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THE TECHNE

LIFE WITHOUT LABOR IS A CRIME. LABOR WITHOUT ART
AND THE AMENITIES OF LIFE IS BRUTALITY.—RUSKIN.

VOL. XVIII

MAY-JUNE, 1935

NO. V

THE ESSENCE OF DEMOCRACY

“Men must learn that liberty can be won only through action—and when won it must be shared. They must realize that restraint on any minority, no matter how obnoxious, injures everyone as it establishes a principle which may in time be used against those now in power. Some day men will realize that it is not a mere phrase—that highest ideal of liberty—to be willing to die that other men may have the right to teach what you believe false and dangerous.”

From The Story of Civil Liberty in the United States
—Leon Whipple.

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No. 5

BOARD OF MANAGEMENT

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THE TECHNE publishes, for the most part, papers on educational subjects, though articles on closely related fields are also used. Part of these papers set forth the results of research; others aim at interpretation of current developments. Through some of the discussions will interest the specialist, it is hoped that in every number there will be something useful for the average teacher.

THE TECHNE is sent free to the alumni, school officials, libraries, and, on request to any person interested in the progress of education.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Adolph Hitler—Mein Kampf.....	3
Samuel James Pease	
The Need for the Re-orientation of Mathematics in the Secondary Schools from the Viewpoint of Modern Education Theory.....	10
W. H. Hill	
Proportional Representation.....	16
Lula M. McPherson	
A Tendency in Modern American Fiction.....	21
R. Tyson Wyckoff	
The School's Opportunity in the Present Crisis.....	26
Maurine Dickey	
Faculty Sketches.....	30

Adolf Hitler — *MEIN KAMPF*

SAMUEL JAMES PEASE

The dramatic rise to power of Adolf Hitler is intelligible only in the light of an understanding of what a German means by "*Deutschtum*." While the expression is rather racial than territorial, it nevertheless includes the territory named in the national hymn that today closes every period of German broadcasting:¹

Von der Maas bis an die Memel,
Von der Etsch bis an den Belt;
Deutschland, Deutschland ueber Alles,
Ueber Alles in der Welt.

"From the Meuse to the Memel,
From the Adige to the Baltic
Germany, Germany above all,
Above all in the world."

"*Deutschtum*" must be most carefully distinguished from Pan-Germanism, one of the movements which it supplanted. Pan-Germanism envisaged a Greater Germany that should swallow up minority elements, whereas the National Socialist idea of "*Deutschtum*" includes only those elements that are German at heart. Racial unity is by no means political unity, especially in the confused tangle of races around the borders of the present political Germany. But in particular Austria has been divorced—artificially—from Germany for nearly 70 years, driven out by Bismarck's policy of Prussian dominance, and kept out by the jealousy and fears of France and the intrigues of the whole group of her allies, which are chiefly those nations which have gorged themselves with territory and are now unable or unwilling to disgorge.

Across the artificial Middle Border of Germany, through the Bavarian Alps from the Northern Tyrol into Bavaria, runs the Inn river; on the Austrian side of this Middle Border of Germany, through the Ba-Braunau on the Inn, Adolf Hitler was born on April 20, 1889. The son of an Austrian patriot by a Bohemian mother, he found himself from childhood, as he says in his book, loving Austria intensely, but hating with equal intensity the Slavophile group in power. His teen-age experiences in Vienna, his jack-of-all trades life in Munich, his proud though modest war-record, his entrance into oratory and politics, the ups and downs of his leadership, the development of his philosophy, his aims and means of attainment, form the subject of his book, *Mein Kampf*. Of his upward struggle, one of his followers calls it "*Kampf, Kampf, und abermals Kampf*" (Battle, Battle, and again Battle), and Battle it has been in the literal sense. This book, although it brings us

¹See the official map issued in March 1935, showing 1) Territories severed by the Treaty of Versailles, and 2) German speaking territory in other nations.

only to 1927, nevertheless gives us a key to his elevation to the Chancellorship in 1933, as the result of a popular election, to the assumption of the title "Reichsfuehrer" on the death of President von Hindenburg in 1934, to the ruthless purgings of June 30, 1934 and since, to the degradation of a million Jews, and to the ambitious program of the "Third Reich," the first territorial step toward which was the restoration of the Saar region by the plebiscite of January 1935. The recent proposal for an Austrian plebiscite, after the failure of the Anschluss movement and of the Putsch which cost the life of Chancellor Dollfuss, marks a second point of purposed advance; the execution in medieval style of women spies in February 1935 in connection with Polish spy activities suggests the immminence of a third territorial advance. The constant rumors of wars and alliances, extraterritorial pressure, and attempted Putsches in border countries indicate that Germany's neighbors are taking Adolf Hitler's *Mein Kampf* with the utmost seriousness.

Hitler's book itself was written for the instruction and guidance of the members of the National Socialist German Workers' Party, not as propaganda; for in it a revolutionary leader, more than five years in advance, gives every principle, every aim, every method that he later used in becoming the actual head of the state. Beyond question, it is a unique historic document. More than that, it is a remarkable prophecy, already largely fulfilled. This book, of some 800 pages, is in two parts, the first written in prison after the failure of the Putsch of November 1923, the second in 1927, almost simultaneously with his assumption of the editorship of *Der Angriff* (The Attack), the organ of the National Socialist Party, and marking the inauguration of an aggressive program which later led to political dominance. Of the entire book, approximately three fourths is emphatic repetition, after the manner of Hitler the orator in hammering home the points of his argument. In fact, the English translation contains less than 300 pages; as the translator says: "Somewhat abridged to omit matter that is not of general or international interest, but including, it is believed, all of the sentiments and ideals of government expressed by the author in the final complete German edition." Some critics use stronger terms: "war-breathing autobiography," "a bowdlerized version with all the more violent passages purged," "a hymnal of hate" which he will not allow foreigners to read, unexpurgated, in their own language.

Part I starts out indeed as an autobiography, giving each step in Hitler's development of an economic, political, and social philosophy as a result of his own almost kaleidoscopic experiences; Part II continues rather the history of the National Socialist Party than of Hitler himself, and propounds the party's chief tenets, philosophies, and methods.

The secret envy of the child Hitler at being a German not in the political entity of Germany develops in youth into the conviction that only the destruction of the Austrian state could prevent making Austria

a Slavic state. He thus combines intense love for his German-Austrian home with deep hatred against the Austrian political organization.

