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HOME ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL
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The Educational Leader

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Mobilizing the Community for the Advancement of Home and Family Life

JOSEPHINE A. MARSHALL

That the family is a basic institution of society has been accepted without question since the beginning of civilization. As such it has been taken for granted and until comparatively recently has received no serious study. Its private character, its close association with the deepest emotions in human life, has held it sacred and inviolable from the searching eyes of investigation and study. "Every man's house is his castle." The home, as the center of family life, has rendered home life immune from examination. This has been the attitude and practice until very recent years.

Within the last two decades, however, has grown the unwelcome conviction that all is not well with the family and that its weaknesses if continued may react upon the general welfare. The lowered birth rate, the increasing number of childless families, and the steadily mounting divorce rate, to name but a few trends, have caused uneasiness in the minds of those concerned with social welfare. Coupled with these facts has been the recognition that many occupants of welfare institutions and many juvenile delinquents have come from unsatisfactory and unwholesome home environments, not all of which have been associated with the underprivileged home. Poor social and emotional surroundings may be found among the more favored as well as among the poor.

Some radical writers go as far as to say that the family has outlived its usefulness, that it is responsible for many of the crippled personalities in the world, and that the sooner it is abolished the better off society will be.

At present this radical group is in the minority. The majority of those interested in the family in its present unstable condition find a challenge in strengthening its defenses rather than in eliminating it. They recognize that the home is being affected by the same conditions of unrest and insecurity that are affecting society as a whole and that family life is reflecting the marked social and economic changes characteristic of the world today.

The first break in the morale of the family in modern times came with the industrial revolution. Women followed their ancient home occupations of spinning and weaving into the factories. Children and young women lost the apprenticeship training of working with their mothers in the home, and mothers had no time or energy for homemaking practices after long hours spent in the factory. It was natural that the efforts of the early social workers and home economists should be centered on improving the physical conditions of home life. To that end they worked with women and girls in social settlements and with children in the public schools, hoping to develop the housewifely skills.

The phase of exclusive preoccupation with the practical phases of homemaking was left behind about two decades ago. The passage of the Federal acts for promoting vocational education focused attention on the entire round of the homemaker's duties and responsibilities. The child development movement which began at about this same time brought the child to the attention of those interested in family life and in the development of stable personalities.

The beginnings of this child development movement probably had their roots in the Child Study Federation, now the Child Study Association of America, a group of parents who gathered together to study problems of their own children. But the factors which gave it momentum were, among others, the establishment of nursery schools for pre-kindergarten children and the encouragement of large funds from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation. This organization fostered the establishment of a number of research centers for the study of young children and provided generous scholarships for qualified young women to prepare themselves for nursery school teachers.

The nursery school was originally established to provide a group of children for the observation of young women who were preparing for homemaking or for the teaching of homemaking. Its possibilities for other uses, however, were quickly seen. It provided an unrivaled opportunity for psychologists, anthropologists, and others to study the very young child. It also provided a means for educating young parents in the proper rearing of their children. In many of the nursery schools no child was accepted unless the parents cooperated in attending child study classes.

In the meantime adult education was being fostered by the extension services of the agricultural colleges and the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Women were being offered courses in all phases of homemaking, child development courses among them. But the emphasis was changing from the child to the parents. It was recognized that in many cases the "problem child" was due to "problem parents," who needed insight into their own maladjustments. When this was gained, the child's difficulties frequently disappeared. Parent education is now one of the large areas

of the adult education program. Once more emphasis was centered on the entire family group.

Today a third phase of family life education is beginning to take rather definite form. It can be readily seen that under the plans discussed above, parent education would reach only a few and that it would be a somewhat incoherent program. It would also be largely verbal, depending upon lecture and discussion. No reliance could be placed on its functioning in the home. Participation in such educational groups appeals to only a limited number. If the program is to be effective, some more casual and indirect methods must be found to reach the mass of the people. This is the trend that is developing today.

The movement itself is not casual. It consists in mobilizing all the resources of a community to develop conditions in which family life shall have encouragement and support. It takes leadership of a high order to bring it about. Such a plan is being tried in four experimental centers in this country today through the cooperation of the United States Office of Education with the local communities. The programs are local enterprises that develop as the communities study their own problems and decide upon their own needs. "The chief purpose of the experiment as a whole is to find ways of bringing about stronger, richer, more realistic programs of education for home and family living. . . . The general plan is to bring into existence, under the leadership of the school, community councils representing a cross-section of community interests relating to family life."[1]

These experimental centers express the trends that have been appearing in the last few years. There has been a gradual broadening of the interests of those concerned with the family and an increasing recognition of the services, active and potential, that are available for its use. Sociologists, psychologists, mental hygienists, social service workers, home economists, churchmen, educational administrators, and members of many other professional and semi-professional groups recognize that family life education is desirable. It is becoming common practice for representatives of these groups to join forces in their annual meetings and to consider problems of the family as common concerns. Many of these associations are working together in the National Council of Parent Education, which calls itself by sub-title, "An Association for the Advancement of Family Life."[2] The very name itself, "family life education," indicates its broadened scope.

These centers referred to are set up in different parts of the United States. They represent differences in size, regional peculiarities, and occupational specialization. Two are

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[1]Edna P. Amidon and Muriel W. Brown, "Community Organization for Family Life Education." *School Life,* 26:2, (Nov. 1940) pp. 38-39.

[2]Joseph K. Folsom, "The Changing Role of the Family," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* Vol. 212, (Nov. 1940) Children in a Depression Decade.

rural situations involving entire counties; two are cities, one of a large industrial type and the other of medium size, located in Kansas and depending on both agriculture and industry for its support.

In all cases the first step undertaken in the experiments was to form a community council representing all interests relating to family life, from the welfare worker and home economist to the park commissioner and head of police, if there were such officers.

> These councils study local conditions affecting family life, to discover the common problems and needs of local families, to work through existing organizations to interpret these needs and find ways of meeting them. Such a council is not just another organization identified with some special program. It is a clearing house of ideas. It can analyze, investigate, and recommend, but it does not, in and of itself, initiate new undertakings, or employ personnel. The school board usually provides it with a person to serve as coordinator or executive secretary, but each program developed grows out of each council's around-the-table thinking.[3]

That these programs are considered as community enterprises is, perhaps, definitely illustrated by a happening in one of the county centers. When asked if one of the projects should not be credited to the health program rather than to one of the achievements of the family life program, the nurse replied to the questioner, "I don't believe you understand that we are all working together here in this program. Anything that any one of us can do for families in the county is part of a plan that is bigger than any one of our organizations."[4]

As has been said, the programs differ widely because of the different needs in each situation. In the smaller of the cities, the group decided upon some immediate objectives among which was one of "starting a community program in a section of the city where there are many needy families by encouraging the local organization of a self-help center." This center developed many unique features, among which was the purchasing of any clothing, bedding, furniture, and other kinds of family equipment sent there for distribution by "credit-hours of work." Garments were repaired and reconditioned by workers; a value in work-hours was placed on the article, anyone desiring it might place her name upon it, and when she had earned the agreed-upon-hours of work in service to the community project, the article becomes hers. Men contributed services on the same basis, repairing buildings, cleaning up surroundings, or doing other jobs decided upon as needed for the project, and purchased any articles they wished. This practice definitely raised self-respect and morale.

Another of the activities of this center was a housing project. Kansas has no enabling act so that it cannot obtain government aid for housing. One of the arguments for such

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[3]Amidon and Brown. Op. Cit. p. 39.

[4]Muriel W. Brown, "Obion County Educates for Home Living." *School Life,* Vol. 26, No. 24, p. 108.

aid is the statement that private builders cannot erect houses that can be rented at a sufficiently low rental to come within the budget of the very low income group and give the owner a reasonable return on his investment. A study of income figures given in Miss Gibson's article in this issue will quickly show why. Hodson reports that

> ... in large urban centers, homes that rent for less than $20 a month are usually substandard. Approximately 5,800,000 families of four persons have incomes which limit the families' rental to $18.50 per month. There are 3,500,000 families of four persons who can pay only $14 per month. Incidence of disease rises wherever poor housing exists, and there is a positive relationship between juvenile delinquency and and crime on the one hand and bad housing on the other.[5]

In this community center a group of interested persons "have been experimenting with the building of a little house to see how cheaply, and under what conditions private capital can cooperate with needy families wishing to build and own their own homes." It is estimated that the house produced "can be rented for $8 per month and pay for itself in ten years," but as it has no modern conveniences, it is a question as to whether the building of such homes is practicable. This experiment, however, has stimulated one real estate dealer in another part of the city to renovate and remodel some old houses that had been standing idle and rent them at $12 to $14 per month. Perhaps other experiments will follow that may help to solve the housing problem and bring decent homes within the reach of the very poor.

The interests of this community, however, have not been confined to the needs of the underprivileged secton of the city. It has concerned itself with curriculum study in the schools, especially as it affected family life education, it has developed radio programs that would interest the public in local problems of family life, it has fostered parent education and home beautification classes, it has worked out a program of training for household employees, and a number of other projects.

Others of the experimental centers have developed quite different projects. One of the county centers decided to concentrate on "The development of a family life curriculum in the schools; the organization of a county library; the development of facilities throughout the county for family recreation; and the organization of a youth council."[6]

Additional examples could be given from the other experiments, but enough have probably been cited to show the growth of community consciousness toward matters affecting family life. Perhaps it was in a spirit of prophecy that in 1937 Osborne wrote,

> . . . the family, with guidance, can in some measure modify the effect of seemingly inevitable social and eco-

[5]William Hodson, "Economic Basis for Child Welfare." *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* Vol. 212, Nov. 1940. Children in a Depression Decade.

[6]Brown, op. cit. p. 109.

nomic trends . . . Cooperative action by groups of parents has obtained and will continue to obtain services and facilities necessary for normal family life. Movements of national importance such as child labor legislation, peace education, consumer cooperation, and the many social service measures now being sponsored should be seriously studied by parents in terms of their effects on family life. Those parents who participate in such 'pressure-group activities' gain not only the services which they are able to obtain, but a keener insight into the needs of family members and an awareness of the ways in which these needs are related to the work of organized groups within the community.

Up to the present time, the promotion of such activity has not generally been thought to be within the province of family life education. It does not seem fantastic that the movement should present the challenge and appeal of democratic processes within the family or that it should stimulate cooperative action of parents to obtain desirable social legislation and other needed social changes.[7]

[7]Ernest Osborne, "A challenge to Family Education." *Parent Education.* Vol. IV, No. 1 (October 1937) pp. 22-23.

