the privilege of attending nursery school and kindergarten. This will allow inspection of many of the cases which otherwise become social problems. If one can get along in the community and is morally, emotionally, socially, and economically stable, he may be said to be in mental health. If he can be calm, cheerful, friendly, independent, and free from hurries and worries, he is likely to be in mental health.

We shall end this discussion on mental diseases with a quotation from Ogburn and Winston. They say:

> That the chance of going insane is nearly 1 in 10 (the chances of going to a mental hospital, 1 in 20) is a very striking fact. What does it mean? . . . If such mental disorders are a result of psychological experiences, then such a probability of insanity is an index of a psychological maladjustment of man and is a severe indictment of our civilization. If insanity is due to physiological rather than to psychological experiences, the great frequency of insanity may be an indictment of our culture, not on its psychological side, but rather because of its physical aspects, such as food, air, sunlight, germs, etc. If insanity with an organic origin should be determined by heredity, no such charge can be brought against modern life.[1]

(Have your librarian obtain copies of any surveys of mental hospitals which have been made in your state and use these as a basis for an extended study of the problem of feeble-mindedness and insanity in your state. As a class project, set up a functional mental hygiene program in your school. Follow this up and evaluate it from time to time.)

Physical Deficiency. — We have discussed somewhat in detail the scope and importance of mental deficiency, but physical deficiency is even more prominent and more costly. Certain individuals, through physical deficiency, are eliminated from living lives of normal individuals and must be given special tutoring or institutional training if they are to succeed.

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[1] Ogburn and Winston, *op. cit.*, p. 829.

The blind and deaf belong in this class. They are deprived of two of the major contacts with their fellows. The blind are more helpless and dependent and, therefore, need more special training. There are numerous industrial schools for the blind, where many of the inmates acquire skill in handwork and in the operation of certain machines.

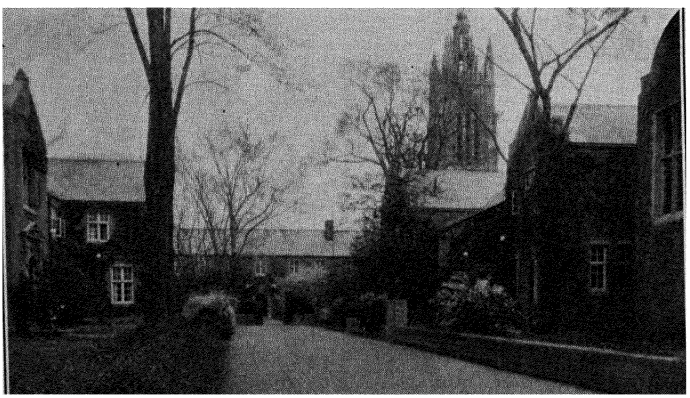
Courtesy Perkins Institution

BLIND BOYS READING

Care and Rehabilitation of the Blind. — The first Federal Census of the blind was made in 1830, and the first school for the blind was established in Boston in the same year. In 1832 and 1833 schools were opened in Pennsylvania and New York. By 1929 thirty-nine states had schools for the blind. Today each state makes some provision for the education of blind children either by providing one or more schools for them or by paying for their instruction in private institutions.

Instruction of blind persons involves the training of other senses, especially those of touch and hearing, to such an extent that they may compensate in part for the lack of sight.

By agreement made in 1932, a system of raised dots, devised by Louis Braille, and known as "Braille," has become the standard method of teaching the blind. The child reads by means of its fingers and writes by using a "Braille slate" or a



Courtesy Perkins Institution

THE PERKINS INSTITUTION FOR THE BLIND AT WATERTOWN, MASSACHUSETTS

Braille typewriter. Many of the more gifted children now pursue the same public school program as nonhandicapped children.

Today the blind may be seen in many types of activity, and they are making a success of their work. They may be found in almost every type of occupation. Perhaps more are employed in handicrafts and in vending merchandise in public buildings than in any other pursuits. Other blind persons may be found engaged in religion, literature, art, law, politics, agriculture, and music.

Notable work is being done today in the prevention of blind-

ness and in sight conservation. It is estimated that two out of every 1000 children need instruction in sight conservation classes. There are perhaps 750 such classes in public schools today, most of them being in urban areas.

Many blind persons are provided for through state plans for assistance to the blind, set up under the Federal Social Security Act.

In July, 1941, 74,017 persons were receiving aid to the blind, the average grant per recipient being $25.62 per month. All states now have such assistance programs for the blind.

(What is being done toward the prevention of blindness and for sight conservation in your community? What is being done in your state toward the rehabilitation of blind persons?)

The Deaf. — The term "deaf and dumb" is no longer recognized by those who work with the deaf. The deaf person may be intelligent and may be able to speak if he can be enabled to hear. At one time, the deaf were regarded as idiots and were considered a menace to society. There are approximately a million people who have hearing so defective as to require special training. Only three per cent of the children recently reported deaf are totally deaf. The average of these have 25 per cent normal hearing.

There are in the United States around seventy schools for the deaf. The federal government has made provision for Gallaudet College in Washington, D. C., in which very efficient instruction is offered to deaf persons who have attained college standing.