At the age of fourteen Hitler went to Vienna, where he remained for nine years. Amid the struggle for existence, for he was a practically penniless orphan, he could not fail to note the effect of amazing riches and degrading poverty side by side. This naturally resulted in a study of social and economic questions. Here he became convinced of the importance of the trade union as a political unit. But most of all his attitude toward the Jews changed, from a mildly favorable attitude toward them as representatives of a religion to an intense hatred of them as politicians interested only in the supremacy of their race. The chief abomination lay in their leadership of the Social-Democratic party, which he charges was chiefly responsible for the "Crime of November," in submitting to the terms of the Allies. As a result of their slipperiness in argument and their depreciation of all things German, "the feeble world-citizen became the fanatical anti-Semite," and became convinced that by fighting against the Jews he was "doing the Lord's work." Also in his Vienna days he became convinced of the fatal weakness of the idea of representative government through parliaments, considering the system a monstrosity of filth and fire ("Spottegburt aus Dreck und Feuer"), and the Empire a hodge-podge "held together not by a common blood but by a common fists, with no predominating will." Here he learned that a majority can never be a substitute for a MAN, expressing his belief thus: "True Germanic Democracy has free choice of a leader along with his obligation to assume entire responsibility for all that he does and causes to be done." Here too he learned the distinction between ordinary dynastic patriotism and national love for Fatherland and people. The German-Austrian became to him the core of all good in Austria, the Pan-German and Christian Socialist parties rank failures, in spite of their well-meaning efforts. Says he in summing up this period:

"Vienna gave me the hardest and most thorough schooling in my whole life . . . I do not know what my attitude toward Judaism, Social Democracy, all that is meant by Marxism, the social question, etc., would have been today if the force of destiny had not at the early period of my life given me a foundation of opinions based on personal experience."

Munich brought with it new lessons. Hitler became convinced that the German state ought never to have been tied up with the Habsburg monarchy, decadent as it was and violently hated by the Italians, but came to believe that Germany ought to have made every sacrifice, even of the Jew-induced world trade and colonial policy, for the sake of gaining England's favor; with England's help she could have made territorial gains on the continent. England, on the contrary, always fought with whatever weapons were necessary to insure success, and carried through her purpose with the utmost ruthlessness.

In the war, Germany should have cast all war-guilt on the enemy, as was actually the fact, instead of allowing the Marxists to assume

the guilt at the peace table. "The guilt of the German government lay in the fact that, merely for the sake of preserving peace, it missed the favorable moment for action, got entangled in an alliance for maintaining peace in the world, and thus finally became the victim of a world coalition which opposed the urge to maintain peace in the world with a determination to bring on a world war." Hitler believes that Austria, in her ultimatum to Serbia and consequent actions, could have done nothing else than what she did, for Serbian outrages were being repeated at shorter and shorter intervals. The war was indeed passionately desired by the German masses; it was actually Germany fighting for life and freedom.

German war-propaganda was inefficient in form and wrong psychologically. Germans were fighting for their nation's honor. They should have made use of Moltke's dictum, "Humanity is best served by making use of the severest methods;" Hitler accordingly calls the most cruel weapons humane if they conduce to a speedier victory. The British publication of German atrocities, on the contrary, was clever and ruthless; in fact the success of any advertisement is due to its continuity and consistency. "Barbarian" and "Hun" were so commonly repeated that they were universally believed by the Allies; further, the German revolution of 1918, the "Crime of November," was directly due to enemy propaganda, insistently spread behind the lines, starting as early as 1915.

Propaganda must be adapted to the receptive ability of the least intellectual of those whom it is desired to address. It should be confined to a few effective slogans understood by the last man. This principle explains the extreme simplicity of Nazi advertising. The election posters of 1933 consisted of pictures of von Hindenburg and Hitler with words "Der Marschall und der Gefreite" (The Marshal and the Lance Corporal); those of the 1934 election consisted of the single word "JA" (Yes) in enormous capitals painted or posted in every available vacant space.

In the war Hitler was admitted to the Bavarian army as a private by special permission of King Ludwig III of Bavaria; he was mustered out of the war as lance corporal. On being sent to Berlin, wounded, in 1916, he noticed cowardice boasting, starvation, discontent. In Munich he found all the offices full of Jews; "almost every clerk was a Jew and almost every Jew was a clerk." Most commercial enterprises were being conducted by "indispensable" Jews. Back at the front, Hitler took part in the last great offensive of 1918. The army still held firm, although the poison from home had begun to work. Gassed in October and temporarily blinded, he was at the hospital in Pasewalk in Pomerania when the revolution broke out--"led by a few Jewish youths who had never been at the front."

During the war Hitler was greatly opposed to Social Democracy, which he throughout his book identifies with Marxism and with Jews. He could not join any existing party, for none was really attacking the essential problems of Germany. Accordingly he determined to

become a speaker and active politician after the war; he was convinced that a new "Weltanschauung" (world theory) was necessary and must attack aggressively, but he saw no strength anywhere.

Back in Munich after the War, while still a soldier and studying in the course for members of the Landwehr (defense force), he happened to be assigned the task of reporting on a meeting of a small group known as the German Workers' Party. Dissatisfied with the weak proposal of the second speaker to join Austria and Bavaria in one political unit, he answered him in a passionate address, which brought him membership ticket number 7. "I never had imagined myself joining a ready-made party; I wanted to form one for myself." So he determined to lead, to shape this hitherto formless party. What had to be proclaimed here was a new theory of the world, not a new election-cry. "It was the decisive turning point of my life. Retreat was neither possible nor desirable."

The chief aim of the new movement must be to awaken a sense of nationality in the masses. To this end unity and determination were necessary, and Hitler was put in charge of propaganda. The first struggle was to gain recognition at all. Many meetings were held, all of them in Munich, and during the winter of 1919-20 every effort was made to strengthen faith in the conquering power of the new movement and swell it into a fanaticism which has power to remove mountains. At this time the color red was chosen for the posters, in order to inflame the Social Democrats; soon afterwards the white disc with the black swastika was chosen as the distinguishing mark of the movement. Before a meeting of 2,000 on February 20, 1920, after a band of war-comrades and others had restored order and Hitler had explained his twenty-five points, he had, as he says: "A hall full of people united with a new conviction, a new faith, a new will. A fire had been kindled from the glow of which the sword was to emerge destined to restore freedom to the Germanic Siegfried and life to the German nation." Among the twenty-five points are "two brazen laws," says Roehm, "the overcoming of individual advantage by common advantage and realization of genuine popular unity."² One of the first principles of the organization was unity of control. No sign of disunion must creep into the membership of the movement. To obtain this, all authority was vested in a single leader, who later was given the power of life and death over party members. This was also a fundamental condition of membership in the Storm Troops. Failure to observe the fundamental principle of the absolute individual responsibility of the leader cost the party dearly in the early days of 1920-21, when there was a committee in charge. A suggestion of the power

² Realm Minister Chief of Staff Ernst Roehm, *The National Socialist Revolution and the Storm Troops* (Die Nazionalsozialistische Revolution und die S. A.), in the June 1934 number of *Hochschule und Ausland*. An excellent condensed account of the movement to date. Roehm lost his life in the purge of June 30, 1934.

gained by the party's unique methods is indicated by the fact that when the party was broken up in November 1923, when the failure of the Putsch put Hitler behind the bars, the assets of the party were sold for 170,000 gold marks, a far cry from the 300 of the first subscription.

From the beginning the new movement met with violent opposition; to overcome this the Storm Troops were developed in a most interesting manner. They received their name following a meeting in the Hofbrausaal in Munich, held on November 4, 1921. At that time a determined band of 46 held its own and drove from the hall some 800 Marxists, though "in less than five minutes there was hardly one who was not streaming with blood." Three later events shaped the development of the Storm Troops. These were:

1) The great parade of patriotic societies in Munich in the late summer of 1922 in protest against the law for the Defense of the Republic. The National Socialists entered with six companies of Storm Troops and the sections of the political party. On this occasion Hitler addressed a crowd of 60,000.