Bureaucracy and the Rule of Law

Ralph H. Smith

The phase of present day government termed "bureaucracy" and the relation it bears to the "ancient rule of law" are the causes of much of the discussion of recent campaigns and of the present struggles in Congress. This subject, which was once left to legal minds, statesmen, and students of political science, has become of interest to all citizens.

Bureaucracy in reality is another name for the system which develops and uses administrative law. Though it is a development of democratic government and was brought about by statute, it is not, in a literal sense, a statutory creation. Administrative law is a rule laid down by an executive department, board, commission, or bureau; such a rule when followed amounts to law. The practice of making such rules did not originate with the New Deal. Administrative rules were in use long before depression days. They are directly responsible for the fear of what is termed today, "bureaucratic government." The events of the last decade have greatly augmented the scope of administrative law. The last ten years has seen greater bureaus, boards, and commissions come into being and has seen a definite trend of government away from the true ancient rule of law. This trend has not generally been appreciated.

By rule of law is meant "the supremacy or dominance of law, of determining or disposing of the rights of individuals. That is, under the rule of law, obligations may not be imposed by the state, nor property interfered with, nor personal liberty curtailed, except in accordance with accepted principles of law and through the action of legally competent authorities."

Under the rule of law, as conceived by American legalists, individuals employed by government to carry into effect governmental rules (law) have no discretion; they must find in the law justification for their act. Should the official step outside the scope of law, he is acting on his own responsibility. Not only is the act which he does a nullity thus unenforceable, but he at once becomes personally responsible for his act.

On the contrary administrative law not only would relieve an official from personal responsibility for his act but would legalize, make equal to law, his act.

Just where the dividing line is between acts that are truly administrative procedures and acts that are within the scope of law taxes the power of the greatest judges. Generally Congress cannot delegate its power to make laws, just as generally Congress may by pointing out limitations, by setting up "yardsticks" to govern the executive, stay within the concept of "the rule of law."

The three greatest democracies of

modern times, England, France, and the U. S. A., each have gone about their methods of governing in a little different way. England has no supreme court, nor does she have a written constitution. She is ruled by *stare decisis;* that is, she is ruled by law, based on precedent. France compiled a code of laws and paid very little attention to precedent. Her judiciary base their opinions on the code, and their opinions are final. America followed the English way and started out to decide by rule of law. She made a written document setting up three powers, each to be separate and apart from the others, yet each organized in such a way as to check the others. The forefathers felt that this complete separation of powers of the legislature, executive, and judiciary would insure a rule of law and preclude a rule by men. They felt that it had always been men's rule that had caused the downfall of governments.

In the beginning of government in America the law makers made laws, the president carried these into execution, and the judges decided controverted cases on precedent. But the forces and movements that grew up among the living, working millions of free persons, in the building of the greatest nation the world has ever seen, found many new things required in government and a complete isolation of powers to be in theory only. Actually, judges make laws when deciding what is constitutional.

The president is our highest executive, but we have executives all through our governmental network. A well known example of the power of an administrator, in perhaps its simplest form, is the teacher in the one-room rural school. The people of the community gather together and elect representatives who become the school board. The board in turn hires a teacher and gives her a work to be done. They do not detail what she is to do each minute or the exact results to be obtained because those things depend upon conditions, human beings, regulations by other groups, parents' desires, children's abilities, and a hundred small events and circumstances. So the teacher becomes an administrator, and knowing the general results desired, she goes ahead, makes her program, plans her lessons, and deals almost every minute of the day with the hand of a pure dictator. Yet, because she works within general rules, she is allowed freedom to work out her problems.

Our democracy was built on the theory that no man may be punished without a trial, without due process of law, without his day in court. Further, every man has a right to question the rulings of his superior. Men are free to do as they see fit, and if anyone wishes to stop them, the procedure must be in accordance with the law.

An illustration of the new problems that challenge the democratic way, in thinking of a man's rights, may be found in this example: The owner of an old Model T has a perfect right on the highway. He can make a good twenty miles per hour. But the highway has two lanes and heavy traffic. Modern cars are so nu-

merous going both ways that no one dares go around the Model T. His twenty mile speed causes a congestion of cars behind him for miles; dozens of persons are late for appointments or meals, or they disappoint others in plans for social events. In order that one man may have his freedom and rights, dozens are deprived of their rights to follow their own plans. So the "general welfare" clause of the constitution may be invoked, and the man in the Model T may be required to consider the public good.

Our first legislators knew rather intimately the problems confronting the nation and had little difficulty in working out in very minute detail the laws needed. However, as life became more cluttered up with engineers and experts, technicians of all kinds, our lawmakers found it impossible to know everything about everything. Congress could not know all the little rules needed to keep peace in the family when the railroads, for instance, began to spread across the nation. As the railroads did as they pleased, the rates charged did not satisfy the good people; so Congress created the first great commission, the first bureaucracy, the Interstate Commerce Commission. It was a board of mere men, and the railroads were huge corporations, which paid scant attention to any rule made by a little commission. The time came when the commission said, "You railroad officials must not work men such long hours that they, through sheer fatigue, endanger the public. Sixteen hours is long enough." Such nonsense was not accepted either by the worker or by the railroad officials. But after a while our Supreme Court said, "Now the public welfare demands that the rule of the Commission be followed. It is only sense." And thus a board of men made a rule that had the force and effect of law!

From that one case, rather out of this type of reasoning, our government has developed numerous cases where rules are laws and the judgments of administrators are final and cannot be haled into court.

Of course, under the rule of law, the great institutions learned that they could drag a case into court, fool along on it for years, and yet go along as before. By the time the case was settled, there was no longer any need to fight it. Hence the reason that rules were made final in very many cases.

There is a fundamental principle that prevails in the making of law in a democracy, which is that no outside power can enforce a free people to obey a law. They accept it by majority will or they nullify it by refusal *en masse* to obey. Law follows experience. It grows out of need. The need is taken to Congress by various sources. In the past, pressure groups have had great influence in bringing laws into being. "Ask and ye shall receive" had been true of the great vested interests, true of soldiers, true of organizations pressing for some law which they desired. So long as a pension law did not arouse tax payers to the point of absolute refusal to pay, well and good. It was the same with all sorts

of subsidies. But the interested pressure groups were small compared to the whole electorate. Now, during depression, the New Deal has brought government assistance to so many individuals that a new type of pressure group is formed, at least in theory. It is thought that all beneficiaries of the New Deal, including the grocer, the baker, the candle stick maker, and including all the relatives and friends of those who have received monetary help from the government, build automatically the greatest pressure group our democracy has ever known. If this vote is selfish, it may have too much power to influence Congress. This theory has not been tested or proved but is an issue in the controversy.

The administrator, in many cases, is still the man appointed to "get the job done by others." He represents the interests of the public and demands that all technicalities be handled by technicians and experts. In their fields, these experts are given a peculiar power to make the necessary rules and regulations to bring results. Because of the necessity of settling differences quickly in order to serve public welfare, a man is often given wide authority to search out evidence and decide cases. Claim agents make decisions which were formerly a matter for courts. But if the traditional court procedure were used, most of the clients would be dead and forgotten by the time all the cases were adjudicated. Last year, the director of the War Insurance Bureau for the American Legion settled 300,000 cases out of court.

The ancient rule of law must discover new ways of adjusting the whole machinery of court procedure, or we must accept the delegated authorities given to men to run phases of the government and we must learn how to protect the people from abuse of this power. It is power for administrative expediency. As it is delegated by Congress, it may be taken away by Congress.

The Walter Logan bill was an attempt to curtail the powers delegated to bureaucracies, but before it had passed Congress, legal minds were not satisfied with it, and were divided in their opinion of it. The long controversy over the Lease-Lend Bill was mainly over the questions of limiting executive power and yet "get the job done" which Congress wished done. The working of laws, under our constitution, must be such as to show that Congress intended such and such things to be done, expressly stating that "rules and regulations necessary to that end" be made. Thus, so far, all the bureaus and commissions are, in theory, merely serving the Congress in executing its orders, or, at any rate, this is what our liberal statesmen insist. The conservative statesmen protest that "Congress has abdicated its constitutionally limited power to make law and has delegated that great function to the executive." The question resolves itself into: How far dare we go for the sake of expediency? If the public welfare is at stake, and one way lies chaos and the other way leads to dictatorship, there is cause to

wonder about democratic government.

So it is with such methods and with such thinking that the statesmen are concerned. They wish to further government according to the demands of the present conditions, but keep a hold on the thread of control to such extent that any future Congress could find that thread, if the actual need should arise. How to extend the principle of the famous Bill of Rights, the unwritten rule of law, by which men have lived in freedom for centuries, and yet to serve the demands of this modern age, with its bureaucratic service and administrative law, is the root of the great controversy. Legal thinkers and social leaders all see the problem. None of them have the perfect answer as yet. Great political parties lean one way and in the heat of campaigns voice extreme opinions; yet all are reaching for the same end—the right road to the "general welfare" of free peoples.

The Bill of Rights adopted by England in 1689 was a definite effort to keep the royal power from suspending and dispensing with laws; to keep the royal power from levying imposts without the consent of Parliament; to hold down the tendency to erect royal commissions and courts arbitrarily; and finally to stop the further organization of an army unless Parliament agreed. The first great Bill of Rights depended upon the supremacy of the ancient principle implicit in democratic thinking, that one may lawfully do anything which is not expressly forbidden by law. Therefore, when a law curtailing liberty was made, it had to be made by legally competent authorities, not only by some single administrator in some isolated circumstance.

The Declaration of Rights in France was adopted a century later; it was a restatement of the "natural and inalienable" rights of each and every citizen. The story of our own Bill of Rights is well known. As recently as 1936, those in authority in the Soviet state of Russia wrote into the new fundamental law of that year, one of the most remarkable bills of rights yet known to history. Previous to this there had been nothing remotely resembling a bill of rights in the Soviet state, nor has the new one yet been put to use.

The delegation of power which has grown so much in recent years in order to satisfy expediency is nothing new, but has been a gradual development through the years in England, France, and the United States. Though the delegated power has been used, the legislative tribunal is still the authority for the delegation. Anytime it chooses to step in and revoke that authority, it may do so in all the democracies of today. Any court may inquire into a case where the judgment has been made according to a rule or regulation of an administrator; that is, it may question the authority by which the order or rule was issued, and, upon finding the authority wanting, refuse to apply the rule.

