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THE EDUCATIONAL LEADER

ENGLISH, SPEECH, SOCIAL SCIENCE, and
HOME ECONOMICS NUMBER

Published by the Faculty of the
KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
PITTSBURG, KANSAS

Vol. 7

MARCH, 1944

No. 2



Falls and rapids in Shoal Creek Park, southeast of Pittsburg.

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The Educational Leader

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The Dawn Will Be Gray

ERNEST MAHAN

As these lines are being written (February, 1944) the crescendo of Allied arms is apparent in many theaters of this global war. Before these words appear in print the long-heralded invasion of western Europe may be writing the final chapter of the struggle against Nazi Germany. In Asiatic theaters the Allies may be striking at the narrow waistline of Japanese holdings by ocean-borne attacks against the Philippines and Formosa and by a movement eastward across the Chinese mainland. We are past the midnight hour of the war and are rapidly approaching the darkest hour before the dawn, darkest for the western powers, at least, because of the magnitude of operations and number of casualties; and the dawn when it comes will not be rosy and cloudless but will be gray with difficulties and dangers. The order to cease firing will bring gladness to the hearts of millions of individuals but much of the way to collective security for nations will remain to be traveled.

At the end of the last world war an effort was made to treat one of the serious ills of Europe by granting self-determination for the peoples or language groups. In large measure

this panacea was applied. A number of the new states created as a product of this policy had populations smaller than that of one of the larger cities of the world. About a third of the population of Austria was in the city of Vienna. Then came the movement for economic nationalism with its high-tariff walls and strangulation of trade, not the least of the causes for the world depression and the new ills that came in its train. But even then self-determination was not granted, could not be granted, to all groups. They were too many and too much intermingled. Yugoslavia was a small state, but she had within her boundaries three main language groups: Serbs, Croats and Slovenes; and the Croats especially were a dissatisfied and somewhat rebellious element. Rumania had her Magyar minority problem in her province of Transylvania and nearly two million Ukrainians in Bessarabia as well as Turks and Bulgars in her newly acquired southern Dobrudja. Czechoslovakia not only included Czechs, Slovaks, and Ruthenians, but also possessed some Magyars and Poles and about three and a half million Sudeten Germans round her west-

ern rim. These are only a few examples of the failure to give self-determination to all language groups in Europe.

FACTIONAL STRUGGLES

In the Jugoslavian theater today at least three different groups are struggling against each other. The German armies of occupation are attempting to hold the land as one of the barriers against the Allies in Hitler's Fortress Europe. General Broz, commonly known as Tito, heads a rather large group of leftist partisans, some of whom are communists, in guerrilla warfare to liberate his country from the Nazi invader. Then General Mihailovich leads a smaller group of Jugoslavs in guerrilla tactics, apparently against both Germans and the forces of Tito. Thus at a time when all Jugoslavs should be united in efforts to help the Allies defeat the Germans they are divided and are fighting each other.

Both the Soviet Union and the Poles are fighting a war of liberation against Nazi Germany and need to combine all the strength and attention they both can give against the common foe. But instead of doing it they are quarreling over Ukrainian, White Russian, and Polish elements in the borderlands between the Curzon Line and the 1921 boundary.

In many ways the long-suffering Chinese people have conducted a heroic resistance against the Japanese and we believe the cause of the government of free China is our cause. But even in free China the

Chinese are a divided people. Strong Communist leanings are evident in the northern provinces and the armies of Chiang Kai-shek have at times clashed with these Communist-inclined forces. The Chungking government today, while democratic in philosophy and in its ultimate aims, is actually somewhat fascist in its practices because of this political situation and the economic problem of inflation, China has played and will play an important part in the defeat of Japan but she also contains seeds of trouble if they are permitted to germinate.