2) The demonstration of 800 Storm Troops and a 42 piece band in "bloody Coburg" on "German Day" in October 1922, against the most violent opposition. To the brown shirt and armband of the previous uniform were now added a tunic and the characteristic cap, for better identification.

3) The transformation of the Storm Troops in the summer of 1923 into a military force to oppose the French occupation of the Ruhr. This resulted in the disastrous Putsch and the forced break-up of the party. When the Storm Troops were later reorganized they were given their original function, that of the bearer of the ideas and the will of the National Socialist Party (Ideen-und Willentraegerin). Roehm in particular most vividly describes the effect of the constantly increasing number of Brown Shirts on the attitude of the people in general. Hitler again and again emphasizes his conviction that the Storm Troops are not and cannot be a military organization; nevertheless, competent critics believe that they will form the nucleus of the new conscript army of the Third Reich.

As outlined in his book, Hitler's theory maintains that the state must control the birth of her citizens, their education and military training, the press, art, literature, religion, commerce and capital, under all circumstances. As to birth, the one national crime is the mixing of the race, for as long as one member of the mixture exists independently, the mixture is sure to degenerate. This gives opportunity for the famous comparison of Aryan and Jew, in which the Aryan is considered the great creative and organizing race, hence deservedly dominant, the Jew the parasitical and destructive nation within a nation. A further application of the principle of a strong race is the proposal for sterilization of the unfit.

In education, the whole of it in case of a boy should be designed to occupy his free time in profitable cultivation of the body; a few boys

will need a language. Then the boy should have military training and be indoctrinated with the ideals of the state. Only those who have been through this course shall be citizens. The eight or ten lines devoted to the girl's training emphasize physical excellence, including training for motherhood. The girl, maturing into womanhood, remains a ward of the state until marriage to a citizen makes her also a citizen. The right to personal freedom comes always second to the duty of maintaining the race. All other fields of economic and social activity are discussed on the basis of state supremacy, some on principle, most of them on a basis of expediency.

The National Socialist movement found Germany in the throes of despair, a creature merely allowed to exist under the terms of the peace treaty, enfeebled, dismembered, robbed, dishonored, staggering under an impossible burden of debt, governed by a group that was willing to acknowledge subserviency; the iron will of the movement has restored to Germany a sense of honor, progress, determination, strength, unity, independence, and has given her the hope of soon taking her rightful place in the world. This her Brown Shirts—a hundred thousand in Hitler's plan, but now over a million—have accomplished, in spite of the terrific cost in effort and a considerable cost in men, in spite also of the most violent opposition at home and jealous scheming abroad, and in accordance with the prophecies made by Adolf Hitler in his book, *Mein Kampf*. The very misrepresentations made in many parts of the book, constantly and consistently repeated and emphasized, have contributed vastly to the real and genuine rehabilitation of Germany. The National Socialist principles have been brought home to the consciousness of the last man, and Germany has at last a single national WILL.

THE NEED FOR THE RE-ORIENTATION OF MATHEMATICS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS FROM THE VIEW-POINT OF MODERN EDUCATIONAL THEORY

By W. H. HILL

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Change is the motto of our modern civilization. Man looks upon things physical, mental, and spiritual from a different viewpoint. Man's knowledge of the uttermost parts of the earth is being made more exact while that of the stratosphere and the heavenly bodies is being extended. Governments are changing and many laws, customs, and occupations have recently gone into discard and others fitting the needs of the present day, substituted in their places.

Our mathematical field has not escaped this onward movement of progress, but for the past four hundred years has been in the lead with new formulas, methods of solution and new subject matter making possible, since it is at the foundation of all learning, the progress, the change of the present day.

Since change is now rife along all lines of endeavor, the re-orientation of all the subjective fields of secondary education can as profitably be considered from this angle as that of mathematics.

The child is the center about which all our modern secondary education gravitates according to modern educational theory. The child is now living his life and secondary education is supplying his needs. He is no longer being prepared for adult living as the final goal, but is being trained in living a well rounded out life with present interests paramount. Since this theory now prevails, the subject matter must be changed from the logical plan of the adult mind which has prevailed in secondary education for so long a time, and based upon a psychological organization. This latter plan will place the work of the secondary school on the basis of the child's felt need, his interests and his abilities. We must study the pupils psychological state of mind and prepare his school work to fit his mental condition. The work must be so arranged that his interest will be keen, that his curiosity will be aroused. His interests and his lines of thought must be continuously under guidance. The teacher must think out the mental steps the child must take in comprehending the presented material, and so arrange his presentation that the child will grasp the whole situation with interest held at the maximum.

Modern Theory does not classify education as preparation for life, but as life itself. Preparation for college has long been an aim of secondary education. Certain subjects have been required and are yet to some extent, as especially fitted for this purpose. Recent investigations however seem to disprove this theory and some of the colleges now are recognizing this fact. Entrance requirements are now being shifted to ability and purpose in some institutions. Such a change

will make it possible for the high schools to conform more closely to modern educational theory.

The change in the educational ideal has brought about a change in subject matter in the secondary school. Formerly the subject specialists built each course in a logical manner. The thought was that the learner would master the subject and that it would help him as his needs arose. The modern theory has called for an analysis of the child's needs for determining what elements of the subject should be taught. This has led to the elimination of parts of the subjects taught under the logical plan. Just what part and how much of each subject can be taught to meet the needs of the child in the secondary schools is yet a question, but there are limitations that will have to be observed.

Individual differences of the learners is another point modern educational theory emphasizes. Each child must be given work fitted for his particular individual needs. By this theory not all children would study the same subject matter but each would be benefitted by certain parts only of various subjects. This theory calls for a widely differentiated course of study and the elimination of much subject material now in use.

Modern educational theory is much different from the faculty psychology taught a few years ago. Under the latter theory it was believed that the mind was made up of relatively independent faculties, such as memory, reasoning, imagination, and attention, and it was only natural to believe that these could be built up by training in special subjects. Latin was studied to strengthen the memory. It was thought that by remembering the meaning in English of Latin words, and the exercise of this in translation, the student could remember the date of the battle of Salamis or that of the signing of the Declaration of Independence more easily. Geometry was taught to strengthen the reasoning power which in turn would help the learner to reason in the many problems of life. It was thought that the subjects studied did not have to have practical values in order to strengthen the faculties. The only requirement was that the work must be difficult to master.

Along with the faculty theory came that of the permanent change in the brain cells and convolutions as a result of study. The author once listened to a prominent educator propound the faculty theory advocating the possibility of changing the convolutions and brain cells by artificial means after the exact seats of memory, reasoning, etc. were located. His theory was that by a careful tap on the head by a skillfully wielded hammer, the recipient if tapped on the memory center could remember everything under all circumstances. The faculty theory was finally discarded under new developments in the field of psychology. This led to the present educational theory "to require every subject to justify itself in terms of specific values of living."