Our forefathers set down a con-

cept to apply to a few hundred miles of post roads; now it applies to a network of steel and concrete involving untold wealth and labor. They hired fifty-eight government workers to do all of the service; now we have almost 300,000 persons in one department to care for our mails, which go through 44,000 offices and over 33,000 rural routes. Only fifty years ago they started a new development of government, agriculture; now it is the greatest governmental establishment of its kind the world has ever known. Yet through all of this growth, our law makers and our justices, our administrators, and all of their various boards and commissions and bureaus have found a legal way to solve their problems. We do not need to become unduly excited over this controversy of the bureaucracy versus the ancient rule of law.

There is more reason to trust the votes of citizens today than ever before. Education, by school, radio, screen, and newsprint goes on apace. We have the best informed electorate ever known. In Washington's day, only a small per cent were really trusted to vote. There have always been men who feared to trust people's votes. We cannot stop the onward press of civilization, nor the tempo of living.

The newer and richer interpretation of our fundamentals will be found by our statesmen. The classic statement of the great Justice Marshall in 1819 may well be repeated today, for it is ever applicable to our governmental problems. He said, in the case of McCulloch vs. Maryland, ". . . We think the sound construction of the constitution must allow to the national legislature that discretion with respect to the means by which the powers it confers are to be carried into execution, which will enable that body to perform the high duties assigned to it in a manner most beneficial to the people. Let the end be legitimate, let it be within the scope of the constitution, and all means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited but consistent with the letter and the spirit of the constitution, are constitutional."

As Justice Marshall made this interpretation in 1819, which caused applications undreamed of in that day, so will our present leaders find justification in the reasonings of jurists of today to continue or to abandon certain trends in governmental rule. It is not probable that either bureaucracy or the ancient rule of law will be wholly discarded, but the problem awaits a solution in our democracy.

Fashion: Whence and Whither?

PEARL GARRISON

By the uninformed, women's fashion in clothes has always been called fickle and fickle women its followers. But with New York now the leader of this billion dollar industry, perhaps we should think more kindly of Dame Fashion and be somewhat interested in seeing just how changeable she is and if she has always claimed Paris as her home.

What is Fashion? It is an accepted style.

Style is defined by Nystrom[1] as the particular or distinctive manner of expression, presentation, or conception in the field of some art; and Fashion is simply the prevailing style at any given time—the style that has been accepted and adopted by a number of people.

From the earliest records of shapes of garments, we find technically only three fundamental types. The first, according to Crawford,[2] is the tailored type made from skins of animals held together with sinews. This style is associated with intense cold and with the invention of the sewing awl and eyed needle.

The second type, called the draped garment, came after the invention of cloth woven from spun filaments, a type in which the cloth is never cut and seldom sewn. This type was found in the cloth-weaving countries.

The third type, the one predominating today is, of course, the result of the contact of these two earlier ones. It may be called the composite type.

With the possible exception of the eyed needle and the tailored garment of fur, all of our textile arts were introduced into Europe from Asia or Asia Minor; however, the most ancient costumes that have been found so far anywhere in the world are from the Bronze Age graves of Scandinavia and date back to approximately 2500 B. C. These Scandinavian garments show some needle work, and the fabric in them was similiar to tweed. They also seem to have characteristics similar to modern garments. The man's costume consisted of a loin cloth, a sort of poncho tunic, and a short cloak. The woman's costume had a sleeve, bolero jacket, and a skirt. They seemed to be an early composite of the tailored fur costume of the North and of the draped garment from the weaving areas.

But in that early period there were no cities competing for the fashion industry as New York and Paris have been for several years and as New York and Berlin will soon be doing if Berlin attains her goal of becoming the capital of the New Europe. It is reported that Germany is transferring the silk looms and

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[1]Nystrom, *Economics of Fashion*, p. 3-4.

[2]Crawford, M. D. C., *The Philosophy in Clothing*. p. 7, Brooklyn Museum Press, 1940.

dressmakers from Lyons and Paris to her country, still believing, according to a theory formulated long ago by a German scholar, that the center of fashion follows the center of the silk trade. The Americas, however, believe that the secret lies in organization, advertising, and public encouragement of the garment industry. Since the disorganization in Paris, New York now has the opportunity to test her belief.

Let us look into the fashion centers of the past before the age of silk mills or dressmakers. The ladies of Crete, the fashionable center of the Mediterranean culture 2000 B. C., looked strangely modern in their tight girths and ruffled skirts. Traders rowed in from other islands with rich materials. They took back with them to coastal towns and other islands ideas of this culture as well as ways of curling hair and molding bodices. Crete had wool, linen, gold for ornament, but no silk. It also had the designers to create the most extreme fashion of its day.

In Thebes, Egypt, 700 years later the beautiful Nefertiti was setting the standard in fashion. Painting the face became a new fashion item at this time. Thebes was also the center of the world in trade, wisdom, art, government. It still had no silk but wove linen with intricate patterns, probably the first in history.

Little change was made in the Theban dress when the fashion center shifted to Athens, and the dress became the beautiful Greek Chiton supposed to express the classical line of Greek thinking. The fashion leadership shifted next to Rome, where the Roman Toga became the expression of the power and dignity of the Roman Empire.

The dress of Nefertiti in Thebes, of Aspasia in Athens, and in the Rome of Cleopatra's conquerors was in essence "a length of wool or linen woven to measure and twisted, roped or pinned about the body."[3] Rome's variable climate made it necessary to wear more pieces than in the other places, but at none of these places was there silk enough to affect dress or trade.

During the next thousand years the fashion industry began to take on its first modern note. Justinian, as leader of the Byzantine Empire, introduced into Europe weavers and dressmakers. He sent monks to China to steal the secret of the silk worm. He encouraged the barbarians from the North, who had come there bringing their eyed needle and their knowledge of shaping garments from skins, to teach the Mediterranean world how to cut fabrics and sew them into a more permanent shape. Constantinople became the center of fashion, and, striking another modern note of this period, collected tribute both ways on the stuffs passing through her trade channels in the rapidly growing commerce between Europe and Asia.

The Saracens took silk weaving into Spain. After the crusades Eastern fabrics and fashions found their way to England, Germany, and France. The Sicilian looms spread to Italy, and Florence, Venice, and

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[3]Adams, Mildred. "Westward the Course of Fashion" *The New York Times Magazine* (Jan. 19, 1941) p. 13.

Milan claimed their share of this rapidly growing, famous industry.

International fashions had not yet arrived. Each court developed its own except when a princess went to marry in another land or a queen sent the gift of a wardrobe to another queen.

Modern fashion as we think of it today flowered to its first heights with Paris as leader during the reign of Louis XIV. This famous king not only encouraged "arts, wit, and wisdom" but possessed a finance minister who knew how to make infant industries develop into dividend-paying monopolies.

But democracy and the machine were to change the art which had lived on "special privilege, courtly customers, and skillful fingers into a mechanized and international trade." Paris still led in art, learning, and political power, but the French Revolution took away her royal protection and favor. It also abolished the sumptuary laws which separated the classes and allowed only the favored court ladies and the wealthy to wear the lovely silks and distinctive designs. In addition the industrial revolution was helping to change an aristocratic art into a democratic trade.

Yet Paris somehow kept making adjustments to the new world of industry, and in her last stage as fashion leader she still held the banner of authority, around which was the huge web of "fashion creation, production, and dissemination that served no single court or queen" but the average woman of the entire world.

Lyons remained the center of the hand-loomed elaborate silks, but England, Germany, and the United States took over the manufacture of machine fabrics. The source of supply for their raw material is now largely the product of the test tube, which is seriously threatening the silk industry.

Does fashion itself change as frequently as we have been led to believe, and, if so, what causes the change? If fashion, or the accepted style is an expression of some art or ideal as stated above, then its changes are influenced by dominating events, ideals, or groups. At all periods in every country design has been affected by the trend of events, and woman consciously or unconsciously has left a record of history in her mode of dress. Whatever the prevailing influence, be it peace or war, austerity or dissipation, it has been reflected in feminine fashion. And in France, where the normal temperament is most susceptible, we find these traits highly marked, a fact which no doubt accounts for the domination of the world of Fashion so long held, and rightly so, by Paris.

The silhouette, however, does not change overnight. It follows the natural evolution of change just as do social and political transitions. Agnes Brooks Young in *Recurring Cycles of Fashion* reports only three major silhouettes since 1760: the backfulness, the tubular, and the bell-shaped, with the life-span of each fundamental figure approximately thirty-three years. The backfulness type was at its height about 1790 and reappeared about 1890 in

a simpler form. The bell-shaped appeared at the middle of the nineteenth century and reappeared in evening dresses only about 1930. The tubular of 1810 reappeared about 1910 and is staying over its allotted time, which fact would seem to show that fashion may have found an ideal basic silhouette pattern.

This does not necessarily mean that styles will become uniform. Men and women through all times have expressed their idea of beauty and distinction in the clothes they wear. Each year lines are new and novel and represent the creative spirit of their own time and age, but also each year, in silhouette, fabric, and design, there is much that reaches back a decade or a thousand years.

What of New York as the Fashion center of the western hemisphere at least?

For many years it has been the manufacturing metropolis of the world's fashions, and for several years its designers and Hollywood's have been successful but without just credit because of the established authority elsewhere. In a recent lecture to a Fashion group in Boston, Alice K. Perkins of Fairchild's Publications Fashion Bureau said that if America is to establish her own authoritative American fashion, she must turn to her own American life for guidance. Miss Perkins listed as fertile ground for the inspiration of the designer the architecture and furnishings of the Cape Cod or New England cottage, the Williamsburg and Georgian types of home decoration, all of which typify the sturdy early American life. America has natural colorings in mountains, sunsets, forests, in the Indian and Mexican art, in the beautiful Palomino horse which gives the new beige color for the spring of 1941. All of these can give unlimited inspiration.

Already America has been warned of two dangers in holding fashion leadership. The greatest is the unwillingness of manufacturers to use good enough fabrics. Designers, according to Miss Perkins, are realizing that fabrics need not be stamped imported to be good and that America makes good fabrics, but the tendency in the industry to use materials which barely "get by" is a dangerously weak spot in the new fashion world.

Another mistake, Miss Perkins believes, is that American styles are scaled "down" to the collegiate or debutante, who is satisfied with many dresses of cheap material trimmed in novelties, instead of those styles being scaled "up" to the mature woman who is more likely to appreciate good material and good design.

Perhaps poor design and cheap fabrics are among the reasons for fashions fickleness; who knows?

Benevolent Capitalism

O. F. GRUBBS

The doctrine of *laissez-faire* was born in England, but it reached its highest development in America. Conditions here favored its application and growth. Such central government as the colonists had known was detrimental to their interests. Perhaps from eighty per cent to ninety per cent of the population in 1790 was farmers. Each farm was a small, independent producing unit, operated by individuals with little need for governmental assistance and with a strong aversion to it. So the Federal Constitution, which provided a passive role for the central government, suited their interests and reflected their convictions. This "let alone" philosophy is quite compatible with a democracy that is predominantly agrarian.