These are but a few samplings of the many conditions in the world today which bid fair to become factors which will disturb the peace after victory in this war. These causes of war must not be oversimplified. Some would have us believe they are economic alone, but they are many and varied and failure to recognize that fact will result in part-way measures for the guarantee of peace. At best the peace will not be unbroken. Many little fires will be kindled at intervals over the world and they must be controlled to prevent a conflagration. Twice in twenty-five years the United States has become involved in war, not to help put out a little blaze started in Bosnia or Danzig and the Polish Corridor, at the Marco Polo bridge or in Ethiopia, but to fight it after it has gotten out of control and has become a threat to our security.

POST-WAR RESPONSIBILITY

Probably the nation which will come out of this war with the most

power and prestige will be the United States, not alone because of contributions to the winning of victory, but because of its resources, its army, navy, and capacity to build aeroplanes and ordnance of war. We can go far ourselves toward creating a condition for the preservation of order in the world and the enforcement of peace. For the sake of so many who have sacrificed so much to bring it about and for the sake of those who come after us we must do it.

Probably the greatest danger which we have to fear as a nation is ourselves. If we can stand united and strong before the world, with a sound economic fabric and a healthy political and social life we can furnish forceful and effective world leadership. But if we permit the aftermath of war to bring economic stresses and strains, political demoralization, and a deterioration of social and moral life, we shall lose the peace both at home and abroad. A nation in distress at home can not furnish constructive leadership for the world any more than the blind can lead the blind.

In our idealism and magnanimity twenty-five years ago, we made no claims for territorial acquisitions or indemnities. In preparation for participation in the present struggle, we traded fifty over-age destroyers to Britain for a long-time lease on bases in the Atlantic. Since the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, our forces have been engaged in contending for bases in the Pacific which we should already have held and strongly fortified. If we believe

that our cause is just and that our objectives are noble, we should practice a realistic policy this time. A stronger America should be in a position to do a greater good. We should retain the leaseholds in the Atlantic and the islands in the Pacific, not for economic exploitation but for their strategic importance. Unfortunately, forces given to disturb world peace are not always amenable to reasonable arguments, but when reason is coupled with force, they are more likely to be persuaded. Someone has said that our diplomatic reach can not exceed our military reach.

POST-WAR COOPERATION

After we have looked to our own strength, both internal and external, it is to be hoped that we can continue the cooperation after the war that we are having during the war with other parts of the English-speaking world. We may find things to condemn in the history of the British Empire. We may not like some things about British foreign policy and practice today. But all of the English-speaking world is heir to the same culture and believes in and practices government under the law. United for the enforcement of peace, the English-speaking nations could alone, if need be, hold a fitful world in awe.

Major partners with the English-speaking world in this war are the Soviet Union and China, and major partners they will be around the peace table. It is to be hoped that the United States, the British Empire, the Soviet Union, and China

can serve as the core around which can be formed a world organization. On the other hand, strong tendencies are much in evidence for a division of the world into zones, each zone to be dominated and controlled by one of the major powers. Some plans call for the creation of a dozen or fifteen federations rather than one world federation. Such plans are not desirable, and the inauguration of such a system would set the stage for the development of rivalry among zones as fierce and dangerous as the rivalry among nations has been. Much to be preferred is a strong core of the great powers around which can be gathered as many of the nations as possible in one organization for collective security.

Plans for peace, like the causes of war, must not be oversimplified. An acceptable and workable plan must be devised for the operation of an international police force, probably involving the employment of air power as its main instrument. Those who have established the reputation for aggression must not only be disarmed but measures must be taken to keep them disarmed. They may be disarmed but if they possess the

potentialities, a rapid conversion of industry to war production may defeat the aims of disarmament. If possible, they should be divested of certain key chemical industries and denied unlimited access to some mineral resources essential for rearmament. At the same time, an equitable system of world economics should be practiced for the purpose of stimulating peaceful pursuits of all nations. If a nation's philosophy has sometimes engendered a tendency to war and conquest, then a program of education, international in scope, should aim at inculcating the ideals of peace. These and many other factors need to be considered in establishing the foundations for enduring peace.