After making some experiments on the claims for formal discipline Thorndike gave the following conclusion:

"By any reasonable interpretation of the results, the intellectual values of studies should be determined largely by the special infor-

mation, habits, interests, attitudes, and ideals which they have demonstrably produced. The expectation of any large difference in general improvement of the mind from one study rather than another seems doomed to disappointment. The chief reason why good thinkers seem superficially to have been made such by having taken certain school studies, is that good thinkers have taken such studies, becoming better by the inherent tendency of the good to gain more than the poor from any study. When the good thinker studied Greek and Latin, these studies seemed to make good thinkers. Now that the good thinkers study physics and trigonometry, these seem to make good thinkers. If the abler pupils should all study physical education and dramatic art, these subjects would seem to make good thinkers. These were, indeed, a large fraction of the program of studies for the best thinkers the world has produced, the Athenian Greeks."

Our consideration now turns to the course that the teaching of mathematics has been and is taking under the change of educational theory. The authors of texts on the teaching of secondary mathematics have practically all, down to the present time, emphasized the general disciplinary values of mathematics. Hassler and Smith's text, "The Teaching of Secondary Mathematics" published as recently as 1930 states on page 124, "The study of mathematics has practical, cultural and disciplinary aims," as the opening statement of the paragraph entitled, "Educational Values." It is true that farther along in the paragraph the authors mention specific fields in which mathematics is needed, as in engineering and statistics, but this indicates only a very short step toward the goal of modern educational theory. In advocating these general disciplinary values the authors have held that very little mathematics beyond the Arithmetic was in practical use and that that could be taught in a very few lessons. George Bruce Holstead, the author of "Rational Geometry" once made the assertion that he could write all the practical part of Euclidian Geometry on his thumb nail.

The report of the National Committee on Mathematical requirements published in 1923 in the "Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education," gave quite a little evidence of the change in educational theory. Preceding this report there had been a great change in the teaching of arithmetic due to the work of Brown and Coffman, W. A. Jessup and Suzzalo and others who had advocated subject matter of more interest to the child's present daily life and the omission of certain topics used only by the specialist. The committee advocated that mathematics should not be required beyond the ninth grade and that the mathematics of the junior high school should be made up of the simpler elements of a number of branches of secondary school mathematics and should not necessarily be selected to correlate with that of the senior high school. It stated that "the problems must be 'real' to the pupil, must connect with his ordinary thought, and must be within the world of his experience, and interest." It gives the following quotation from Carson in *Mathematical Education*: "The edu-

cational utility of problems is not to be measured by their degree of reality for pupils." The committee then states: "There should be, moreover, a conscious effort through the selection of problems to correlate the work in mathematics with the other courses of the curriculum especially in connection with the courses in science."

The committee in speaking of the mathematics for the senior high school advocated that "it is proper that some attention be paid to the student's vocational or later educational needs." Also "The material for these years should include as far as possible those mathematical ideas and processes that have the most important applications in the modern world." On studying the report, however, it is apparent that the committee clung rather closely to thought of deferred values.

In 1928 "in order that we may know where we stand in secondary education, the membership of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools took the lead in urging a study." The outcome was the National Survey of Secondary Education. Dr. Edward S. Lide prepared a monograph, published in 1932, based on the result of the survey of the instruction in mathematics. The data was gotten from reports of State and City School Superintendents and by personal visits by Dr. Lide.

The survey revealed that, the objectives given in the Junior High School are, first of all the practical ones. General mathematics is taught in about sixty per cent of the schools designated and required in about half of the schools for the ninth grade. In the senior high school less change was found due to the fact that these courses were nearly all college preparatory.

In the majority of outlines for grades 7, 8, and 9, it was found: "Materials are organized more in relation to their appeal to the children's minds than in accord with logical organization. Activities are related to children's present as well as future needs. Materials of local interest and from other fields than mathematics are included." "Although the aims reflect a leaning toward the practical side of mathematics, the outlines do not indicate a decided connection of such aims with teaching materials and procedure." "Less widespread efforts to connect mathematics with the practical needs of pupils in the senior than in the junior high school are evidenced in this study." There seems to be a question whether or not the mathematics of the senior high school can be made to meet the present trend of education or the needs for the proper development of all the pupil's of the senior high school.

"The Gap Between Promise and Fulfilment in Ninth-Grade Algebra" by E. F. Lindquist, published in *School Review*, December, 1934, gives the results of an examination given to 9,034 ninth grade high school pupils completing the work of ninth grade algebra. The scores were very low and led to the following conclusions: "That a significant proportion of high school pupils are, by reason of mental ability, previous training, and present motivation, incapable of deriving enough of value from ninth grade algebra as it is now gene-

rally taught to justify its being required of all pupils." In our own state this thought has become so prevalent that the option is left to each school to make algebra a required subject for graduation.

Some four years ago through efforts of the Progressive Education Association, two hundred colleges and universities entered into an agreement to permit a few selected schools to engage in progressive experimentation and send a proportion of their graduates to college, and thus to enable both the schools and the colleges to find out whether the students prepared in this way will do better or worse than those students who meet the present college entrance requirements. The schools chosen were some thirty in number selected from the east and central part of the United States. They were representative schools and each had not fewer than twenty graduates each year. An article in "Progressive Education," November 1933, by Max McConn says: "The Commission and Dirceting Committee did not prescribe any one plan or even propose alternative plans, but invited proposals to be originated and formulated by each school for itself—In most instances the content subjects will be moved into the foreground of the picture, with substantial enrichment of factual material. In a number of cases a core curriculum will be established centering in some broad field of knowledge, usually the social studies, with which the work in other fields, including the tool subjects, will be closely integrated—In practically all the experiments there will be increased correlating and interweaving of subject materials. P. W. Huston of the University of Pittsburgh decided to canvass this group of schools "in order to find out what they are doing about mathematics." He says: "Of these schools I inquired, first, 'are you offering the usual mathematics courses? If so, just what is the offering in each grade and what pupils are required to pursue it? Second, 'Are you offering to any of your pupils a program of study in which mathematics is integrated with other subjects, such as science and social studies? Seventeen schools responded, some giving quite detailed explanation of their plans for teaching mathematics. Thirteen schools indicated no integration of regular secondary school mathematics with other subjects, while four signified varying degrees and types of integration—In all or nearly all of the schools responding to the inquiry, it was plain that the experimental procedures were being applied to only a part of their students. Most of the schools offered the usual courses in secondary-school mathematics; seven emphasizing some integrating of the several branches of mathematics. Six schools required some mathematics of all ninth grade pupils, six said mathematics was elective in the ninth grade, while five did not indicate. Viewing as a whole the reports of these schools, it is evident that mathematics—at least, mathematics beyond arithmetic—is pretty largely ignored in the experimentation with integrated curriculums."

For the past two years at the Kansas State Teachers College of Pittsburg we have had a satnding committee of which your speaker is chairman. We have studied ways and means of connecting the mathe-

matics of the secondary school more closely with the child's life and interests, yet we find usually that his interests lie in something outside the mathematics.