In brief, this "passive role" philosophy envisages a condition in which the forces of supply and demand, acting in a free, competitive market, determine price. If the market price is less than the cost of production to some producers, they withdraw. If the price is higher than the cost of production to some producers, other producers are encouraged to enter that field and, by competition, force the price down to the cost of production. Prices are flexible, and the market price practically coincides with the cost of production. Everything is sold at one price or another. Over-production is unknown. Scarcity is due to inability to produce, not to forestalling. Since business units are small, the entrance or withdrawal of several produces no serious maladjustment. The government merely provides protection and insures the rights of private property, freedom and sanctity of contracts, etc. Determination of prices is left to competition, not to the government. This is the formula of *laissez-faire*. It has never been followed completely in our country, but until the Civil War it was the prevailing economic pattern.

The advent of industry produced a change in conditions. The manufacturing plants, small and few at first, soon began to increase in size in order to produce in mass quantities. Since manufacturing is essentially a processing operation, the manufacturer is better able to control the supply of his product than the farmer, who lives continually under "the tyranny of the skies." This increasing control over the supply of processed products gave increased control over their price and lessened competition as a price-determining force. For the sake of prices and profits, scarcity was created. Thus the mass production industries, through organization, working in close cooperation or combination have reached monopolistic dimensions and have shown monopolistic tendencies. They have assumed extensive jurisdiction over

price. The growth of monopolistic combination is commensurate with the decline of competition. Monoply spells finis for the competitive system. Every student of our economic history is familiar with the various methods by which these extra legal combinations have been effected. The corporate form of business offers opportunity for combination. The pool, trust, trade agreements, marketing policies, and holding company are some other devices.

Labor, sensing the drift in industry, began to organize in order to control wages. The per cent of organization of labor is much less than in industry. Since the advantage attributable to organization of either capital or labor is at the expense of the unorganized, success depends upon the speed in organizing. When all laborers and producers are organized to the same degree, the advantages of organization will be nullified.

By 1880 it was apparent to many observers that competition, as a price-determining force, was on the decline. Then followed a long series of enactments by state legislatures and congress, designed to restore and preserve competition. The Granger laws, the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887 with its many amendments, the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890, the Federal Trade Commission Act, the Clayton Act, and many others were in defense of competition. When the government attempted to enforce these laws, many of the alleged violators, being persons, that is corporations, invoked the Bill of Rights and the Fourteenth Amendment as their defense. They resisted enforcement on the ground that the laws deprived the defendants of their property without due process of law. So the constitutional amendments, designed to protect personal liberty, became, by legal interpretation, hindrances to the protection of these same personal liberties. Our economic philosophy renders society allergic to combinations and our political philosophy frustrates their dissolution. Convictions were difficult. Theory and practice parted company. Today competiton, as a price-determining force, functions most effectively in agriculture, less effectively with small business men, unorganized labor, and other unorganized groups.

Our economic system is a great game of "keep-away." In theory it is a "free-for-all." In practice some persons in the game, either the more shrewd or the less scrupulous, by organized effort are able to achieve outstanding success. Others, being unwilling or unable to organize, achieve less success. From time to time the referee (government) is forced to intervene and take wealth from the successful, in the form of taxes, and bestow it on the less successful in the form of aid, subsidy, or relief. Unless the referee does this, the game will collapse.

This method of preserving the game seems to be an accepted policy. The present administration follows it extensively. The leader of the opposition party in his campaign

addresses accepted the present social welfare program as a settled national policy.

These governmental subventions have taken various forms. The protective tariff is a consumer-financed subsidy to the industries that profess inability to meet foreign competition. Yet as industry has increased in efficiency, the tariff has increased *pari-passu*. It is estimated that this subsidy costs the consumer about three billion dollars annually. The AAA is a subsidy to the farmers to compensate them for the one-sided competition of our system. Its earlier form was financed by the consumer, but the later form is a direct subsidy. The "loans" of the R. F. C., of the various rural and urban credit agencies, even of the Social Security Act itself, all stem from the breakdown of competition.

This policy is our answer to the critics of our democratic way of life. On the one hand stands a group of staunch individualists who urge the government to pursue a one hundred per cent nonintervention-in-business policy. On the other hand the extreme collectivists urge the government to own and operate all business, one hundred per cent. The first policy would leave prices to be determined by the powerful, organized groups; the second would result in prices being fixed by the slow, inflexible methods of governmental authority. "Our answer to both groups," says William Allen White, "is a compromise." We will continue to allow private ownership, initiative, and operation of business, but the government will continue to regulate, supervise, and direct. When such regulation fails to bring about the optimum of distribution, the government will levy taxes sufficient to furnish aids and subsidies. Thus through governmental activity, our system has become one of private capitalism, with a benevolent attitude.

Table Customs

Annie Marriott

In our present code of good manners there is nothing new under the sun. The basic principles for the rules found in our recently published etiquette books are found in ancient, Anglo-Saxon, and medieval customs. However, the old rules have gone through a process of evolution, and the quaint wordings of those ancient admonitions are sometimes humorous as well as instructive.

From earliest times the hall of the English house was the common meeting place of the family, since it was the only room where all could assemble. The various halls throughout the kingdom differed in detail but were alike in certain features. The dais was always at one end of the hall and was the place where the host and most distinguished guests were seated. At the opposite end of the hall was the screen, behind which were the buttery and the passage leading to the cellar. The oriel was erected above the screen. The fire for warming the hall was near the center, and the smoke that escaped the eyes of the guests reached the outdoors by means of a hole in the roof. When feasts were held at night, wax candles were the source of illumination at the table where host and guests were seated. In other parts of the hall blazing cressets and smoking torches gave light.

The food service was not far from primitive. All through the centuries of civilization, even up to the magnificent era of Shakespeare, roast meat was brought to the table on the spit, a servant holding it while the guest cut off a piece which was eaten from the fingers. Often, indeed, no plate was used, for in the medieval rules for laying a table we find mentioned trenchers and slabs of bread on which the person could lay his portion of meat. In the fifteenth century at the court of Burgundy the loaves of bread were round; they were cut in slices which were piled by the side of the carver. Having cut off a slice of meat, the carver took it on the point of the long carving knife and placed it on a slice of bread which was then served to the guest.

The knife, which was probably the first table utensil, was the result of slow development. It was first devised for killing and dividing game. In the Stone Age it was chipped out of flint or stone. Sometimes it was formed from shells, bones of animals or pieces of wood. At the beginning of history, men were using knives of copper and bronze. Knives for table use were first made in England in 1563, though there is a passage in Chaucer which tells us that the Miller of Trompington carried a Sheffield whittle in his hose. The rounded top of the dinner knife is a convention which dates back to about the time of Queen Anne, when even well-bred people ate with their knives.

There was a surprising lack of individual dishes. Even a drinking cup was shared by the guest with his table companion. The trencher, with the exception perhaps of a knife or a spoon, was the only strictly individual feature of table equipment; it was made of wood or bread and served as a sort of plate. When not eaten by the guests, these trenchers were swept into a basket and given to the poor.

Spoons were the table utensil. They came down to us from antiquity. The word *spoon* is derived from the Greek term meaning shell, which suggests that shells of mollusks and oysters were first used. Later spoons were made of bone and wood. They were probably first used for stirring food as it cooked and for dishing it.

The early Christians decorated their spoons with symbols of their religion, among them the cross, a crown of thorns, or a figure of a lamb. Spoons were not provided by the host; each guest produced from his pocket his own spoon to use during the visit, were it for one meal or for a month. These spoons, usually of elaborate design, were often gifts of one of the sponsors of a baptism. Chief among the favorite designs for spoons was the well-known Apostle spoon. A rich child with wealthy god-parents would probably receive all twelve of the Apostles; the more humble, one or two.

Poor folk as well as the rich had to carry their own spoons, but theirs were usually of tinned iron and were called "Latten spoons." It is easily seen how our saying, "Born with a silver spoon in his mouth," originated.

Forks came later. Their introduction produced much criticism, the objectors holding that "fingers were made before forks." Forks not only had an effect upon table manners but also influenced the art of cookery. The lack of forks had compelled the use of fingers; so most foods were more or less liquid, to be eaten with a spoon, or soft messes to be scooped up with the fingers. The sop, a morsel of bread about the size of two fingers, was dipped into the sauce and was most serviceable. After the introduction of forks by Coryat, a revolution in English cookery took place; spoon meat gave way to chines of beef and other large joints.

Forks came from Italy. Thomas Coryat's letter of 1608 cites the invention as almost as important as the discovery of America. He writes, "The Italians as well as strangers in Italy, do always at their meals use a little fork when they cut their meat." The forks were of iron or steel for the most part. Some were made of silver, but these were used only by gentlemen. The reason given by the Italian for the innovation is that "he could not endure to have his dish touched with fingers, seeing all men's fingers are not alike clean."

When he returned home, Coryat decided to use the fork on his own table but was much disliked for his affectation of superiority, and instead of being admired he was looked upon as "that miserable Fork-bearer." Another comment on the new

fashion was, "Who would make hay of his food, and pitch it into his mouth with a fork?" The use of the fork at the table was long considered a superfluous luxury; so much so that it was forbidden to Convents in most countries.

In France prior to the Revolution it was customary, when a gentleman was invited to dinner, for him to send his servant with his knife, fork, and spoon; or if he had no servant, he carried these with him as a workman does his tools. Leather cases were used to hold the three implements.

A Saxon dinner has been described as follows:

> The dining table was oblong, rounded at the ends, and covered with a rich crimson cloth which hung low beneath the table. The guests sat upon chairs with concave backs. In some cases stools were used instead of chairs. The diners wore their hats at the table. Before the advent of napkins, hands were wiped on the sides of the table cloth.

The crudeness of some medieval table customs would greatly disturb a twentieth-century homemaker. On the table of the upper classes, before each person was set a beaker, a kind of huge finger bowl, of water in which, at the close of the meal, he dipped his napkin in order to clean his teeth and wash his hands. During the meal the diners threw the refuse on the floor, which was usually of stone. Dogs and cats were welcome to all feasts to gather up the refuse.

The linen tablecoth came into use at a very early period; ancient drawings show the overhanging cloth knotted at the corners. At that time the cleanliness of the cloth was of paramount importance and a matter of great pride. The origin of the dinner napkin is lost in the murk of the past. It is related of a famous chef that, seeing a gentleman at the restaurant table tuck the napkin into his collar all around his neck, he went up to him and said, "Pardon, m'sieur, it is to dine with, not to be shaved!"