Again, the dawn will be gray and the road ahead will have plenty of bumps. If we can have the cooperation of the other English-speaking peoples, our closest kin in ideals and institutions, let us welcome it. If we can have the beginnings of an effective world organization with which all nations can eventually affiliate, better still. But let us look first to our own strength and favorable position in case all else should fail.

A National Speaking Contest in England

J. R. PELSMA

It was my pleasure to be present a few years ago at the final National Speaking contest of the youth of England. Although the contest lasted from 2:00 p. m. to 6:30 p. m. and an additional forty-five minutes was consumed in criticisms by the judges and remarks by the chairman and others present—not one minute of the time was uninteresting.

The contest is sponsored by the National Conservative Party and is limited to members of the Junior Imperial League. This League also fosters contests in music and readings. The finals in these are held in April.

In the final, which was held in the Friends' Meeting House, Euston-road, London, twelve teams competed. Each team is composed of four members—a chairman, who is allotted five minutes, a principal speaker who has ten minutes, a proposer and a seconder of a vote of thanks, three and two minutes respectively. Thus each team has twenty minutes.

At the conclusion of the sixth team there was an intermission of fifteen minutes during which the judges and contestants had tea. Also, the six doors leading into the auditorium were opened, presumably to let the tobacco smoke escape making it possible again to see the speakers.

A "team" is, in miniature, an ac-

tual campaign meeting. Each team represented a political district and secured the right to compete through a process of elimination earlier in the fall. More than 1500 took part in these preliminaries. The age limit for competitors is thirty. The youngest was Master J. McEvoy, aged 15; the youngest girl, Miss Betty Owen, was 19—both from Cardiff. The average age was 23.

The subject of the principal speaker was the "King's Address" at the opening of Parliament. The time of preparation for the final was less than a fortnight.

"Stop" and "Go" lights were in a small black box on a table in front of the speaker. White lights turned to green when only two minutes of the allotted time was left; then flashed red which meant finish. Some speakers seemed quite disconcerted when the green light appeared, and made valiant efforts to condense the remainder of their carefully prepared speeches—some were obviously memorized, others appeared quite extempore, using notes lying on the table in front of them. The use of copious notes seems also to have been copied from their worthy predecessors—Lord Stanley Baldwin, Lord Beaverbrook, Hon. Lloyd George, Hon. Ramsay MacDonald, and others. All seem to prefer to have them on a flat table rather than to hold in their hands.

Out of the 48 speakers, 28 were

boys; out of the 12 principal speakers, 9 were boys.

The team from Wessex won first place, and was presented a silver challenge trophy offered by Sir Robert Horne, M. P.; each member of the winning team was given a small silver cup. Silver cups were also presented to the members of the teams ranking second and third. These were teams from Deptford of the London area, and Lowestoft, the Eastern area, respectively. The silver trophy has inscribed on it in Latin: "Speak your mind, and stake your life on the truth."

The chairman, Lord Stanley, M. P., qualified for the post in not extending his opening remarks, in beginning the program on time, and by announcing the winners in the sensible order—beginning with the winning team, then the second and third and not in reverse order. His introductory remarks ended with: "As is customary we hope the best team wins. However, knowing the qualifications of the judges, I can say that the best team *will* win." (In our judgment the *best* team—from Kent—didn't even place!) The judges were Lady Astor, M. P., Col. John Buchan, M. P., and Mr. J. D. Cassel, K. C., M. P. The judges sat together but there was no consultation. They were introduced after the winners were announced. Each responded with a few remarks, some offering constructive criticisms, others expressed the real pleasure they had in functioning as judges—all expressed themselves with such eloquence that one could not doubt that they were well selected.

Although Lady Astor stated quite boldly and forcefully that the King's Address had little meaning and was of no importance, it seemed quite adequate as a subject—providing a variety in interpretation not heard in the usual debate tournament. The writer cannot imagine a more appropriate contest for the English youth. It is immensely interesting and practical. A few contestants had taken the platform in the recent election.

Considering the fact that there are no departments of speech in the English universities and no classes in public speaking outside of some of the private schools, the young men and women spoke remarkably well; although not on a par with the best in the United States. They seemed to sin mostly in the awkwardness of their gestures.