(What is being done in your community toward preventing deafness and conserving hearing?)

The Epileptics. — There are varying degrees of epilepsy. The worst forms, fits and convulsions, are considered incurable, but milder forms yield to proper treatment. When people have the more violent forms, it is desirable to keep them in institutions

which are properly provided with the most efficient care. All the states, except five, have such institutions. There are in the United States about 600,000 epileptics, most of whom are socially unbalanced. Of these, only about 65,000 are in institutions of any type, and only about 18,000 were in state institutions in 1941.

The Crippled. — Many children who have had scarlet fever, spinal meningitis, infantile paralysis, tuberculosis of the bone, and conditions of a like nature have become seriously handicapped, because they are considered hopeless cripples. As discussed in another chapter, modern industry also claims a large number of the adult population who become injured, who receive a small sum of money, and are then released to society. Some years ago there was organized the Federal Board for Vocational Education, which provides training to overcome such conditions.

The year 1936 marked the beginning of a new era in the care of crippled children in the United States. During that year federal funds totaling $732,500 went to states for services for crippled children in accordance with plans federally approved as of August 14, 1935. By 1939 the federal payments had reached the sum of $2,997,914.77. State registers of crippled children grew from 85,000 as of September 30, 1936, to 249,000 as of December 31, 1939.

Within the states various forms of crippled children's agencies have been established. The principal responsibilities of the agencies are, however, in general the same, namely:

1. To locate children in need of care and to maintain a register of them.

2. To arrange for the diagnosis and treatment of crippled children at clinic centers.

3. To arrange for surgical and medical care by orthopedic surgeons and physicians at selected hospitals.

4. To arrange for treatment and care of children living at home.

5. To place children, when necessary, in convalescent homes or foster homes.

6. To provide or arrange for physical therapy treatment after the child has returned home.

7. To provide public-health nursing and medical social services to the family for the purpose of continuing the care of the child and helping him to make a social adjustment in the family, at school, and in the neighborhood.

8. To refer the child for training to the state vocational rehabilitation service.[1]

In spite of the great work that has been done in the rehabilitation of crippled children, there are still many unsolved problems among crippled children and among crippled adults.

It is estimated that 400,000 children (1942) suffer from rheumatic heart disease; that approximately 60,000 have severe visual defects; and that several million school children need eyeglasses. It is estimated that 1,500,000 children have defective hearing, and that two thirds of all school children have dental defects.

The Children's Bureau stresses the need for the further development of services for handicapped children in the following language:

> Continued emphasis is needed in all phases of the quality of care, including (1) direction by physicians for all state crippled children's programs, preferably by physicians who have had pediatric and public health training and experience; (2) development of techniques and procedures for periodic review of quality of care; (3) medical supervision by qualified pediatricians in clinics, hospitals, convalescent and foster homes, and, where possible, the child's own home; (4) improvement in the method of prescribing and

[1] Adapted from *Services for Crippled Children*, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., 1941, p. 9.

supervising physical therapy services; (5) further training for professional personnel on state and local staffs; and (6) instruction of local practicing physicians in the early recognition and prevention of crippling conditions.[1]

(Make a survey of your community to determine if there are crippled children whose handicaps are not being treated. Have a nurse or physician interested in crippled children's work appear before your group and discuss the problems of crippled children.)

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Give a summary list of the important mental diseases.
2. Distinguish between defective and diseased persons.
3. What is meant by the term "mental hygiene"?
4. Make a report of a visit to a hospital for the insane.
5. Debate: "Resolved, That all states should be required to care for the mentally defective."
6. Outline a plan for reducing feeble-mindedness and insanity in your state.
7. What is your state doing to aid the crippled? The blind and the deaf?
8. Outline a mental hygiene program for your school.
9. Find out what is being done in your community for the rehabilitation of blind and crippled persons.

VOCABULARY STUDY

apathy	idiot	neurasthenia	neurosis
delusion	illusion	obsession	imbecile
depression	defective	psychasthenia	insane
psychiatrist	hallucination	moron	hysteria
intelligence quotient	psychosis	hydrotherapy	alcoholism

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[1] Adapted from *Services for Crippled Children*, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., p. 44, 1941.

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CHAPTER XX

EDUCATION AND THE CHANGING SOCIAL ORDER

Democratic Ideology at Work. — Among the first expressions of democratic accomplishment current to our time are the publicly supported elementary and secondary schools and institutions of higher learning. Recently, the nation's 208,235 public elementary and secondary schools enrolled 24,562,473 pupils and had an average daily attendance of 21,031,322. These schools were taught by 858,888 teachers who received an average annual salary of $1507. At the same time, institutions of higher learning enrolled 1,403,990 students.

Aside from worthy accomplishments, the tasks faced by the nation's schools are tremendous. Aside from training a population to deal adequately with such problems as the use and control of atomic energy, international co-operation, full employment and the future of private enterprise, the mere task of raising the general educational levels of the population is tremendous. For example: in a typical year the median years of school completed by persons 25 years old and over was 8.4 years for the total population, 5.7 years for Negroes, 8.7 years for the urban population and 7.7 years for the rural-farm population.