It was a medieval custom in that period of boundless hospitality to mark the difference between the well-born and the humble by the position of the salt. The salt was far more than the condiment that we know; it was in itself symbolic. The salt was placed about the center of the table. To sit above the salt at table was to sit in a place of honor. When a man who had once sat below the salt was invited to a seat above it, the invitation was a recognition of his improved social status. Anyone who presumed to sit out of his social order stood a chance of being pelted by the guests with the bones they had picked.

The salt-cellar was of considerable size and came to be made of precious metal, frequently in some such device as a ship or a chariot on wheels to enable it to be passed up and down the table. The wine most frequently circulated only above the salt, and the dishes below it were invariably of a coarser kind than those served at the top of the table. In France and England middle-class people used for a salt-cellar a piece of bread hollowed out.

If the feast were at all ostentatious, much attention was given to table adornments. One of the most conspicuous ornaments was a nef, a vessel in the form of a medieval ship with a high prow and stern. This ornament often held the salt-cellar, small towels for wiping the hands, and sometimes knives and spoons.

Grace at meat is an ancient Christian custom. It has come down from the early Church, evidently founded on the example set by St. Paul which is recorded thus: "When he had spoken, he took bread, and gave thanks to God in the presence of them all, and when he had broken it, began to eat." In the medieval ages, grace at meals was rigidly observed by a great noble as a part of the table ceremonial. The chaplain and choristers who officiated in his chapel chanted grace at his table.

It is impossible to read books on etiquette written for behavior in medieval times and not be impressed by the unchanging character of the fundamentals of good manners and correct conduct. While there is a difference in the quaint wording of some of the precepts, the precepts themselves are in effect identical with our own. For example, we find in a recently published etiquette book the following:

> The basis of all good manners is consideration for others. To be well mannered at the table is to be able to eat and drink without attracting attention or being rude or repulsive to others at the table.

In Hugh Rhode's "*Book of Nurture*" written in 1577, we find these precepts:

> If any man eate of your dish, crum you therein no bread, lest your hands be found sweaty.
>
> And suppe not loude of the pottage.
>
> Dip not thy meate in the salt-cellar but take it with thy knyfe.
>
> Pick not thy teeth with thy knyfe, nor with thy finger ende, but take a stick or some clean thynge, then you do not offend.
>
> Do not drink with a wide-open mouth, for that habit is disgraceful; do not speak with your mouth full, for that is an ugly and coarse thing.

William Caxton in his book of courtesye written in 1447 points out the importance of good manners: "Remember well that manner maketh man."

Fra Bonvesino da Riva in his book, *Courtesies for the Table,* stresses the value of good cheer and proper appearance at table: "Sit properly at the board, courteous, well dressed, cheerful, and obliging and fresh. Thou must not sit anxious, nor dismal, nor lolling, nor with thy legs crossed, nor awry, nor leaning forward." Again he emphasizes cheer at the dinner table: "Tell no bad news at the table in order that those who are with thee may not eat out of spirits. As long as others are eating, give no painful news, but keep silence or else speak in cheerful tones."

Precedence at the table has always been a matter of delicacy and importance. Christ enforced His lesson on humility by allusion to those who "chose out the chief room" at a feast as recorded in Luke

XIV: "When thou art bidden of any man to a feast, sit not down in the chief seat; lest haply a more honorable man than thou be bidden of him."

The Romans always placed a vase of roses in the center of the table as the emblem of silence, to signify that what was heard (under the rose) was not to be repeated lightly elsewhere. In accord with the Roman custom, medieval history reminds us that the confidences of the dinner table were held inviolable.

Table manners, table setting, and table equipment made rapid progress after the reign of Henry VIII. Unless we are familiar with the successive steps leading to our modern environment, we can not realize that we are enjoying as everyday comfort luxuries in table setting and equipment unknown to the greatest monarch or the richest noble in the days of our not-very-remote ancestors.

Some Sociological Aspects of Strip Mining in Southeast Kansas

J. C. STRALEY

Strip mining, sometimes called the open-cut method, is used where the coal lies relatively near the surface. There is no other way to secure the coal, as the overburden is too shallow to permit shaft mining. This method is also generally used in the production of iron, shale, and limestone. The method is simple. The overburden is scraped away and dumped into the pit from which the coal has just been removed. This leaves the surface in long parallel ridges, varying in height from a few feet to 50 feet, depending on the depth of the overburden.

Before the Civil War, near the suburbs of Weir City, Kansas, some settlers were mining outcropping coal, using pick and shovel to remove the overburden. The coal was not only used for local consumption, but was hauled as far as Granby, Missouri, where it was used for blacksmithing.[1] The pick and shovel were soon discarded, and removing the overburden by horses and scrapers became the approved method. But when the overburden becomes thicker, this method, too, becomes unprofitable. The next device introduced was the railroad type of steam shovel; while this was a great improvement over horses and scrapers, as it could remove a thicker overburden, it was not flexible. Therefore its use was limited. In 1911 the first revolving type of steam shovel made its appearance in this district. The dippers on these first shovels were of only a few cubic yards capacity, but the modern electric shovel today moves as much as 33 cubic yards at a stroke.

Some 20,000 acres in southeast Kansas have been turned upside down by the shovel; it is estimated a like amount remains to be worked by this method. In strip mining it is necessary to destroy one natural resource in order to obtain another. But the value of the coal secured is many times greater than that of the land destroyed, the farmer obtaining a price for his land five times greater than he could receive by disposing of it for any other purpose.

Today the chief question concerning this strip pit land is its future value to society. Is it to be an asset or a liability? A considerable portion has been deeded to the state, some has been taken over by the county for taxes, and some is tax delinquent. All these methods of disposal tend to throw a burden on other property. The portion held by the coal companies and by individuals is carried on the tax rolls at $10 per acre. If this land can be restored to

[1] *University Geological Survey of Kansas*, III, 151.

cultivation, it will not only increase the tax valuation of this section, but will be of far greater value in furnishing employment.

It is the opinion of all who have studied the stripped land problem that it not only can be restored to production, but that it can in many instances be made to yield greater returns to society than before it was disturbed by the shovel. It certainly will have to be planted to crops different from those it produced before it was stripped. But there is little basis for the fears of some that it will forever be a tax liability to the county in which it is located.

There are a number of uses to which this land can be turned. One is to turn all stripped land over to the federal government for a forestry project. Mr. Fred Pierce of the Forestry Service believes this land would be suitable for tree culture without extensive leveling. A project of this type would give work to a number of local people now unemployed. But such a plan would not establish people on the land, and it would preclude any income to the county in the way of taxes.

The plan which is finding the greatest favor with those who have given thought to the question is the one which proposes to break these large tracts into plots of from ten to 40 acres and to dispose of them to people who will actually own and work them. Most of these plots would have to be worked on the subsistence homestead principle.

That stripped land is productive is no longer doubted, for there is an abundance of evidence. Mr. Bert Steve of Frontenac, Kansas, has planted on a 50 acre plot 1,000 fruit trees, consisting of apple, peach, pear, and plum, besides a large variety of grape vines. He also has extensive plantings of pecan and black walnut trees which have made rapid growth. The first fruit trees were planted five years ago on dumps only six months old. The peach and pear trees for the past two years have produced quantities of choice fruit, while a yield of thirty-five pounds was secured from a single Golden Muscat grape vine; these grapes were equal in quality to those produced in California.

The Pittsburg and Midway Coal Mining Company has long believed the strip pit land could be reclaimed and made to grow profitable crops. "The company has set out about 30,000 eighteen to twenty-four inch walnuts, locusts, poplars, and pine." With the exception of the pine, these trees have all made satisfactory growth. A similar experiment is being conducted by the Mackie-Clemens Fuel Company in dumps near Foxtown, and the results are very encouraging. A part of this land was planted to sweet clover and lespedeza which was used as pasture for 150 sheep.[2]

The Pittsburg Chamber of Commerce, under the direction of the reclamation committee, planted 500 fruit trees, grapes, and berries on a 70 acre tract near Fleming, Kansas. These were planted during the

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[2]Kansas Academy of Science, XLIII, 60.

spring of 1940, and the results obtained so far are very satisfactory. This is an NYA project, and it is hoped that accurate data may be secured from it as to the best method to pursue in handling strip pit land.

There are many other uses to which the now unsightly dumps can be put. All kinds of small fruit do exceptionally well on this land, such as currants, gooseberries, blackberries, raspberries, etc. These, along with chickens which can be run in connection with trees, will provide a considerable income while waiting for a yield from the orchard. Bees also offer a means of securing immediate income from dumps. The Pittsburg and Midway Coal Company planted sweet clover on a half section of stripped land near Mineral. A tenant of the coal company living nearby obtained 4,000 pounds of honey from 40 stands of bees which were utilizing the clover.[3]

The splendid results obtained from actual use of strip pit land by companies and individuals should dispell most fears that this land cannot be profitably reclaimed.

A chief problem facing a strip pit project is the cost of leveling. While on several of the projects now in operation no leveling was attempted, students of the question generally agree a greater degree of success will be attained if some leveling is done. By leveling is meant simply rounding off the high ridges sufficiently to plant trees and vines. The cost of reducing the ridges suitably for general farm crops would be prohibitive. The land can be purchased for from $2.50 to $10 per acre. With especially designed equipment and with the farmer doing most of the work, the project from the economic standpoint is reasonably safe.

Securing a living from stripped land without several years of improvement probably should not be considered. Instead, it should be worked on the subsistence homestead principle, and for that plan the setup in this corner of the state is ideal. Here a large percentage of the people follow mining, which is a seasonal occupation. Much of the miner's time is not used at the mines; so with a small tract of strip pit land his income and security could be greatly increased. "With one foot on the land and the other in industry, the country, and every family in it are soundly based."[4]

The many demonstrations conducted have gone a long way toward proving that stripped land is superior to native soil for growing fruit trees and several other crops. Each year reliable data is accumulating. The experimental stage of reclaiming strip pit land is rapidly giving place to a well-grounded belief that the ugly dumps have great economic and social value.

[3]*Pittsburg Headlight,* August 3, 1939.

[4]Landis, *Rural Life in Process,* 234.

Home Economics and National Defense

E. LOUISE GIBSON

"National Defense," the theme of the hour in one phase or another, constantly headlines newspapers and magazines. A vast and comprehensive program is being worked upon to prepare this country to meet any emergency which may arise. In addition to the Council of National Defense, the President recently appointed a National Defense Advisory Commission, whose purpose is to coordinate the national resources of materials and men. One member of this Commission is Miss Harriet Elliot, who has been appointed as Consumer Adviser of the commission.