Very little humor was attempted—each seemed in dead earnest to get his ideas "across the footlights." Although the chairman warned the audience against applauding; stomping of feet, clapping of hands, and cries of "Hear! Hear!" frequently interrupted the speaker, and always greeted each speaker at the close of his speech.

There were about four hundred persons present, including some twenty members of parliament and other political leaders. Admission was by ticket which could be had for the asking, but inconvenient to secure. The auditorium was about one-half filled. Many secured tickets and then failed to come. Only two papers ran a "news item" of the event.

The Hon. Ramsay McDonald has frequently deplored the facts that dialects in England are disappearing and advocated protection against Hollywood speech as well as the stereotyped speech of the B.B.C. announcers. He would have been greatly disappointed had he listened to these contestants. Nearly all spoke an excellent "King's English." Dialects were not particularly marked. One member from Chippenham had the broad vowels of the Wessex; and only the proposer of the vote of thanks of the Yorkshire's team betrayed her origin. Lancashire had

one obvious son, but there was no true Londoner in the team where a hint of Cockney might have been expected.

It was not a contest between college students, yet their thought, diction, and delivery were of a very high grade. The convincing and persuasive eloquence of their elders, who obviously have had little or no training in speech, yet use a better diction than the American statesman, leads one to wonder just how much our own classes in speech contribute to platform eloquence in America.

Post-War Economic Adjustments

O. F. GRUBBS

The Allied Nations are now engaged in a long, expensive war, the sole objective of which is military victory. By that victory they will have decided what they do not want in the world of the future. On that point there is a fair degree of agreement. And when the question is raised of what they are fighting for, or what they want in the world of the future, there is also a fair degree of unity. But when the question of the method of securing this permanent peace, harmony, and security is raised, there is far less agreement.

If that victory is as complete as the Allied Nations expect it to be, they will have a free hand in shaping the post-war world. They will expect nothing in the way of promises from the vanquished. If they fail in this great task, they will know whom to blame for the failure. This high degree of freedom will be an advantage, and also a disadvantage. For with the world at their feet, with no immediate enemy in sight, greed, envy, and jealousy can easily creep in to cause confusion and disagreement among the victors.

At this stage in World War I we knew pretty well what we wanted, what we were fighting for, and how we planned to secure it. Woodrow Wilson told us. No, he did not tell us. He simply spoke what almost every one felt to be true. His speeches were clear-cut definitions of our plans and objectives. And

these speeches were devoted almost entirely to political considerations with economic considerations given a minor role. He saw a post-war world composed of self-determined states, sovereign, independent, democratic, each with a representative assembly and responsible executive, all linked together in a League of Nations, founded on the principles of collective security, arbitration, and disarmament. The gold standard would prevail, free enterprise, central banks, and free trade with only such interference as moderately protective tariffs would offer. He believed, and apparently most of the world agreed with him, that if the common enemy were but destroyed, the pre-war world would snap back to its original position; that the war was an interruption, not a revolution, and that the twentieth century was to be a continuation of nineteenth-century liberalism. The United States had been developing its life apart from Europe and the peace that would follow the first World War would be a fitting climax to a century of growth in a free Western world.¹ Thus ran our dream. For many people today that dream abides, lovely and beautiful, 'tis true, but still a dream.

HISTORIC CONTRASTS

History is a continuous story.

¹Jeffery Crowther: "Freedom and Control." *Foreign Affairs*, January, 1944.