(Cite needs for education in your community. How does the educational level of the people of your state compare with other states?)

Adult Education Also Necessary. — The rapid change in our society, accompanied by changes in the educational needs of individuals, makes it impossible for schools to train their graduates well enough to serve for all time their educational needs.

Therefore, to serve the rapidly increasing educational needs of the out-of-school population, the adult education movement has developed as one of the important educational advancements of the twentieth century.

It was formerly considered folly for one to pursue his education beyond the early twenties. It was even believed that one could learn effectively only during the early years of life. Now education is generally regarded as a continuous process which begins at birth and continues into the late adult years. The idea also that learning is a product of the classroom, and that one's education is completed when one leaves the classroom, is rapidly passing.

Varied Interests of Adults. — The purpose in continuing adult education or self-improvement is not confined solely to the individual who wants to make vocational advancement. Many attend adult classes who are there for purely cultural or social improvement. There are others who are interested in civilian defense or personality and health improvement. One of the very popular, as well as profitable, classes now being offered by a leading adult school is that of family relations. This course takes up the various problems of the American family and analyzes them in the light of modern living. Commercial training is popular with adults who wish to improve their work on the job and who are also looking forward to the time that it may be necessary to make changes. Recently the installation of dial telephones caused a large number of people to seek immediate employment elsewhere. Many of these were forced to take different or additional training in order to secure employment. If adult education had not been available, this training would have proved very expensive.

Another phase of adult education is that of regular courses leading to credit and diplomas in high school or college. Many persons leave high school or college before completing the courses

for a diploma. Some of the reasons for leaving are: (1) in order to work, (2) because of illness, (3) marriage, (4) lack of proper guidance, resulting in discouragement, (5) unemployment of the father or person responsible for supporting the family. Many find that they are able to resume their courses again and work enthusiastically for credits. It is interesting to watch persons who have been out of school for years as they become interested in furthering their education. They are eagerly doing what they prefer to do and know what they are about.

(Develop a plan for adult education in your community. What may be done in your school and community to bridge the gap between school and the home?)

Professional Improvement. — Doctors who keep posted on the developments in the medical world are constantly studying. Many times they go to central clinics or take "refresher courses," where they listen to lectures and witness demonstrations by men of high standing in the field of medicine. Teachers take extension courses, summer work, or attend Saturday classes in order to improve. Lawyers take evening classes or correspondence courses in order to specialize in some particular phase of law. The professional man who advances is one who avails himself of every service for improvement.

Services of the Public Library. — The public library is one of the greatest forces in adult education. The libraries have been important contributors to the advancement of American culture. The earlier a person takes an interest in reading, the more likely he is to develop proper reading habits. The adult who is interested may go to his local library and obtain information and assistance on almost any question or problem. The librarian can be of much assistance by (1) making all library facilities accessible and immediately available; (2) suggesting and trying out new materials; (3) noting the reaction of the

pupils to materials and reporting this to teachers; (4) increasing the kind and amount of materials by arrangements with other libraries; (5) placing on reserve the materials most in demand and circulating these to pupils under the most practical and

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY *Keystone View Company*

The Empire State Building is at the left.

efficient methods; (6) selecting the proper group of books for the classroom library; (7) guiding the class during the assimilation period spent in the library; (8) compiling wide reading lists for each unit; (9) reporting to the teachers the interests manifested by pupils which might be incorporated within the unit.[1]

[1] Suggestions by Hanna Logasa, Librarian Emeritus, University High School, University of Chicago.

Pupils should be well served by the public library. Public and school libraries should prepare an instruction sheet in the use of the library. This sheet should instruct the pupils in the use of books, the selection of factual and other materials, the choice of authors who have different points of view. It is well to prepare a list of books for the less advanced students, and there can also be a list containing more advanced materials. The work of students in adult education should be carefully supervised and every opportunity offered to encourage them.

The librarian should be considered as a key individual who is interested in the learning process of adults. The best way to determine the rate and progress of learning is through co-operation with the library and following this up with tests based on the materials studied. Many of the public libraries are adding librarians whose work is entirely with adults. This is an important advancement and will bear fruit for the entire community. The alert adult will make the library an asset.

(If your community is not supplied with library services, work out a plan for such service. Visit a public library to learn how it functions. What are county and regional libraries and how do they operate?)

The National Youth Administration.[1] — Youth is the period of transition from childhood to the responsibilities of adulthood. The depression has left many scars and unsightly marks on adults who were only a short while ago our youth. These conditions have been produced by many forces. Among these have been: (1) the difficulties in securing an adequate education, (2) failure to obtain suitable employment in the economic system of the United States, (3) the lure of "easy money" through

[1] Because of shifts in governmental agencies, the teacher and student may well ascertain the present status of youth service organizations. The discussions of N.Y.A. and C.C.C. are retained because they are likely to be used as patterns for youth organizations should federally supported work programs be needed in the future.

crime, and (4) the growth of radical organizations with their Utopian promises.