The particular concern of the Consumer Adviser is with people, "in terms of what they eat, how they live, and how they can best participate in the defense program." This

> involves three main functions: to promote measures which will protect and improve the standard of living and economic well-being of the people; to reinforce the human defenses of the country by raising standards of nutrition, physical fitness, security, and community welfare; to enlist the aid of every individual in the nation as a co-partner in defense.[1]

The home economist for a number of years has been concerned with: what people eat and raising the standards of nutrition; how people live and raising the standard of living; and what people buy and educating for buying more wisely.

The present situation with its cry for improvement in national health and morale which comes from improved personal and family life will, no doubt, give her new enthusiasm and more than usual determination to do what she can to promote what the home economists at their national meeting last summer termed "behind the lines" defense.

A knowledge of conditions as they exist in this country as revealed by studies of income levels and expenditures enables the individual to have a better appreciation of the need for improvement in the feeding and housing of a large proportion of the population.

A study[2] of the distribution of consumer incomes in the United States in 1935-38 showed that in terms of dollars and cents one-third of the 39 million families and individual consumers had incomes of less than \$780. Another third received between \$780 and \$1,450, while the incomes of the top third varied over a million dollars. Of this latter wide range, 15 per cent of all or nearly one-half of this upper third had incomes between \$1,450 and \$2,000; 11 per cent between

[1]Editorial. "The Consumer in Relation to National Defense," *Journal of Home Economics,* Vol. 32 (Dec. 1940), pp. 687-688.

[2]Twenty-Second Annual North Atlantic Regional Conference, Home Economics Education. Misc. 2384, Issued by Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, Washington. August, 1940.

$2,000 and $3,000; 4½ percent between $3,000 and $5,000; and 2 per cent between $5,000 and $15,000. Only one-half of one percent of all families and individuals had incomes of $15,000 and over.

Examination of the expenditures of these families reveals that over four-fifths of the consumption expenditures of the lower income group and three-fifths of those with incomes above this group but below $3,000 are for the major essentials: food, clothing, and shelter. In fact 98 per cent of the income of the lower third is spent for these three basic wants. Furthermore, we are shown that at every income level below $20,000, food is the largest single category of expense. At the lower income level food expenditures vary from 44-65 per cent of the income. With this high percentage of income of over two-thirds of the families of the United States being spent for food, the question arises as to how well they are fed.

The Food and National Defense Issue of the Consumers' Guide[3] says that one-third of the 130 millions of the people in this country live below the safety line because they don't get the food they need. This may be due to one or more causes: some do not earn enough to buy food; some with land do not grow food for their families; some do not know the foods they need; and still others do not care enough to select what they should have.

What does being undernourished or living below the safety line mean? It means that the body tires too easily, is too weak to fight disease, and that the mind is slow to think. Whereas, being amply fed and having well balanced meals that provide an abundance of protective foods means strong straight bodies, that can carry the load of a hard day's work, eyes that are sharp and sure, and firm and steady nerves. Hungry people, undernourished people, ill people, mentally sluggish people, do not make for strong defense. In this country we have the land, the machines, the hands, and the brains that it takes for all of the people to live above the safety line. To bring this situation about affords a job for everyone.

Home economists working alone and with others in the community can and are aiding in many ways in the task of raising this third above the safety line with regard to their nutritional needs. They are assisting with school lunch programs, which try to provide every school child with at least one well-balanced and adequate meal each day. They are working with food study programs and diet clinics, where families and individuals can come to talk over their food selection and buying problems. They are contributing to the health-education program, including nutrition, in the public schools. They are assisting in the use of surplus commodities by families needing and eligible to receive them. They are also serving on advisory committees for the feeding and recreation of young people in resident

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[3]Consumers' Guide, Volume VI, No. 20, September, 1940.

youth projects or young employed workers housed in groups away from home. A present opportunity for the home economist is the co-operation with citizens' committees in work with the families of drafted men and in advising on remedial work for youths rejected because of disabilities due to malnutrition.

As was previously stated, how people live is one of the concerns of the National Defense Advisory Commission. President Roosevelt has stated that one-third of our population is ill-housed. Housing authorities estimate that from one-half to one-fourth of the housing is substandard.

> It has long been known to students of housing that the dwellings and neighborhoods in which a substantial fraction of the American people live are of a character to injure health, endanger the safety and morals, and interfere with the normal family life of their inhabitants.[4]

Social workers find that substandard housing is frequently the cause of disease and crime that affect all classes of society. City surveys show that the highest percentages of delinquents come from the slum areas.

A recent inventory taken by the United States Department of Commerce[5] reveals that in the capital city of Kansas, 17.7 per cent of the homes have three rooms or less and that 14.1 per cent of its housing is classified as crowded or worse. As to utilities, the report shows that 17.7 per cent of the homes have no running water, 5.2 per cent have neither gas nor electric lights, 32.4 per cent have neither a bath tub nor shower.

Conditions were found to be much more deplorable on the farms of Kansas than in the towns and cities. The farm homes of Kansas, however, are no worse than those in many other states and should not be compared with the very poor rural living conditions in certain areas in the southern states where 85 per cent do not even have out-door toilets. Are these facts to be wondered at when one recalls that one-third of the families in the country in 1936 had incomes of less than $780?

What has all of this to do with national defense? The results of these conditions — poor diet and poor housing, combined with other factors—have no doubt contributed to the fact that a considerable number of young men have failed to pass the physical examinations necessary for the draft. Again, how can the morale of individuals who live under these conditions contribute to total defense? The current European war has brought home to America the lesson that wars nowadays are fought, and won or lost, as often behind the lines, in the civilian centers and in the homes, as on the battle fields.

Home economists can and are aiding in the improvement of home

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[4]Edith Elmer Wood, *Slums and Blighted Areas in the United States,* United States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1936, p. 3.

[5]Collected and compiled by the Real Property Inventory, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, and reported in *Slums and Blighted Areas in the United States,* by Edith Elmer Wood, Editor, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, 1936. pp. 82-83.

and family life in many ways. One of the most valuable is that of developing through teaching a continued faith and practice in democratic procedures, as well as in the development of physically sound individuals and in the building of morale. This is done when the home economics program is adapted to the actual conditions and needs of the individuals and families concerned and when the method of teaching gives opportunity for individual growth and expression. Practical instruction in the wise expenditure of the family income and in developing desirable individual and family attitudes are examples of classroom situations of value in improving home life.

One type of community service which home economists are qualified to render in this field is leadership of discussion groups on family relationships and housing. Another is volunteer service for special work with the groups being housed in new housing projects, especially in areas crowded by workers in defense industries. Again, they are cooperating on community projects intended to relieve problems of home crowding and to promote the social life of youth and adults.

Home economists are lending valuable assistance in the health and hygiene phase of the defense program. With the increasing demand for more nurses in the government service, there arises a greater need for a more thorough and widespread knowledge of home nursing. To meet this need homemaking teachers are placing a greater emphasis on this study, both in the classroom and with adult education groups. To further this work the United States Office of Education has issued an excellent bulletin[6] containing outlines and suggestions of value to teachers.

Another area in which home economists are assisting with the defense program is that of consumer education. Homemaking instruction for a number of years has included this training, but the conditions brought about by the present situation will necessitate still greater knowledge for wiser expenditure of the income in order to obtain the necessary commodities. Home economists can help in Miss Elliott's program by reporting and investigating prices that seem out of line. They may need to help consumers to learn to use materials other than those we are now using in order to release these basic materials for use in armaments or in equipping armed forces. They can lead in discussion groups on consumer problems. They can aid the consumer by informing him of agencies—government, commercial and private—from which he can secure valuable assistance with his buying problems.

In order to put their special abilities at the service of the government in its program for national defense, home economists are conducting a nation-wide registration. At Cleveland last summer, the American Home Economics Associ-

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[6]*Home Nursing Courses in High Schools.* Education and National Defense Series—No. 1. Federal Security Agency, United States Office of Education.

ation agreed to conduct this registration and is furnishing the registration cards, which provide for a brief record of the individual's training, experience, and availability. The state home economics associations have the responsibility of having the cards filled in, classified, and filed for reference as need demands.

Colleges and universities are formulating new policies, plans, and activities to meet the defense emergency. Included in these programs will be found considerable emphasis on home life problems. Russell Sage College reports an excellent five point program, which includes among other things the expansion of the regular curriculum offerings to provide for more training in elementary nursing skills and elementary knowledge and skills in the fields of foods and nutrition.

These are some of the ways in which home economists are cooperating with the defense program.

Home economists are trying to remember as Miss Harriet Elliott states that defense is not only planes, guns, and equipment but also "it is building the health, the physical fitness, the social well-being of all of our people, and doing it the democratic way."

What Shall We Teach in Homemaking?

B. Lillian Nelson

Much has been written concerning what should be included in our homemaking program. Many of the significant statements made by authorities on the subject could be condensed into the following excerpt from a recent article[1] by Gladys Brannegan, President of the American Home Economics Association.

> Our contribution to the economic independence of our students at this level (secondary schools) has been indirect—through personality development, better grooming, happier home and family relationships, and the ability to buy and consume more effectively. Probably our wisest course is to continue along the same general lines, despite the fact that there is an ever-increasing number of young women seeking employment. The majority need outside employment for only a short time before they marry and manage their own homes . . . About one third of the young women in the United States between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four are married and about one-fifth of this number were married at sixteen years of age or less.

The modern homemaking teacher is anxious to make a vital contribution to a student's education, and she has accepted the idea that in order to be successful in class room teaching she must first study the girls, the homes, and the community if the instruction is to be adapted to the needs, the interests, and the abilities of the individual pupils. The difficulty lies in discovering soon just where the emphasis in homemaking must be laid for each group of girls.

Many problems have been successfully solved by planning and by pupil-parent-teacher planning. Again, it often proves valuable to obtain the opinion of a person who is not personally involved in the homemaking class work. Such an opinion was gained when high school seniors[2] were questioned concerning what they feel would attract girls to the homemaking program. One of the questions asked was, "All other things being equal what would have attracted you to the home economics program?" Among the replies given were two frequent answers, important from the standpoint of planning a homemaking program. The author stated that the replies of the various girls might be summed up in the following:

> 1. A well rounded curriculum including all phases of family and social problems and development of today with consideration of tomorrow's probable changes.
> 2. Freedom in choice of projects with guidance.

At Frontenac, Kansas, there is a strong tendency for girls to marry

[1]Brannagan, Gladys. The Home Economics Teacher's Role in the Educational Program for Youth. *Practical Home Economics*. 18: 287-288, 317. 1940.