Certain long periods show little, if any, change in the general pattern of life. Radical changes of important ways of life, sudden and complete, seldom occur. Yet there are short periods of history that show momentous changes. The century that closed in 1914-1918 was a long, even plateau. But important changes have appeared since that date, changes that bring problems of a nature quite different from those of the preceding era. The nineteenth century emphasized individual interests; the twentieth century is placing increasing emphasis on collectivist interests. The nineteenth century aimed at maximum income; the twentieth aims at maximum employment. The nineteenth century encouraged national states, with freedom and sovereignty; twentieth century lays less stress on sovereignty than on cooperation. The first World War was directed and fought by people born in the nineteenth century—people accustomed to security, certain business methods, and other ways of life regarded more or less as natural and absolute. The present war is being directed by people of the nineteenth century, but it is being fought and supported by the people of the twentieth century. They have known insecurity, want, and unemployment in the midst of plenty. They have seen a decline in formal religion, an expansion of education, and they see nothing impious about a discussion of birth control. Their lives have been touched by such inventions as the radio, airplane, automobile, and moving pictures. And in their hands

will rest the fate of the world in the coming post-war period.

EXTRAVAGANCE OF WAR

Economists have long contended that war is the least economical way of acquiring raw material. Buying it outright on the world market is far cheaper than war. This is the 'Great Illusion' as set forth by Norman Angell. Nations need not own a country in order to trade with it. To fight for raw material is irrational. Viewed in this light, no economic determinism is involved in an explanation of war. With the exception of the past few decades, this contention of economists is doubtless true. In the nineteenth century, and even into the twentieth century, nationalism and the assertion of full sovereignty were encouraged. But recently, nationalism has crystalized into autarchy, or national self-sufficiency. Between the two wars, a strong wave of nationalism swept over the world, leaving a crop of tariffs, quotas, and other restrictions on trade greater than ever before. Many states have raw material to sell, and many states wish to buy, but the prospective buyer does not have the medium of payment acceptable to the seller. Seizure by war is the only alternative.

PROBLEMS OF ADJUSTMENT

The process of adjustment to post-war world conditions will be more difficult for the United States than for any other major world power, for these reasons:

1. The people of the United States are more firmly wedded to the

idea of free enterprise than any other people and recent experiences strengthen that feeling. The activities of the central government during the depression years and during the war years will leave vivid memories for years to come. Many people believe that prosperity at home and abroad will be possible only if all obstructions to free enterprise are removed and the profit motive is given free rein. Will that be the belief and practice of other Allied Nations, with whom we are associated? Judging by the past and present, Russia will pursue a planned, collectivist course, as will China, Latin America, and Europe, to a lesser degree. Even in England many conservative leaders do not have the faith they once had in *laissez faire*. Eric Johnston, president of the National Chamber of Commerce, found this to be true in his recent visit to England.² Even in this country the many public demands for unrestricted free enterprise indicate some doubt about its continuance.³ No such public demands were heard at the close of the first World War. Can the United States, following this idea, cooperate and do business with nations following a different course?

COMPETITION

Competition is a *sine qua non* for free enterprise. The laws passed by states and nation in the past sixty years for the protection of competition would fill volumes; yet concentration, or monopoly, is far ad-

vanced in the United States. The growth of monopoly is commensurate with the decline of competition. Unless the two things are synonymous, then free enterprise has much to fear from monopoly.

2. The United States has a high degree of self-sufficiency. This fact will tend to make more difficult our adjustment to a larger and freer world trade. We produce the great majority of the things we consume, and in certain lines we have a surplus over the home market. This surplus is greater than the strategic materials we need to import. Can we find a sale for this surplus? Can we find people who want our surplus and whose surplus, in exchange, we can afford to accept? To lower the tariff and admit goods that will compete with our own products raises a real vital question, the solution of which requires wisdom, tolerance, and good judgment.

3. Because of the large amount of personal freedom we enjoy, pressure groups are strong, even stronger than in any other major nation. These groups often exert influence in ways to endanger national and international cooperation.

NATIONAL SOVEREIGNTY

4. The feeling of strong national sovereignty is firmly entrenched in the minds of most people and most leaders in the United States. Can we maintain this feeling, unimpaired, and still cooperate with other nations having the same feeling? Is sovereignty divisible? Can it exist unless it exists 100 per cent strong?

5. We have not yet learned to play the historical role of a creditor

²C. Hartley Gratton: "What Business thinks of the Postwar World." *Harpers*, February, 1944.