The final conclusion to be drawn from a study of this problem seems to be that secondary mathematics must deal less with the abstract and more with the quantitative phases of the subjects in which the child has major interests.

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION

LULA McPHERSON

Many criticisms have been made of our present system of representation and as a proposed remedy some students of political science have advocated proportional representation. The purpose of this short article is simply to explain briefly its operation and to give some comments by those who have made extensive investigations.

The purpose of proportional representation is to give the minority parties fair representation in legislative bodies. Generally members of such bodies are chosen in districts with the candidate winning who receives a plurality of votes. Under present conditions, minority parties have no representation. In order to change the situation large electoral districts are created, thus doing away with the single electoral district and officials are elected in proportion to the number of votes cast in the larger district. If a minority party cast thirty per cent of the total vote of the district in which ten officials were elected, that party would be entitled to three seats in the legislature. If another party cast sixty per cent of the votes it would be entitled to six seats, while under the old single electoral district plan that party would in all probability elect ten legislators, if it had a bare majority in each district. If another party in this big district cast one tenth of the votes, it would elect one member.

A simple form of this kind of voting is the single non-transferable vote. In this plan each elector votes for one of a number of candidates to be elected. The number of offices to be filled are taken from those at the top of the list. This method has been used in Japan, China, and by congress for the election of senators and representatives in Porto Rico.

Another method is the cumulative vote, in which the voter is permitted to cast one vote for each candidate, or he may distribute his votes according to his liking among the various candidates or concentrate all votes on one. Thus in an election district where seven legislators are to be elected, a minority party with one-seventh of the votes of the district could concentrate on one candidate and likely elect him. The constitution of Illinois of 1870 provides for cumulative voting. "In all elections of representatives aforesaid each qualified voter may cast as many votes for one candidate as there are representatives to be elected, or may distribute the same, or equal parts thereof, among the candidates as he may see fit; and the candidate highest in votes shall be declared elected."

The two plans that are generally used are the Hare and list systems of voting. The Hare system was named for Thomas Hare who made the plan in 1859 and is most commonly used in American cities. In this plan each citizen has one vote but he indicates his preference among the candidates as first choice, second choice, third choice and so on. This preferential voting arrangement is used in the election of

city officials in fifty cities of this country, while the proportional feature is now used in but four cities. In order to determine the number of votes necessary for an election, the total number of votes cast are divided by the number of seats to be filled; or the Droop quota is used,—the number of seats plus one. Candidates who receive the quota are declared elected, the extra votes being distributed among the remaining candidates according to preference. If a candidate receives a sufficient number of votes by second choice, his surplus votes are given to a third choice and the process continues until all places are filled. If the quotas are not filled, the candidate standing lowest in the list is eliminated, his votes being distributed among the others according to preference. This method of elimination and distribution of votes is continued until a sufficient number of candidates receive the necessary number of votes. Sometimes it is necessary to declare those receiving the highest number of votes elected if they do not receive the quota. In large districts this plan is complex as it is necessary to count all the votes at a central place. The chance element has not been eliminated in counting the ballots. The National Municipal League in its Model State Constitution of 1921 provided for the election of the legislatures by the Hare system.

The other plan, the list system, is used in many European countries. The candidates are nominated in party lists for which the elector votes. The number of legislators elected by each party is determined by the proportion which the number of votes cast by each party bears to the total number of votes cast in the district. The order in which the names appear on the ballot is determined by the party managers. This system is effective for members of political parties. In this plan after one candidate has received a sufficient number of votes for an election, the surplus is given to another of the same party.

It is claimed that the political boss of cities and political machines have less influence under this system of voting and that non-partisan organizations have been able to elect their men. In Europe this system of voting has been used since 1890. Since it had proved satisfactory in several countries before the World War, most of the new constitutions provided for the plan, which suits the multiple party system of European countries.

A good example of proportional representation was the Irish general election of February, 1932, in which the De Valera party polled 567,000 votes, electing seventy-two members to Parliament. At the same election, the Government party cast 450,000 votes, electing fifty-six members.

In the British election held in the fall of 1931 the National coalition party polled 14,500,000 votes, electing four hundred ninety-three members of Parliament; the Labor party polled 7,000,000 votes, electing forty-six members. The National coalition elected many more

candidates than the Labor party in proportion to the number of votes cast. The reason is that Great Britain does not have proportional representation.

The following countries use some form of proportional representation—Germany, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Bulgaria, Greece, Switzerland, and Cuba. In Canada, it is used in Winnipeg, Calgary, West Vancouver, and St. James. Certain cities use it in Australia and New Zealand.

Political scientists believe that the tendency over a period of years has been to vote for political principles rather than individuals. Even in the middle of the nineteenth century, John Stuart Mill was advocating this method.

In the New York City election of November 1931, the Democrats cast 851,216 votes, and Republicans 339,020 votes—a ratio of two and one half to one. The Democrats elected sixty-four alderman and the Republicans one. Under proportional representation the Democrats would have elected forty-seven alderman and the Republicans, seventeen.

Ogg and Ray say, "Proportional representation unquestionably produces a legislative body which more truly reflects all the important currents of political opinion than does the small, single-member district, electing under the plurality vote; and it hardly requires argument that a body whose main business is the translation of public opinion into law ought to be of this broadly representative character."¹

said that proportional representation was passing the age of academic discussion.

In a study of this kind of representation, Cyrus J. Fitton says "that it has broken the grip of politics on Hamilton, Ohio—first, by making it easy for the voters to express their real wishes without fear of waisting their votes; second, by making it possible for divergent elements of the city's population to elect their real leaders without the necessity of combining into a single political organization."²

Samuel Seabury in a report to the New York legislature of the Tammany-controlled New York City suggested a "plan which will make it possible for the administrative functions of the city to be performed exclusively by competent administrators who will be free from political control." He also says it may mean a recommendation of "some system of proportional representation and preferential voting within the city of New York."³

¹Roger Shaw, "Proportional Representation," *Review of Reviews*, October 1933, p. 33.

²Ogg and Ray, "Introduction to American Government, p. 702.

H. W. Dodd, editor of the *National Municipal Review* of 1930

³Cyrus J. Fitton, "P. R. in an Ohio City," *Review of Reviews*, Vol. 88, p. 34.

³Alford Smith, *New Outlook*, Vol. 160, p. 135.

Dr. Joseph P. Harris of the University of Wisconsin has made an exhaustive study of proportional representation in cities of the United States and Canada. He made a study of the Hare system in those two countries since the list system is especially used in European countries in state and National elections. Since political parties are having a smaller part in municipal elections, proportional representation is becoming more practical. The result of his study is briefly given here in regard to cities of the United States.¹

Ashtabula, Ohio adopted the proportional system of voting in 1915, but did away with it through a referendum in 1929. During that period there were no outstanding reform measures, in fact the members of the council did not work well together. There was some dissatisfaction on the part of the electorate which was possibly due to foreigners being elected to the council.