The National Youth Administration was organized to assist young people through the medium of jobs to obtain worthy training and later to secure more wholesome employment. This work is found in both high schools and colleges and is administered by them. Work is also provided for young persons who are out of school and unemployed to enable them to earn a small income and receive work experience which will aid in finding a job.

This actual work experience is supplemented with vocational counseling and guidance. Materials have been prepared which set forth, in simple terms, the types of positions available and the preparation required in such work. Full co-operation has been given counseling and guidance departments in high schools and colleges. State employment agencies have also assisted in placing these workers. Most of the cities have co-operated in carrying out the plan of training for the proper job or vocation and have furnished employment to many who have been trained by the N.Y.A.

Extent of National Youth Administration Activities. — According to Aubrey Williams, Director, National Youth Administration:

> The student aid program of the National Youth Administration, providing stipends through jobs to 259,697 high school students, 107,450 college students, and 3028 graduate students, who could not otherwise have continued their education, is of particular interest to people in the field of education. We in America are proud of the fact that one of the first acts of the people who settled this country was to recognize the principle of free education for all children.[1]

In order to prevent bureaucratic tendencies the administration of the N.Y.A. program is carried out by each high school or

[1] *The Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXI, p. 378, April, 1939.

college having workers. It is the responsibility of the school to select the projects, supervise the work of the students, and assist them in making the most of their educational opportunity. This is a successful demonstration of federal aid to education without federal dictation or control of the educational policy.

The training of youth is a pressing problem. It is, however, one of the many problems confronting our society. To say that the National Youth Administration will be able to solve all the problems of youth would be to make claims which no one believes. It is fair to say that it is a method of transition into our complicated culture. It is an agency for the conservation of our greatest resource — the youth of our land. Those who use the assistance in the right manner will be aiding youth in a worthy preparation for citizenship in our democracy.

(What does the N.Y.A. do in your community? What might it do? Critically evaluate the theory back of the origin of the N.Y.A.)

Education in the C.C.C. — The Civilian Conservation Corps was organized as an emergency relief agency, but it was also an educational institution. Those who visited the camps saw not only the results of the work program, but also the sanitation, the healthy men, and the broad educational program. Guidance was an important feature of C.C.C. educational activity. It aided the boys in making adjustment to camp life, in the selection of proper employment, and in preparing for this employment.

Those who had not completed the eighth-grade were given a chance to work with the public schools to obtain this training. Teachers taught the fundamentals, trades, occupations, dramatics, art, music, crafts, defense courses, and other subjects. All enrollees were given instruction in health and hygiene and in the duties and privileges of citizenship.

The effects of the C.C.C. have been reflected in the reports of

the F.B.I. In a two-year period the age of the largest crime group has risen from nineteen to twenty-two years. Besides lessening crime among our younger people, the camps went far toward providing employment and adjustment to a worthy group of American citizens. Many feel that a constructive pro-

Courtesy U. S. Forest Service

REFORESTING BY THE C.C.C. BOYS

gram of this type should have been made permanent in the United States.

(Evaluate the philosophy and accomplishment of the C.C.C. as you know it.)

Community Youth Programs. — The creative energies and the dynamic spirit of the youth of America must be used to the advantage of our entire civilization. A number of surveys have been conducted to determine what youth do, what youth think, and what the potentialities of youth are. These surveys are of

immense value if they are followed up with a constructive program of action.

One of the surest ways of conserving American youth is to use their vitality and energies in the strengthening of our nation. Today three to four million young Americans between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four are out of school, and many are totally unemployed. This represents a population larger than ten of our forty-eight states. There are hopeful signs that a large number of these will be absorbed in private industry within the next few years.

While adjustments are being made, youth must know what is happening in the country. We must allow them to meet in public forums to discuss the problems which weigh heavily upon the nation. We must provide them with data which will tell the truth about existing conditions. There must be a program based on satisfying the energies and longings of youth and at the same time it must be socially constructive and economically sound. There are many things the communities can do.

(1) One is the development of an educational program which is attractive and which will give an opportunity for vocational and social guidance. Such a program will need to be suited to the abilities of the students and must be adjusted to the needs of the pupils and the conditions of the community. This type of program will necessitate the fullest kind of co-operation between the home, the school, and the community. It should not be expected that this type of program will bring immediate results which will be revolutionary. There will need to be experimenting, testing, and application of working principles.

(2) Aid must be given to deserving students who desire to pursue their studies further, but who are financially unable to continue. The educational program should include much self-activity. Work should be provided to deserving young men and women who want to advance. Each community should be

carefully surveyed to determine the number of part-time jobs available to those who wish to continue their work and education.

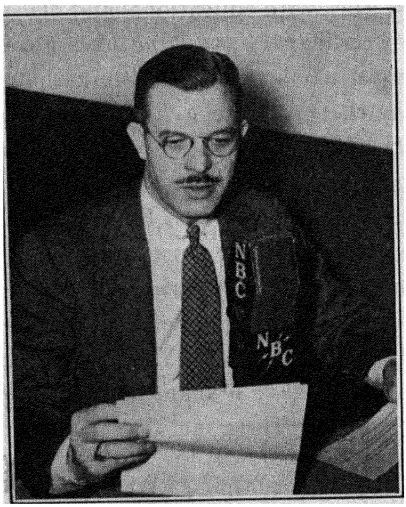
(3) Youth centers should be created which will have activities centered around the home, the school, the church, and the community. These centers should provide recreational and social activities. They should work with educational and placement agencies in order to give youth every available advantage.