³*New Republic*, November 29, 1943.

nation. From about 1880 to the close of the first World War, we owed the world considerable sums, borrowed in a previous era. We were paying these debts with our excess of exports over our imports. Our creditors were willing to accept them. Since 1918, we have been a creditor nation instead of a debtor nation. The world has owed us. Other nations have accepted our heavy exports only if we accepted in payment their services, their goods, or their promises to pay. Prosperity at home, with full employment and high production is usually accompanied by high prices, which discourages exports, and encourages imports. But on the other hand prosperity encourages foreign travel by tourists. This has the same effect on foreign trade balances and exchange rates as a visible import. Thus by entertaining tourists foreign nations are enabled to pay for imports from the country furnishing the tourists.

OUTCOME OF ADJUSTMENT

It now appears that, when the war is over, many nations will be in need not only of sustenance but also of means of rebuilding and repairing the ravages of war. This should create a foreign demand. Ultimately some agrarian states may desire to industrialize. This should increase the foreign market for machinery and other heavy equipment. Exportation of industrial machinery is sometimes called "suicide trade;" i. e., once these nations become industrialized, they will no longer be customers for our industrial products. This need not reduce the

amount of international trade. If the industrial products are complementary, trade would not be diminished. Example: trade between England and Germany in pre-war days was quite extensive. How can the exportation of these supplies and machinery be financed? Alvin Hansen proposes an International Development Bank, somewhat similar to the Federal Housing Administration.⁴

Says Andre Estel: "Specialization is the key to improved living standards and this cannot be attained without a broad exchange of goods and services. Nations have been acting like families in primitive societies which try each one to bake its own bread and weave its own clothes. The great challenge to statesmen in each country after this war will be this—will they have the courage and strength to over-ride the powerful pressure of vested interests, both capital and labor, and to cease favoring the production of goods which can be produced elsewhere more efficiently? Will the United States, above all, be able, as a creditor nation with giant industries, to discontinue its former policy of a debtor nation with infant industries? Will it take the leadership in the movement for a return to world trade? The solution of the problem of raw material, like that of other economic problems, rests finally on the solution of this momentous decision."⁵

⁴Alvin Hansen: "World Institutions for Stability and Expansion." *Foreign Affairs*, January, 1944.

⁵Andre Istel: "Equal Access to Raw Material." *Foreign Affairs*, April, 1942.

Milton's *Paradise Lost*

J. GORDON EAKER

Christopher Morley has recently come forth with the idea that the war would be won sooner if the leaders of the United Nations would read the classics of English literature in their spare moments. "If you have time for nothing else," he said, "listen to what Chaucer, Matthew Arnold, and Rudyard Kipling have to say about our immediate problems."

Milton lived in a time of crisis like the present, when ideological issues were at stake. He took an active part in the struggle for English liberty, and his experiences give depth to his poetry. Many misconceptions prevail about his great epic, *Paradise Lost*, some of them quite old. La Martine called the epic the dream of a Puritan poet fallen asleep over the opening chapters of the Bible. That is a rememberable passage, but on examination it turns out to be not so true. A little of *Paradise Lost* is found in the opening chapters of the Bible, but some of it is found only in the closing chapters. Voltaire, who lived for a while as an exile in England, at first started a Milton party, but later recanted and said that *Paradise Lost* is a silly story about a woman who ate an apple, and that such stuff is not of enough variety. Others are troubled by its theology, but there is not much theology in it. Others dislike the anthropomorphic qualities, the way God talks like a man. That never

troubled the Greeks, who thought of their gods as divine men, and Milton was versed in the Greek tradition.

In *Paradise Lost* Milton is simply giving us his philosophy of life. Lucifer and Eden stand for the revolt of humanity against reason and the will of God. The revolt of Satan and the fall of Adam teach that right living and a cheerful outlook on the future will come only as we restore reason to its rightful place. Milton used the old story as the medium of his expression, just as Goethe did in *Faust*. Goethe takes the old legend of Dr. Faustus and gives it a modern meaning — to express the idea of active service of humanity as the vital force in life. Any great work has this larger aspect.