Cleveland, Ohio has used proportional representation and has had four referendum votes in favor of it. The conclusion of the study was that it was not a marked success but probably worked better than any other plan under the circumstances. The criticism has been made that some of the best citizens are leaving the cities for the suburban districts, which make them ineligible for office. The creation of a Progressive Government Committee in this city has been a mean of raising the standard of candidates for the council since individual citizens do not like to advertise their own ability.

Cincinnati, Ohio claims that wonderful changes have been made since 1925 when it adopted the city manager, proportional representation charter. Now it is acclaimed one of the best governed cities in the United States. It has secured to each group a fair representation. The Republican machine had elected thirty-one out of thirty-two members in 1925, but since then, had not elected more than one third if its members. There has been created the City Charter Committee composed of citizens interested in putting across a better program through the selection of outstanding candidates. The committee's policy is that the officers should be attractive to capable men who should not be compelled to do their campaigning.

Boulder, Colorado in 1917 adopted the city manager charter with proportional representation under the state home rule amendment. Conditions have been entirely satisfactory with a high type of men being elected to the councils, but the same type was elected under the old system.

Hamilton, Ohio adopted the same plan in 1926. Referendum elections have been held with votes cast in favor of the city manager with proportional representation. The Charter Commission has been successful in electing most of its candidates, while political machines have gradually lost power.

In 1918, proportional representation with a city manager and council came into existence in Kalamazoo, Michigan. Much to the surprise

¹Joseph P. Harris, "The Practical Working of Proportional Representation," National Municipal Review Supplement, Vol. 19, pp. 337-383.

of some citizens a Socialist ticket under the leadership of Truxton Talbot was elected. Citizens were expecting drastic changes which did not take place. In a short time this form of representation was held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of Michigan, and Kalamazoo went back to the system of electing its council at large.

Sacramento held but one election under the new plan that it adopted in 1921 as it was declared unconstitutional before the next election. Professor E. A. Cottrell gave the following conception of the election. "Sacramento held a most successful proportional representation election on May the third, on the introduction of its new charter. Highly successful is no exaggeration, for it is the almost unanimous opinion of all who watched the election that in character of representation on the new council, the machinery of casting and counting the ballots, the attitude of the people and the press, and the qualifications of the mayor and the city manager selected by the council, proportional representation was given a fair trial and succeeded in all that its proponents claimed for it." ¹

West Hartford, Connecticut used proportional representation in elections of 1921 and 1922. The commission under the new charter determined the method of holding an election. The state legislature of 1923 passed legislation against any city's using proportional representation.

It is intensely interesting to study this kind of representation. Those who have made a study of the plan believe there are more advantages than disadvantages. The development has been slow in the United States and we await the outcome with interest.

¹E. A. Cottrell, "Proportional Representation in Sacramento," *National Municipal Review*, Vol. 10, p. 411-413.

A TENDENCY IN MODERN AMERICAN FICTION

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What are the moderns doing in fiction? This is a query that is intriguing to the imagination, not so much because of any inherent value in the facts but through the significance they may attain in our own evaluation and in that of later generations and through the guidance and orientation they afford in our selection of reading for pleasure and advantage. If, in the consideration of this topic, we may hope to penetrate deeper than mere generalization, it will be necessary to make limitation to obtain greater definiteness.

An attempt, accordingly, will be made in this paper to explain the background and nature of the realistic novel of social suggestion and to examine in particular a recent form of the social novel. For the purpose of this treatment, short stories as such and all British fiction will be removed from consideration. Types of fiction other than the social novel will receive only incidental notice.

Novels of the last fifteen or twenty years have been quite varied in type. The realism of Willa Cather has individualized female characters in such of her stories as *Death Comes For the Archbishop* (1927), *Shadows on the Rock* (1930), and *Obscure Destinies* (1932). The better romantic fiction, well represented by the Poictesme series of James Branch Cabell, has held a place in the favor of some discerning readers. Numerous biographies and autobiographies aroused public interest and furnished mental pabulum on the literary menus of the women's clubs. The voluminous novel made a spectacular although lonely return in the publication of Hervey Allen's *Anthony Adverse* (1934) and of Thomas Wolfe's *Of Time and the River* (1935).

Even before the end of the nineteenth century and especially since the World War, however, there has been a growing tendency to question current and traditional methods, standards, content. Naturalism, coming into vogue in a criticism of certain phases of American life, provided unselected *tranche de vie* and detailed but objective examination of fact which were analogous to the methods of science and which presumably included scientific exactness. The naturalism of the French, which in the hands of Emile Zola, Gustav Flaubert, and Guy de Maupassant required stern elimination of unnecessary detail, has never in this country passed beyond the stage of multitudinous items in its approach to scientific accuracy. *McTeague* (1897), *The Octopus* (1901), and *The Pit* (1903) by Frank Norris illustrate the use of naturalism together with an admixture of realism.

Naturalism and realism are not necessarily mutually exclusive, and both of them manifest several forms. Differing and changing standards and ideals cause the implications of these terms to vary from country to country, from period to period, and from one department of

literature to another. Naturalism, although dependent upon content, is specially concerned with manner of treatment; realism, insisting upon a method in negation of that of conventional, romantic idealism, displays the more positive characteristics of factual substance. Naturalism in fiction has to do to a great extent with examination and choice of material and with method of procedure. Realism in fiction requires that the content be tangible and concrete, that it set forth immediate values, that it present a normal or unidealized aspect of things as Robert Herrick suggested, or that it be timely and exhibit an optimistic practicality as in Edna Ferber's earlier stories. Objectivity, analysis, microscopic examination, and detailed treatment—all of them possible aspects of naturalism—are likely to employ the materials of realism and may produce sordid, realistic vulgarity, disproportionate stress upon unwholesome elements and a fatalistic shifting of accountability from the individual to the group. Conversely, realism may contain, as does modern realism, a great number of insignificant, commonplace details and an emphasis upon matters ignoble and base which furnish reminders of naturalistic procedure. There has been an amalgamation and a blending of naturalism and realism in twentieth-century fiction in this country. They have not taken separate paths, nor have they been, in the parlance of Bertha M. Clay, "Wedded and Parted."

Life, or reality, and the present dominant fact, or idea controlling action, have encroached more and more upon the literary pretensions of art, which emphasizes perfection of form and, through free play of fancy, an ideal for attainment. Many excellent British writers even before this century, notably Milton, Huxley, and George Bernard Shaw, have rebelled against the restraints which style, or art, imposes upon idea, and such authors have insisted that thought should dominate form or at least determine it. On the other hand, the most confirmed stylists define literature and consequently fiction as life or a reflection of life, even in the case of literature that is symbolic and that is therefore only abstract generalization.

Although the relative merits of the factual, the real, and the concrete as opposed to the artistic and the imaginative are still undecided, two ramifications of this contention are even more important at present. If one grant the value of thought and fact over art and method, shall the former inevitably be grotesque caricature and repulsive as in the novels of Upton Sinclair, Dreiser, Sinclair Lewis, Faulkner, and others, or shall it contain some assumed average of good and bad? Will man, a creature that is variable, inconsistent, self-deluded, prejudiced, be better understood through the medium of compendious detail that attempts to achieve a composite of life, or will he be better comprehended through adherence to a selective, eliminative procedure and to a certain style or method? Such critics as Henry Seidel Canby and Edith Wharton are conservative and even bitter in their judgment of these questions. Joseph Wood Krutch considers that a

novel may well conform to and express the demands of its period, but he requires that it show an artistry which will make it a source of enjoyment for later ages.