(4) Youth must be given a more wholesome philosophy of life. The idea that present-day youth constitute a *lost* generation should be exploded. No part of our civilization is more lost than any other. This is not an age of dominance by the old: witness the happenings in Europe, where youth have been in the lead for some time. The ideals of youth must be in accord with the nature of our government and our American principles of living. There is no profit in building structures for our youth on ideals and Utopias that do not exist. Youth must be allowed to learn the facts and must have a share in moulding anew our philosophy of living based on these facts.

(What programs serve youth in your community? What unmet needs are there, and how might they be served? Study the youth organizations of other countries. What future do the armed forces of the country offer youth?)

Audio-Visual Education. — The radio has become an essential part of American democracy and culture. It can be one of the most helpful aids to modern teaching, or it can be abused and misused so that it falls into disrepute. No phase of our education requires more careful planning and guidance than radio education. Good programs will build a better society; poor programs will lower the standards of radio and of the listeners as well. Radio education falls into a number of classes. The first which we shall consider is the public affairs broadcast.

Public forums, enlightenment concerning taxes, a new interest in government, and economic necessity have driven the average man to take a greater interest in economic, political, and social welfare. There is no doubt that the radio is the most impelling force for moving men and nations to action that has been devised in modern times. When the President of the United States wants to stir the nation to immediate action, he makes a stirring appeal over the radio. When there is a national emergency, the radio is the great instrument for keeping the people informed. Since the radio is so powerful, the public affairs broadcast must be nonpolitical, nonpartisan, and free from prejudice and class hatreds.



Courtesy National Broadcasting Company

A NEWS COMMENTATOR

Having the news analyzed on the radio helps to keep the public enlightened about world affairs.

The second type of program is the cultural and educational broadcast. This kind of program is one in which pupils may participate in many ways. They may be stimulated to do research work and to give interesting and lively programs. It is a wonderful opportunity for training in public speaking and is an excellent way of co-ordinating and integrating the work in English and the social studies. No program should be given by pupils unless it has been practiced and is considered worthy of broadcasting. Pupils should be allowed to express their views, but these views should not be such as to stir up controversies between the community and the school.

The radio may be used in the classroom as an important teaching device. A word of caution should go with this use. It is not to be considered as a recreational or social device. It is as much a part of the program as class discussion or supervised study. When Congress is in session and their deliberations are being broadcast, the classroom teachers should be allowed the use of the radio. A few minutes' time in explaining what is to be expected and a definite understanding that the pupils are to profit from the broadcast will aid much in holding the interest of the pupils. There are special historical programs which appear from time to time. The teacher and pupils should decide together on the programs used. A good plan is to have a radio committee which keeps posted on the better programs.

The third type of program on the radio is entertainment. The school which stays abreast of the times should find out the programs to which the pupils are listening Interest in music may be developed in a way that will secure a more complete music program in the community. Conservation programs should come to the attention of youth. Reactions to facts vividly and dramatically stated over the radio will be far different from the reactions to material taken from an encyclopedia. Those who have heard descriptions of the results of total warfare in the world will think twice of the Orson Welles' description of the Martian attack on the Atlantic seaboard. Many pupils will get a wholesome conception of literature by listening to the proper type of dramatization.

Many schools have a radio in every classroom. More are rapidly installing them. It goes to prove that radio is of tremendous importance in the life of the people. We must be prepared to guard against propaganda of a damaging type and must also allow both sides of questions, whether we like them or not. Pupils and teachers should be aware of changes taking

tion. American principles decree that it shall be used for and by Americans.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Show why there is an increasing need for adult education.
2. Name the requirements for an efficient librarian.
3. Debate: Resolved, That the C.C.C camps should have compulsory military training.
4. Name the changes which have taken place in the schools of your community in the last five years.
5. Make a list of films suitable for students of social science.
6. Visit the adult education center of your community and report your observations to the class.
7. Indicate the effect of sound on audio-visual education.

VOCABULARY STUDY

audio-visual
National Youth Administration
adult education
extension courses
Civilian Conservation Corps
learning
youth centers
civilian defense

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CHAPTER XXI

THE SOCIAL OUTLOOK

Prediction Difficult. — It is not enough to deal with the social life and social problems of the past or present. We must increasingly be concerned with the future. We have, accordingly, in the various chapters tried to look into the future and predict future trends. In this chapter we shall attempt some additional predictions. While these predictions are made, using the best source materials available, the prediction of future social trends is a hazardous business, but, at the same time, a very valuable undertaking.