[2]Ewing, Mabel A. What Type of Home Economics Program Would Attract the Brilliant Student. *Practical Home Economics*. 16: 303-304. 1938.

soon after leaving high school. The homemaking instructor at the high school confronted with the pertinent question of what to include in the present homemaking program was also curious as to what the young homemakers in the community might think should be taught in homemaking.

When a questionnaire[3] entitled "What Should be Included in the Homemaking Course?" was answered by thirty-nine former students of the public school between the years of 1925 and 1938, a significant point was noted. The phases of homemaking these former students found most interesting in school are those that are benefiting them the most in their present life. It may be interesting to note that 25 of the 39 women answering the questions are married. Eleven of these married women had no children; ten had one child each; and the remaining four each had two children.

Here are the answers to the question, "Which of the following did you study while taking homemaking?"

Food Preparation	39
Clothing Construction	39
Clothing Care	37
Clothing Selection	37
Costume Design	36
Related Art	29
Related Science	28
Meal Planning	28
Food Purchasing	26
Food Selection	25
Child Care and Development	25
Family Relationships	22
Nutrition	22
Health	21
Home Nursing	21
Home Management	20
House Care	16
House Furnishings	16
Physiology	15
Home Planning	14

Twenty-three of the thirty-nine women hoped that their daughters would be privileged to study all the phases of homemaking mentioned, and thirty-eight of the number voted that their daughters should have work in clothing construction and child care and development. An interesting relationship is observed between this answer and one to the question "What phases of homemaking could you have studied that would have helped you now?" Seventeen women answered "More child care and development." A close second vote to this question was "home management." Undoubtedly, these two phases of homemaking are today important and pressing problems in the lives of these young women.

"Related science" was the answer most often given to two questions concerning the phase of homemaking least liked in school, and the one from which they are now receiving the least benefit.

Seventeen women had found clothing construction the most interesting homemaking subject in school, and 13 voted for food preparation. A follow-up question, "From which of the various phases of homemaking studied in school are you receiving the most benefit?" resulted in a vote of 15 for clothing

[3]The writer wishes to express her appreciation to Miss Constance Dittman and Miss Mildred Collins for the time they so generously gave while this survey was being made.

construction and 23 for food preparation.

The young girls as well as the adults in this community evidently feel an urgent need for a knowledge of clothing construction. A recent questionnaire given to 20 second-year homemaking students revealed that only three considered clothing construction the most interesting subject in homemaking. Puzzled over this information, the instructor questioned the students concerning the answer, for, of all of the subjects given in homemaking, this course had consistently received the most wholehearted, enthusiastic interest from this group. The simple, candid statement of one girl is typical of the replies of 16 members of the group.

> Clothing construction isn't easy, and it isn't as much fun as some of the things we do in homemaking, but I'm anxious to learn to make and alter my clothing. I'm afraid if I don't learn how to do it now, I never will. That makes me interested and anxious to get as much work in clothing as I can while I'm here in school.

A reason, sincere and straightforward as this one, gives an instructor faith in the youth in our schools. Not every student, as some people are prone to believe, is seeking the easiest and most entertaining courses in the school curriculum.

Since this community survey at Frontenac there has been an earnest endeavor to awaken a desire and a need for the phases of homemaking that have not proved popular. This is particularly true in regard to related science. Seemingly, there has been more animated interest on the part of the students since more laboratory work has been introduced into related science. On the other hand, a determined effort is constantly in progress to make the already popular phases of homemaking as vital and worth while as possible.

As there are constant changes in our lives, we must make continual adjustments to meet them. It is true that one survey cannot solve all problems nor cure all evils. A constant lookout must be kept if arising needs are to be quickly recognized. Muriel W. Brown,[4] Consultant in Family Education, states that there is (1) a need for knowing more exactly the extent to which teaching in the field of homemaking is influencing family living, and (2) a need for knowing more accurately which parts of the homemaking program need strengthening. Needs as broad and as far reaching as these cannot be solved in a single day, nor a single year, but will take constant planning and conscientious work.

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[4]Brown, Muriel W. This is Home Economics. *Nation's Schools,* 26: 35-37. 1940.

Influence of the American Association of University Women in the Development of Home Economics

G. E. J. WADE

Analysis of home economics programs as they have gradually evolved through the years on different school levels tells an interesting story of progress in content and in methods; it also gives some conception of the great variety of services which have been rendered in the name of home economics. Specific phases of the home economics problems have been transferred to the school room, while other phases have been continuously centered in home and family life. Training through formal curricula entered into the college field with the double purpose of giving individual instruction and at the same time equipping teachers for service in society. "In 1890 (at Wellesley) began the real attempt to introduce college courses in home economics which should be on a scientific basis and deal with principles rather than with the repeated performance of the details of a trade."[1]

Women's clubs early afforded an avenue for the expression of organized interest in the home economic problems of both adult and juvenile. Immediately after the Civil War there was an increase of women's organizations whose objectives were what one usually designated "modern club purposes." Though home economics had an almost universal appeal, interest in it was not always expressed in the same manner, nor did it center on the same phase of home problems; yet definite contributions were made to its progress. Among those organizations contributing was the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.

Home economics was just passing out of its preliminary stage when the American Association of University Women, the former Association of Collegiate Alumnae, was organized. The Massachusetts legislature had legalized the introduction of "sewing and other industrial subjects" into the public school systems of the state. Kansas, Iowa, and Illinois had incorporated domestic science in their college curricula on what was at that time a scientific basis. Attention and interest of the Association were equally divided between the study of the more formal phases of home economics and the problems of college women engaged in homemaking.[2]

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[1] "The Home Economics Movement in the United States," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. III (No. 4) October, 1911.

[2] Register of *A. C. A.*, 1884, p. 4. The purpose of the organization as expressed in the original constitution was "to unite alumnae of different institutions for practical educational work."

The contributions of the organization were presented under three major subdivisions:

1. Contributions to the study of home problems.
2. Contributions to the study and solution of community problems.
3. Contributions to curricula development.

The summary of a study made on home problems included the question: "Shall the college curriculum prepare women directly for wifehood and motherhood?" It stated that 80 per cent of women at large needed that training.

In the records and reports of the Association's contributions to the homemaking problems, sanitation, relationship of the educational system to the house, diet, and special researches on the pre-school child stand out prominently. One of the first textbooks in home economics, *Home Sanitation,* the result of research in the homes of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae members, was published in 1887 by Marian Talbot, at present at the University of Chicago, and Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, now deceased. Health researches began with the study of the physical well being of college women and collegiate facilities for physical training of women students. Knowledge of the causes of physical inferiority was the basis for a proposal of remedies. So the Association turned its attention to finding ways and means of improving conditions. These health studies comprised a large number of topics bearing on preparation for marriage and motherhood, conditions of childhood, personal health, health of school children, and family health.

The question of diet for children was early a subject for study in the Association. In 1886 an address was given on "Diet for Growing Boys and Girls." Continued interest resulted in practical experimentation with the noon lunches in the public schools. Members of the Committee on Hygiene of the Boston School Board, 1894, secured the passage of an order that only such food as was approved by them should be sold in the city school houses.

The study given to the conditions of school life made clear there should be similar studies of infancy and childhood. Hence a general research on infancy and the development of the pre-school child followed. In 1894 an attempt was made to classify these studies:

1. Studies of the pre-natal period.
2. Studies of later childhood.
3. Studies of children in elementary and secondary schools.

By 1907 many committees cooperated in the study of the development of children. In 1910 the Child Study Committee consolidated with Mrs. Richard's Committee on Euthenics, euthenics being defined as the "betterment of living through conscious endeavor, for the purpose of securing efficient human beings." The Association as a whole has constantly reiterated its belief in the responsibility of college women for the importance of the period of infancy. A study once started was to cover a period of several years. Its importance led the chairman of the committee to suggest that the inves-

tigation be carried out by the association under the direction of a university department of economics."[3]

By 1922 attention was focused on nursery schools to be used as laboratories for practical experience in child care and child management, subjects which give vital content to courses in child psychology, child health, and child welfare.

In 1940 the Texas branch undertook cooperation with the state Division of Child Welfare to promote a state-wide program of child protection. The first task was to know the community program for social welfare, then a study of family welfare would follow. A study made in 1938 on "The American Family in a Changing Society" showed the continued concern of the Association for family-life problems. Another study, "The Modern Parent," was also started and was to continue over a period of three years, in an attempt to discover the qualities most emphasized in the training of children in the home.[4]

In 1890 Mrs. Richards urged that Domestic Science be placed in the curriculum on a par with other sciences, for chemistry, physics, physiology, biology, and especially bacteriology are only the stepping stones for sanitary science. Therefore, she said, lectures should treat of these topics:

1. The home and its surroundings from a sanitary as well as an architectural standpoint.
2. Mechanical apparatus of house: heating, lighting, ventilation, and drainage.
3. Furnishing and general care of the house.
4. Food and clothing.

An address given at the seventh annual meeting of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae October 29, 1898, urged the necessity of a college curriculum which prepares women both for wage earning and for marriage. The speaker made a plea

> . . . that the common fund of knowledge should always include the household sciences with special emphasis upon physiology and hygiene . . . any special line of study pursued with the aim of self-support should still be such as would enrich the home . . . that organic chemistry, bacteriology, architecture and decoration, economics, physiology, and psychology of children are the basis of domestic life, and should be provided among courses offered to women . . . that the object of college training is not technique but principles . . . the absurdity, the irony, the pitiful failure of an education which turns out thousands of women yearly without even a knowledge of the facts, much less of the physiology and hygiene of reproduction, cannot be adequately expressed . . . moreover, that individual and social results involved in sex relations can only be taught by one who is truly scholarly—one thoroughly learned in physiology, hygiene, medicine, and sociology.[5]

In 1912 a New York Branch of the Association Report states that the pamphlet, *The Revised College*

[3]*Jr. A. C. A.*, Vol. X, (No. 4) March, 1912, p. 219.

[4]*Jr. A. A. U. W.*, Vol. 32 (No. 3) Apr., 1939.

[5]*Publication of A. C. A.*, Series III, No. 1, Dec. 1898. "Shall the College Curriculum Be Modified for Women?"

Curriculum, has been instrumental in helping plan a change in their curriculum. Curricula suggestions on both college and public school levels were made, were welcomed, and, in a few instances, were sought by administrative officers. In San Francisco members of the Association entered the school room and conducted the home economics course pending decision to incorporate the work in the school curricula. Through the influence of the Association, correspondence courses in home economics work were introduced in at least one college and recommended for others.