The critic's condemnation, nevertheless, has been no deterrent to certain authors, but has rather, in all probability, aroused the curiosity of the public and caused readers to take sides for and against the censured novels. In such cases, the balance of favor will usually be accorded the novelist, for the reader is able to see the value of concrete, contemporary life, if it is recorded with even a modicum of fidelity. It will have greater appeal and will seem to have more value for him than an intangible something called art or style, which, the reader feels, the critic prates about without being able to explain it lucidly.

A realism derived in part from naturalism and resulting in social analysis consequently has held an important place in American fiction for the last twenty years. Dreiser's *Sister Carrie* (1900), his *Jennie Gerhardt* (1911), and his *An American Tragedy* (1925) show cosmic viewpoint disturbed by many petty details, amorphous organization of material, type-form characters, a morbid stress upon matters immoral and banal, and biting cynicism. Sinclair Lewis' novels exhibit crass vulgarity, encyclopedic detail, unindividualized characters that represent large groups or classes, accuracy and deftness of touch in description, and accusatory implication against debilitated American conventions. William Faulkner, for instance in his *These Thirteen* (1931) and his *Sanctuary* (1931), treats conventionally romantic characters and milieu with brutal, disillusioned frankness. His use of light and shadow is skilfully adroit. Flippancy, unmorality and irresponsibility, indifference and defiance, and a reality of uncanny, haunting vividness characterize Ernest Hemingway's two war novels, *The Sun Also Rises* (1926) and *A Farewell to Arms* (1929). Glenway Westcott's *The Grandmothers* (1927), Pearl S. Buck's *House of Earth* trilogy (1931-1935), Thomas Wolfe's *Of Time and the River* (1935), and many other realistic novels with accusatory inference may not be considered for lack of space.

A specialized form of the social novel that has reached prominence within the last four or five years is the proletariat novel. This kind of propaganda fiction differs fundamentally from the earlier humanitarian novel in its lack of upper middle class viewpoint and in its want of aloof, condescending sympathy. Although the suggestion for writing about the proletariat undoubtedly came to this country from Soviet Russia, a favorable reception awaited it in America as a result of the social unrest and dissatisfaction after the World War. The acute suffering of the last few years, in which millions of people formerly self-supporting became destitute, has produced many novels of heartrending complaint and of querulous reproach against society. Dreiser's *An American Tragedy* (1925) and John Dos Passos' *Manhattan Transfer* (1925) contained the first arraignments of capitalistic society. Passos' interpretation was blunt, harsh, challenging and his technique was kaleidoscopic. In 1932 appeared his "1919", which is regarded

as the most significant proletarian novel, since both capitalists and workers receive in it nearly equivalent treatment. Some of the most representative proletarian novels are *Generals Die in Bed* and *A Child is Born* by Charles Yates Harrison, *The Shadow Before* by William Rollins, *Union Square* and *The Foundry* by Albert Halper, *The Land of Plenty* by Robert Cantwell and novels by Dahlberg, Catherine Brody, Fielding Burke and others.

Since most of the workers lack education, quickly become sodden from drudgery, and so lack initiative for writing, the majority of these novels have been written by members of the middle class but addressed to the workers. According to an investigation made by Louis Adamic last year, few workers read novels about their class. They prefer an emotional dissipation and a drowning of their woes in the romantic sentimentality of magazines like *True Story*. The revolutionary novels are read, nevertheless, by many people of the middle class and by some of the intellectuals.

Two proletarian novels will serve very well to exemplify the group. Michael Gold's *Jews Without Money*, which passed through thirteen editions within two years after its publication in 1930, is an autobiography—and insofar not true fiction—which portrays the New York East Side in all its lechery. The author represents a childhood early blase, repressed, wounded by injustice, and discouraged by unjust discrimination. The story is a sincere, moving account that is simply and sometimes forcefully written, but there is a want of logic and coherence in it and examples of bad grammar are not infrequent. Despair and a querulous pessimism control the narrative. *The Disinherited* (1933) by Jack Conroy, unlike most proletarian stories, is only slightly autobiographical. It is, nevertheless, highly subjective and derived from personal experience and observation. A desolate mining camp in Missouri, strikes, misery of the poor, factory conditions in large cities, debauchery, thwarted hopes, discrimination, discouragement, and resignation, all receive attention in an untutored style that is fresh and that gives evidence of some degree of ability for thought. Frankness, veracity, and a fanatical zeal pervade the entire story. Inasmuch as Gold and Conroy are both from the worker class, they may be expected not merely to have the proletarian viewpoint but also to have had unavoidable, hazardous experience which must lend force and vitality to the narration. In both stories, trivial and meretricious details make the atmosphere dingy and unwholesome. The capitalist, always the villain but never present, is represented by underlings who are caricatures of the evil traits ascribed to him.

Revolutionary fiction affords occasional slight individualization of members of the proletariat, but the capitalists are either dim shapes in an indistinct background or type-form villains who are evil as judged from every standpoint. They could in many cases even qualify as villains taken from the pages of Richardson's novels. That the purposes of

proletariat fiction are not literary but utilitarian will be seen from the following statement of them. Their aims are:

1. To persuade rather than to provide literature.
2. To expose such middle class inconsistency and outworn mores as retard the culmination of the revolutionary idea.
3. To arouse the reader's emotions against capitalism by presenting with force and vividness scenes of degradation, of sordid debauchery, of hopelessness.
4. To hasten successful revolution by indicating the failure of capitalistic society.

The proletariat novel, in its present embryonic form often largely subjective autobiography, is to be considered as an aspect of social fiction that is working its way out of the chrysalis stage. Both parent and child in their present form will probably be short lived and will decline when the conditions disappear that have called them into existence and that have nurtured them. The muddle and chaos of the proletariat novel may, however, be a plateau of development between the social novel and perhaps even a new genre. Such evolution will require a just evaluation of life and will depend upon the ability of the writers and upon the capacity of the proletariat and their ability to emerge from their present debased state to rise to heights of intellectually guided emotional experience.

THE SCHOOL'S OPPORTUNITY IN THE PRESENT CRISIS

By MAURINE DICKEY, Pittsburg Public Schools

The depression upon which we blame every thing which does not meet with our satisfaction has perhaps done us more good than we realize. It has helped us to take an invoice of ourselves, politically, economically, socially and educationally. Education which we are most interested in has been hit hard from all angles but I think with good results. It has built in the education regime a fighting spirit for the betterment of schools and through the schools a betterment of society or the building up of a better social order. Here we visualize the tremendous responsibility and opportunity of our present day schools. Can we meet the problem?

In "Human Nature and Conduct" John Dewey states "If the standard of morals in a given society is low, it is because the education given by the interaction of the individual with his social environment is defective." This is a challenge to the schools. Although school is only one of the educational influences to which a child is subject, it is one which is deliberately planned to raise the standard of living for child life.