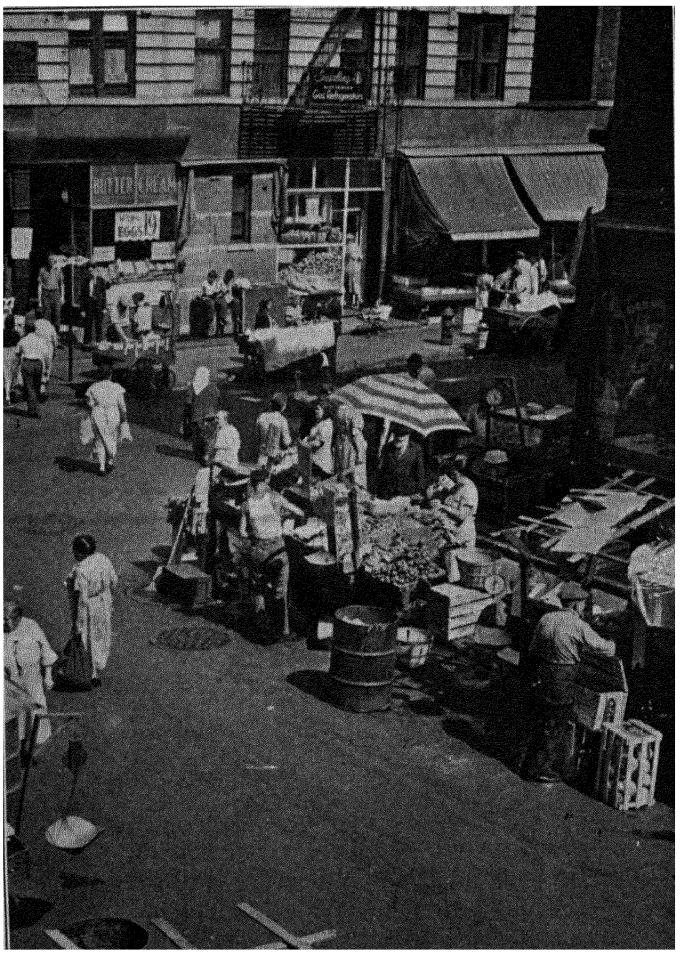
There are some factors which will certainly characterize American society fifty years from now. We shall surely need food. Just what items will comprise the more important articles of diet, however, and how the foods will be served, it is impossible to say. That we shall need some form of shelter fifty years from now is also certain, but the type of house we are likely to occupy is not easily predicted at the present time. We shall also need some form of medical service fifty years from now, but the exact type which we shall have is not easy to describe.

(Make a list of the things you think the American people may be doing fifty years hence which are different from the things people are doing now.)

Will Life Be Longer? — Two things are of consequence about one's life. It is important, first, that life be long, and, second, that it be full and rich. To have to sacrifice either longevity or richness is pathetic.

As we look backward a few years, we see that we have made

remarkable progress in preserving life and in lengthening it. A baby born today may expect to live around 65 years, whereas in 1921 the expectation was 49.24 years. A child today has an



Free-Lance Photographers Guild

OPEN AIR MARKET IN NEW YORK

Do you think food will be sold in this way fifty years from now?

expectation of life about fifteen years greater than his parents had at birth.

Out of every 1000 children born in 1901, nearly 125 died in their first year, but by 1940 this loss was reduced to forty-six. Out of 1000 children born alive in 1901, about 25 per cent died before reaching the age of twenty-five years; today 25 per cent will not have died until they reach the late fifties.

The outlook for a longer life in the future is distinctly heartening. While some diseases, as cancer, heart difficulties, cerebral hemorrhages, and the like, are increasing, any day is likely to bring forth a preventive and a cure for any one of these diseases. With a rich program of health education, coupled with an effective program of preventive and curative medicine, and a knowledge of proper diet, man is likely to add ten years to his life span within the next fifty years.

(What are the chief agencies working toward lengthening and preserving life in your county, city, or state? What would you set up as the elements of a rich life?)

Where May We Live? — Where we shall live within the next fifty years is a question which should concern us. Shall we continue to move to the towns and cities, or shall we turn back to the farms in the future, as we have so often done during depression periods?

While people are likely to migrate to any section of our country which offers any considerable degree of economic opportunity, the future looks as if we may become more of a nation of suburban dwellers than ever before. Most of the cities are fairly well congested at their centers today. Real estate values near the central business districts of the cities are usually so high that it is not economical to use the central areas of cities for residential purposes. The result is that urban dwellers are moving more into the suburbs. In the suburban areas, rents

are lower, and the population may escape much congestion. In addition, from the suburban areas the central section of the city is accessible by automobile, subway, elevated railway, bus, or inter-urban. With good roads, rural electrification, a pure water supply, and other conveniences, people in the suburban

Courtesy City Housing Corporation

THE MODEL TOWN OF RADBURN, NEW JERSEY

In the years to come, the United States will have more planned towns like Radburn.

areas may have the advantages of city life without its many disadvantages and at the same time have some rural advantages.

The tendency is more marked today than formerly for rural people who are moving to the city to settle in the suburban areas, rather than to move directly into the central section of the city. In the suburban areas, the process of adjustment of rural peoples to the urban environment becomes easier than

when they move directly into the "heart" of the city. This trend in population presents a tremendous challenge to city-planning agencies to consider more carefully suburban areas in their planning.