The legislation activities of the Association were combined with those of several organizations whose interests were centered in home and community life; so no specific credit can be given for actual accomplishment through the Association. The Smith-Lever and the Smith-Huges Acts for teaching home economics with federal aid, were enthusiastically supported by the Association together with other organizations. The Sheppard-Towner Bill gave the Association an opportunity to emphasize its original interest in home problems.

A very active interest in the home is revealed by recent investigations sending questionnaires to chairmen of social study committees on consumer problems. Participation in the Consumer Education Conference on questions of "How and What to Teach Adults of the Average Income Level" and "Standardization of Consumer Goods" has been fostered. Another cooperating interest of the Association is shown in its new authorization of standardization of foods, in its sending representatives to a series of public hearings on various products, sponsored by the Food and Drug Administration. It has also supported "another milestone on the way towards standardization" in the completion of a project for measuring children's sizes of garments.[7]

This review of the activities of the American Association of University Women is only to show that influence is a great contributor toward progress in any phase of living. The Association is much less active in the home economics field at present than in its early years. The records indicate that there was virtually no phase of home economics which did not appeal in one way or another to the service instincts of the Association. Its continued emphasis upon the family, child, and community welfare indicates also that its original interest in problems which center about homemaking is still a vital concern.

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[7] *Jr. A. A. U. W.*, Vol. 32 (No. 3) April, 1939, p. 180. The project was carried out under the direction of Miss Ruth O'Brien, Chief of the Division of Textiles and Clothing of the U. S. Bureau of Home Economics and a member of the A. A. U. W. Committee on Social Standards.

FIELD NOTES

Aaron Butler, 1939, has been offered for next year the editorship of the student newspaper published by the Graduate School of Business Administration at Harvard University, where he is a student for the second year. Mr. Butler is a former editor of The Collegio, student newspaper at the College. His home is at Weir, Kansas.

Four hundred and fifty alumni met in 16 different cities on Monday, March 10, to celebrate Apple Day. Most of the groups held dinner meetings and listened to the special broadcast from Coffeyville presented by the College. Featured on the radio program were Dr. O. P. Dellinger, acting president, who gave the commemoration address, Miss Eulalia Roseberry who told the apple story, Robert Briley, president of the Student Council, and Bob Mauer who read a review of school incidents written by Dr. J. Gordon Eaker.

Garth Thomas, A. B. 1938, assistant instructor in psychology at the University of Kansas, has been awarded a $1,000 assistantship at Harvard University for the 1941-42 scholastic year. Thomas will leave K. U. at the close of the present semester to accept the award.

Robert Hill, B. S. 1938, who has been teaching Industrial Arts in Florence, Kansas, has accepted a similar position in Jacksonville, Fla.

Bonnie Rae Armstrong, B. S. in music 1940, has recently accepted a position as teacher of music in the junior high school of Dodge City, Kansas.

Ermal K. Whitesitt, B. S. 1932, who taught printing in the Chanute High School, is now teaching printing in Wichita.

G. R. Wallace, M. S. 1937, has gone to Teachers College in Clarksville, Tenn. as NYA supervisor. He had taught industrial arts for several years at Columbus.

Kent Grubbs who received his B. S. the first semester of this year is teaching industrial arts in the junior high school at Topeka.

George M. Freeman, M. S. 1940, is now supervisor of teacher training in industrial arts at State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas.

COMMENTS ON BOOKS

Bottlenecks of Business

By Thurman W. Arnold

Reynal and Hitchcock,
New York, 1940.

For some time students of economics have pointed out that business is being impeded by barriers which interfere with the free flow of goods and services from producers to consumers. Some of these barriers are imposed intentionally, while others are unavoidable.

> The market place of today in the United States is shot through with restraints of trade and economic toll-bridges in the hands of private groups. They cause disparity of prices. They create the need for subsidies to balance that disparity and for special privileges to unorganized groups to offset those of long standing held by organizations which have too strong a hold on their social privileges to be deprived of them by a democratic government. The pyramiding of subsidies and special privileges cannot go on indefinitely without threatening our political institutions. Unless we can preserve our industrial democracy, our political democracy will disappear.[1]

In view of the present urgency of the defense program, these checks are becoming much more noticeable and harmful. For these reasons this book is quite timely.

The author is a member of the Antitrust Division of the Department of Justice. He is attorney for the Temporary National Economic Committee. He and this committee are working to prevent combinations that interfere with the equitable distribution of goods and services. Much of the information in the book is the result of his experiences in his present capacity. Authority for prosecutions is derived from the Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890.

Dissolution of these barriers and restraints will not only expedite the defense program but it will also affect the standard of living of millions of citizens. One purpose in issuing the book is to acquaint the general public with the nature and extent of these restrictions. If the public knows the facts, it will more willingly support the work of the Antitrust Division.

The author makes it clear that monopoly is not synonymous with size. Some of the very largest business concerns operate without attempting to eliminate competition, while other smaller concerns aim at airtight combinations. Service or behavior is the test. The antitrust laws do not attempt to limit the size of an individual's profits, or the prices he may charge. The question is whether he is charging high prices because he has combined with others

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[1] Arnold, Thurman W., Reynal and Hitchcock, *Bottlenecks of Business*, p. 127

and is attempting to dominate the entire industry.

Among the various devices for keeping the consumer away from the savings of mass production, two are prominent. One is to protect inefficiency by eliminating standardized materials and products of mass production. The building industry in Chicago for years has prevented the use of ready-mixed cement in the construction of a house, compelling the consumer to have it puddled on the building site in an expensive way. Another type of restraint is to develop efficient methods and processes of production and, by combination, to dominate the market in such a way that the savings are not passed on to the consumer. The tobacco industry is an example. In some years the farmers have received less for the crop than the profits of the manufacturers. The retailers are selling cigarettes at a loss. Do the companies compete? They spend millions in radio advertising, but the competition is not in price but in hokum.

In general, human society has found only two ways of distributing goods and services. One is the army system, by which an officer passes out the goods from the supply store to the troops according to their needs. The other is the system of free exchange in a free, competitive market. This system is not a particularly orderly process; neither is it a planned economy. But it is the only process that relies on the independence of the individual as a person, rather than as a cog in a machine. As organization increases, free exchange becomes more and more limited and the first type of distribution is called more and more into use. Thus a free market becomes a *sine qua non* for a free society of free people.

Many critics regard all books on economics as humorous. But this book contains an unusual amount of intentional, conscious humor.

—O. F. Grubbs

American Politics

Peter H. Odegard and E. Allen Helms,

Harper & Brothers, 1938

No more interesting or vital subjects can be found in the field of human investigation today than government "for the people and by the people." Popular government versus dictatorship has pointed the minds of the thinking world toward American politics.

The book written by two professors of political science, Peter H. Odegard of Amherst College and E. Allen Helms of Ohio State University, was designed for the college student as a study in political dynamics. It is written as a human interest story, which it is, the authors having carefully avoided technical definitions buried in deeply involved statements. Many authoritative footnotes and explanatory paragraphs aid the student in locating the sources of data used in the text. The text proper moves along in a rapid and readable story.

Any person who wishes to be-

come informed and gain a wide and yet fair picture of the governmental machinery in the oldest democracy in the world, will not be disappointed in *American Politics*. Twenty-three chapters make up this book of nearly 900 pages. The first seven chapters are devoted to a digest of politics and parties in their inception and the way party politics developed under our constitution, together with a recital of the methods which have come into use in federal, state, and local government units. This fourth of the book gives a comprehensive background upon which to bring to life many sectional pictures: "The Politics of Farm and Section," "The Politics of Business," and "The Aims of Labor." With "The Politics of the Melting Pot," we are not yet half way through this interesting story, for now the authors are ready to build the great pyramid beginning with two chapters on "The Right to Vote." The story of voting is told, and the development of the two theories—one, that man is not interested in the state unless he owns property in the state, so that only proprietors should have the privilege of voting—the other, that man should recognize no other master than reason and that every man should have a right to share in the voice of the government. How these theories have affected the growth of suffrage and the problems that came into the foreground with the increase of voting privileges and the social results thereof are handled in an interesting manner. Following "The Right to Vote" comes "The Business of Politics—Bosses and Machines" with such timely sections as "The Rape of Civil Service," "Honest or Dishonest Graft," "Bossism and Society."

The longest section of the book is given over to a careful statement covering the long and greatly involved mechanism which "Nominates the Candidate," "Engineers the Consent," and gives "The Midas Touch—Campaign Finance," leading to "The Voters' Verdict."

This is the great pyramid of politics in the democracy of the United States. Scarcely one voter in a hundred can trace the nominating and electing of a president. The methods have developed through custom and usage. There are few laws, few legal authorities for these customs.

The authors devote the last hundred pages of their book to a statement on pressure politics and majority rule, closing with a chapter on "The Future of Party Government." Appendices give the party platforms of 1936 and a graphic picture of the election records of the past twenty years. If the general knowledge included within the covers of this book was in possession of every intelligent adult American, the party system of politics would be better understood and appreciated, and democracy would be "safer" for future freedom and human rights.

R. H. Smith

Contributors to This Number

PEARL GARRISON (M. A., Columbia University), associate professor of home economics, came to the College the summer of 1922 as assistant professor, teaching clothing and related work.

E. LOUISE GIBSON (A. M., Columbia University) is associate professor of Home Economics. Miss Gibson has the B. S. degree from Kansas State Teachers College. She is a member of American Home Economics Association and Kansas Home Economics Association.

O. F. GRUBBS (A. M., University of Southern California), professor of economics, came to the College in 1914 as associate professor of history; was made professor of European history in 1928, and held this position until his promotion in 1939.

ANNIE MARRIOT (A. M., Columbia University) is professor of home economics and director of cafeteria. Miss Marriott is a member of the American Home Economics Association and the Kansas Home Economics Association.

JOSEPHINE MARSHALL (M. A., Teachers College, Columbia University), head of the Department of Home Economics, came to the College in 1928, having served as assistant professor of Household Arts Education at Teachers College Columbia University.

B. LILLIAN NELSON (M. S., Iowa State College) is instructor in the home economics department with which she became associated in 1938. Formerly Miss Nelson was head of the home economics department at the Oglala Boarding School, Pine Ridge, South Dakota.

J. C. STRALEY (M. A., University of Wisconsin), associate professor of sociology, came to the College in 1927 as assistant professor, being promoted to his present position in 1936. He served six years as principal of the Crawford County Community High School, and twelve years as superintendent of schools in Kansas and Minnesota.

G. E. JACQUES WADE (A. M., University of Chicago) came to the College in September, 1939, for nutrition and home management work in the Home Economics Department. She has done advanced degree work at the University of Minnesota and at Teachers College Columbia University.