Whether we wish it or not, we are turning away from our old competitive individualistic way of living toward an era which will be increasingly interdependent. The fact that our interests and activities today are largely collectivistic in character has swept up on us unawares. It is our obligations as teachers to see that our classrooms and other school organizations are expressions of that form of social democracy which we have always cherished as our American ideal but which our capitalistic society has repudiated.

We have let forces outside the school come in and get control. Perhaps this is the greatest hindrance of our American schools.

The creation of a better social order requires change and these forces outside the school bitterly oppose change of any sort, realizing that change might upset their interests. These outside forces have by clever manipulation gained control of text books, banning some of them and forcing modification in others. They have succeeded in getting some of their wishes incorporated into school curricula. They have attempted to control teachers at least to the extent of making them feel they cannot do as they might wish for fear of losing their jobs. They have control also of the press which is one of the greatest restraints upon schools. Another dangerous control is that of business. Business men dominate most school boards. We could enumerate countless powerful forces, which are coming in and attempting through the falsehood of patriotism or such to get control of the schools for their own selfish desires.

The most promising remedy in the midst of this national corruption is education. We are now facing great opportunities as educators. The molding of our future social order rests primarily upon education.

Rising above these contending forces the educational worker according to Harold Rugg realizes his task is two-fold, one of citizen and public servant. As an intelligent and informed citizen, he must participate actively in the group life of the community, even to the extent of allying himself with definite movements of social reconstruction. As a public servant in charge of education, however, his obligation is neither to a particular sector of the community nor to special economic or political faiths; on the contrary it is to the total community adults, children and youths. The educators supreme role therefore is to lead the community in the scientific study of society, he must guide both adults and young people in the critical analysis of conditions and of proposals for reconstruction.

Education should develop thinking, open-mindedness, well balanced individuals who can adapt themselves to changing conditions and think out for themselves better ways of adjusting to new situations.

An experimental attitude of mind, sharpened and enriched through cooperative effort is fundamental to such an educational objective as this. Undoubtedly this attitude can best be developed through practice. Children respond readily to opportunities for such development. Teachers sometimes find it more difficult. So supervision forces the responsibility of doing for teachers what the teachers are trying to do for the children. Ways that were helpful in advising teachers in Washington D. C. along this line were through (1) Panel discussions, (2) Classroom studies, (3) Conferences to discuss matters of interest. (4) Advisors for new teachers. This would be a very good way in carrying out a program in any city.

The ordinary citizen for ordinary life needs three characteristics: social adaptations, many and broad interests, and ideals of good citizenship

Life has ceased to be solitary and has become social. So have our schools. Life ceased to be simple and has become mechanical. So too—our schools. Practical subjects, cooking, sewing, manual training, vocational courses, machine shops and trade schools are but beginnings of an attempt in this mechanical age to maintain for this age adequate schools.

Our schools face a great task. While children are still pupils, the schools are to educate all, to lead to social adjustments, to train for a mechanical age and to give, through club activities, through music and art, and through moving picture appreciation, and home making and beauty culture, the interests that will carry happiness through the years.

For all, this is a world of social contacts to be enjoyed, of mechanical adjustments to be used, and of a hard life to be endured and the maintenance of adequate education includes the adjustment of school to these needs.

As educators we must realize that the progress of civilization is wholly dependent on human behavior and can be largely controlled by an educational process. Our past training has made a world of people

who are striving for their own selfish interests with no thought of the society as a whole or of what the future society may be. It is a serious matter that our educational program is not giving to the individual the correct conception of his position in the group.

As we are drifting in this direction there is but one thing the schools can hope to accomplish. That is to train the individuals of the coming generation in such a way that they will be more concerned for the total social well being, rather than for the satisfaction of their individual impulses and desires. We see great examples of what can be done within the training of one generation as is shown in Germany and Russia Today.

The achievement of the finest life for society and all its members await a program of social engineering which includes both the cultivation of thoroughly social attitudes and the building up of intelligence as how to make those attitudes successful in the social order.

One of the greatest opportunities and needs of the school is the constant revision of the curriculum to meet the needs of society. This curriculum must meet the individuals needs, it must give to youth understanding of the critical, social, political and economic problems of our time. It must give a critical appreciation of our democratic heritage and a sense of social direction.

We must have definite objectives which will help the child in right living in the school and which will carry over into his life out of school. We must not only be interested in the three R's as in the past, but also in culture, citizenship and character. Improvement of conduct will be the direct result of such training which rationally educates man's passions and desires toward those higher goals which give value and satisfaction to human activity.

Education must be founded on a social philosophy, that it must respect the individuality of every person and it must have design. If the American school is to serve the needs of the present and future generations the curriculum must be reconstructed in accordance with a forward looking democratic, social philosophy.

Another important step for us as educators is for better organizations within our profession. We must have organization among the teachers not only for improving the American schools but so we can do our part more directly in the reconstruction of American life.

In the training of our pupils we must develop a system which will teach the individual to think. As it is now too much is handed to him predigested on a platter, as if the ascertaining of facts in getting an education is a cut and dried process of assimilation. The school must provide situations in which the child is continually brought face to face with problems which stimulate his interest and which result in the employment of problem-solving techniques terminating in decisions.

Another important point in the training of the pupil is an understanding of remote goals. The pupil should be trained to develop

foresight. He must learn to postpone his immediate wants so that when he becomes an adult, he can see the importance of long time planning for himself and for society as a whole.

The pupil must also learn orientation. He should be able when he becomes an adult to transpose from one field of knowledge to another and see problems in common with those of his associates. So orientation must be emphasized throughout the educational program quite as much as specialization.

Our political, social and economic ills, and our present day erroneous conceptions of nature, arise out of wrong points of views and wrong assumptions of what is basic. Education must remodel its system. There is no time to lose. The human race cannot solve its problems without correct methods of thinking. Education must give to the developing mind these correct methods. It must sense its task and fulfill it or be responsible for an avoidable disintegration of society.

All this does not ask the educator to create society; but to be one force to take the lead along with others, in turning an aggressive intelligence upon the social process to scrutinize change as this occurs, and work positively for change where it may not occur, in order that the society of which he is a part may be fully educative for all its members.

FACULTY SKETCHES



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SOME NEEDS OF EDUCATION AS I SEE THEM

1. Through analysis of political, social and economic back-ground, students should take a more scientific view of society.
2. Students should be taught habits of meeting regular problems.
3. The social rather than the individual viewpoint toward economic problems should be developed.
4. Our training should cause students to look for cause and effects—not to jump at conclusions.
5. Good reading habits and coherent thinking should be acquired.
6. Such training should be given as will assist the student in fitting into the life of the community.
7. Appreciation of integrity should be taught.



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SOME NEEDS OF EDUCATION AS I SEE THEM

1. Education should be for present rather than for later life.
2. The work of the school should have a definite relation to the present life of the individual.
3. Educational guidance should receive more emphasis.
4. Teachers should not be allowed to teach subjects on which they have made no preparation.
5. Salaries should justify life devotion to the teaching profession.