Our small towns and cities are more and more likely to become centers for rural trade, recreation, church and school attendance, and other services in the future. As improved roads are extended to all rural peoples, and means of transportation improve, this will be easily possible. Also, because of these same conveniences, the rural community of tomorrow will be larger in area than it is today. People will come from miles around by automobile over good roads to attend the rural church or rural school.

(How would the threat of uncontrolled atomic energy affect where we may live and work? What is your city doing toward planning for effective living?)

What May Be the Nature of Our Work? — It is hard to predict occupational trends within the next fifty years. New inventions and discoveries will develop new fields of work and new specialties. The distribution of the working population is likely to depend somewhat upon what section of the United States develops these new industries.

While at the present time we are gearing our economic machinery to fight an extended war, one is probably safe in predicting that more and more of our population will engage in the production of so-called "luxury" goods after the war is over. Then, too, the various services, which our increasing standards of living are likely to demand, will attract more and more persons into the service occupations, as salesmanship, hairdressing and manicuring, servicing automobiles, restaurant service, and similar types of occupation which we class as "services."

With our emphasis upon the conservation of human and natural resources, it is obvious that more and more people will be absorbed into those fields of activity having to do with various phases of conservation.

We are, without a doubt, well on the road to a shorter work day and a shorter work week. With this condition will come a demand for more and more persons to direct leisure-time activities and to provide for leisure-time opportunities.

(What new industries and occupations do you believe will develop within the next fifty years? What changes in occupations are taking place in your community?)

The Future of Wages. — For a long time America has been noted for its mass production. To consume the many products of our industries, we have had the buying public of our own land, and also, through our export trade, a potential market in every major port of the world. Time and the industrial development of other nations have greatly changed the world market, however. The United States now has many competitors, and, especially since the start of the Second World War, prospects of obtaining new markets with other nations are not particularly bright. As a result, America is turning her attention more and more to the buying power of her own people, realizing that mass production cannot go on without mass buying power. The situation is well described by Mr. W. J. Cameron, Vice-President of the Ford Motor Company, in the following quotation:

The largest, most varied and most constant market in the world is the wage-earning American people. They handle the bulk of the money; it is their needs and standards that keep the wheels turning. If they can't buy, it doesn't matter who else can or does. And their buying power is wages. Wages represent the nation's real working capital. Wages are to business what the flowing stream is to the mill wheel. Curtail wages, and you simply curtail the buying and paying power of your only customers. In this country, where all of us are workers and wage-earners together,

no other class has any economic importance. *A useful day's work for a proper day's pay* is the whole secret of economic stability, and no one on this planet understands what prevents it, with all the elements of work and wages waiting here.[1]

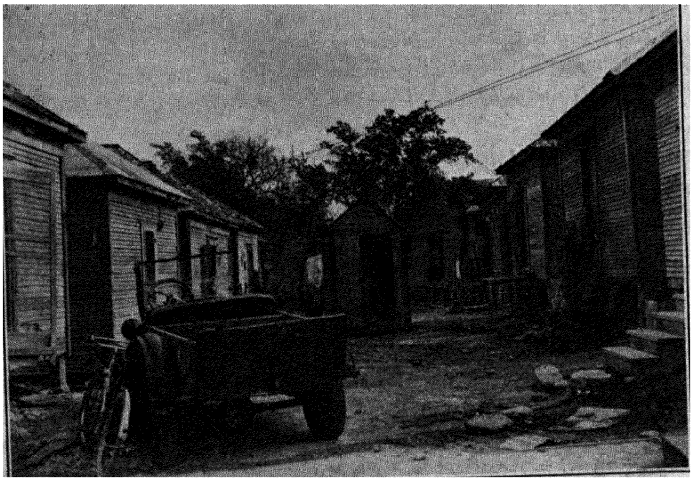
So at present, it looks as if the United States will give more consideration to the wages of her workers in the future than she has in the past. This is likely to be along the lines of minimum wages, based on health and decency standards.

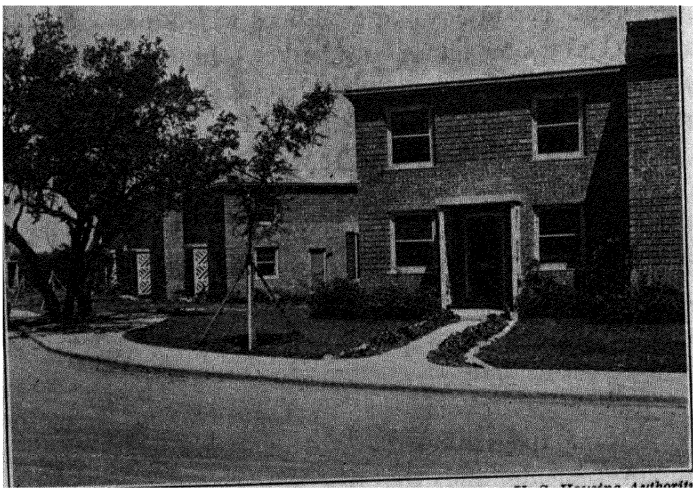
(Why are wages important? If minimum wage scales are unconstitutional, how may minimum wage laws be made constitutional? What are the arguments for and against minimum wage laws?)

The Future Outlook for Welfare Work. — The present trend is very definitely toward a preventive rather than a remedial type of welfare work. That is, welfare workers are trying to prevent those conditions and situations which may later force people to become public welfare charges. In the future, we are likely to discourage reproduction among the mentally handicapped, if indeed we do not prevent it. When men are working, the government is likely to take from their wages a small weekly sum, which will be returned to them as unemployment or sickness benefits during periods of unemployment or illness, or as an old-age pension during their nonproductive or declining years.

There is no doubt that the methods of supporting public welfare work will change greatly within the next fifty years. The welfare functions of government are slowly but surely being realized. It appears that there will have to be changes in both state and national constitutions before the various state governments and the federal government can fully carry out the welfare plans which the public so sorely needs. Private welfare agencies will continue in existence, and indeed

[1] The quotation is from Mr. Cameron's weekly Ford Sunday Evening Hour broadcast, May 26, 1935.



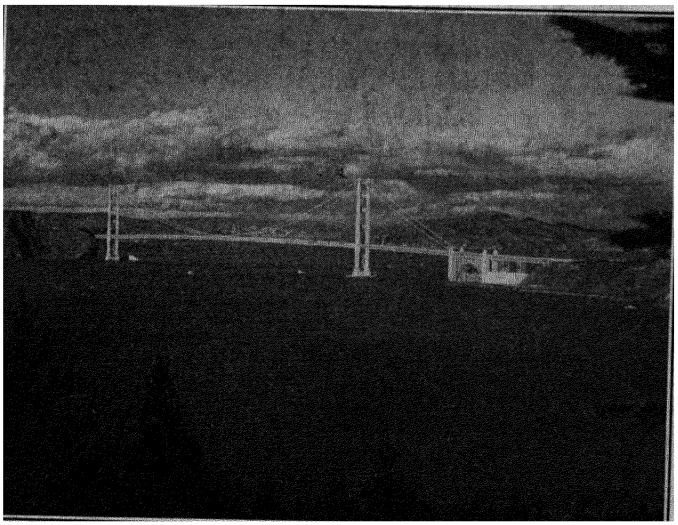


BEFORE AND AFTER *U. S. Housing Authority*

It doesn't seem possible that both pictures show the same place, but you can prove it by the tree. This is an example of what the United States Housing Authority is doing.

statement that "The only nations that have no problems are dead ones." He relates further that the existence of social problems indicates that a country is alive and is trying to accomplish something.

A nation that is attempting to tackle its problems through both group and individual action is a growing nation and one



Gabriel Moulin

THE GOLDEN GATE BRIDGE AT SAN FRANCISCO

Building this bridge was one of the greatest of engineering problems.

that is alert to the needs and problems of its people. We, as a nation of individuals, must learn better how to solve our own problems individually and collectively. The solution of many problems may be accomplished through individual effort, but only through co-operative or collective action can many of our problems be solved. An individual is capable of determining the amount of energy which goes into a job, but only through group effort may employment be stabilized or may the public health be safeguarded.

America is slowly but surely rising to the need for developing every individual as completely as possible in order that he may solve his own problems. At the same time it is increasingly making use of collective action. Such collective action is necessary to prevent the strangulation of human welfare by greedy, selfish individuals and interests. A great howl that the country is well on its way to decay will go up from such individuals when the government attempts to control them and their activities, but this howl will be lost in the more audible sound of great joy which will come from the great American population which has peace, prosperity, and plenty. In the language of the National Resources Board:

> Our American ideals are the greatest of our American resources — not our material assets, important as their massive totals are. The dynamic energy of our American people, our ingenuity in invention, our facility in organization, American courage and resourcefulness — these are our greatest treasures. Out of these qualities America was wrought by its builders, and on these qualities our future depends.
>
> Our free institutions, industrial and governmental, our democratic way of life, our high ideals of liberty and justice — these are more significant than our fertile lands, our masses of gold, our vast reserves of minerals, our great manufacturing and transportation systems.
>
> America is a symbol not only of wealth and power, but of human hope for a richer and finer life, opening out to all men who are willing to work together in a democratic way.[1]

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Write an essay on "The Plan of Things to Come," or on one of the topics in Suggestion No. 2.
2. Prepare a brief, concise statement of about 1000 words on one of the following topics:
   a. "The Changed America of 1970."
   b. "Wages in a New Era."
   c. "No More Frontiers."

[1] National Resources Planning Board, *Our National Resources: Facts and Problems*. Washington, D. C., 1940, p. 1.

d. "Some Unconquered American Frontiers."
e. "Where We Shall Live in 1980."
f. "The International Control of Atomic Energy."
g. "The Outlook for a Longer Life."
h. "The Outlook for Lasting Peace."
i. "My America of Tomorrow."

3. Study the Charter, organizations and accomplishments of the United Nations. Study particularly the functions of the Economic and Social Council and UNESCO.

4. What trends do you see in American life which indicate that the nation will or will not solve the major problems facing it?

VOCABULARY STUDY

predictable	adjustment	service	inalienable
congestion	minimum	suburban	wages
freedom	community	luxury goods	liberty

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