Milton first thought that he would write an epic of early English history, possibly with King Arthur as his hero, but later he decided on the theme of the Fall of Man, to which he subordinated the Fall of Lucifer. The Fall of Lucifer and his desire for revenge against God is used to motivate the fall of Adam and Eve in the garden. The poem opens:

Of Man's First Disobedience, and the
Fruit
Of that Forbidden Tree, whose mortal
taste
Brought Death into the World, and
all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater
Man

Restore us, and regain the blissful
Seat,
Sing Heav'nly Muse.

The theme here stated recalls the story of *Paradise Regained*. Supposedly Milton lent the manuscript of *Paradise Lost* to a friend, Elwood, who returned it saying, "You say a good deal about the losing of Paradise; have you nothing to say about the gaining of Paradise?" That is said to have caused Milton to write *Paradise Regained*. But if Elwood did say that, he must have read the poem rather hurriedly. Near the end of *Paradise Lost* Milton makes clear that the story ends in victory, and even at the beginning he says,

. . . till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful
Seat.

That reference looks ahead to the coming of Christ.

After the question as to the cause of the fall of our first parents and the answer, "Th' infernal Serpent; he it was," Milton, like the earlier epic poets, begins *in medias res*, with some great moment along toward the middle of his story. Later he goes back to explain what came first. The first great picture is that of the enflamed sea on which Satan and his crew lay rolling, where they have lighted after their expulsion from Heaven:

Nine times the Space that measures
Day and Night
To mortal men, he with his horrid
crew
Lay vanquish't, rolling in the fiery Gulf
Confounded though immortal: But his
doom
Reserv'd him to more wrath; for now
the thought

Both of lost happiness and lasting
pain
Torments him; round he throws his
baleful eyes
That witness'd huge affliction and
dismay
Mixt with obdurate pride and steadfast
hate.

In the first two books of the twelve, Satan and his followers recover from their confusion following the war in Heaven, and then plan Satan's journey to Earth to secure revenge by causing the race of mankind to fall away from God.

Satan's character is so forcefully presented that some people have looked on Satan as the hero. He says, for instance,

What though the field be lost?
All is not lost; the unconquerable
Will,
And study of revenge, immortal hate,
And courage never to submit or yield:
And what is else not to be overcome?

Milton, they say, was always opposed to authority, and they assume that Milton had sympathy for Satan. But people judge by the first two books only. They do not realize that in the old epics, the hero Achilles, for instance, always had a mighty antagonist like Hector. The antagonist could not be a coward if he was to hold his place and be overcome by a man worthy of a heroic title.

The full description of Satan is not given in any one place, as if Milton realized that what he has to describe passes mortal comprehension. We are told only the size of his spear, or his shield is compared to the moon when viewed through a telescope, or his countenance is dark-

ened like an eclipse of the sun. Likewise, Satan's army can be described only by cumulative comparisons which make it larger than any host ever recorded in history.

After the rebel angels are called by the trumpets and assemble in the Hall of Pandemonium, they hold a council of war, like that in the *Iliad* at which the Greeks debate whether they should abandon the war or not. These long speeches give Book II its dramatic quality. Moloch, the bold, impetuous one, speaks for open war against Heaven. Belial, the more intellectual type, who looks ahead and plans his course, advises base submission, "ignoble ease and peaceful sloth,"

But all was false and hollow; though
his Tongue
Dropt Manna, and could make the
worse appear
The better reason, to perplex and dash
Maturest Counsels; for his thoughts
were low.

Mammon, the materialist, advises developing the mineral resources of Hell. Then Beelzebub comes forth with the plan, originated, of course, by Satan himself, to find the newly created Earth, whereof a rumor ran in Heaven that it should be inhabited by the newly created race which should replace the angels who revolted against God. This plan is accepted amid acclamations, and Satan himself, as one worthy to be a leader, undertakes the journey through Chaos to Earth.

In the third book, the scene changes from Hell to Heaven, where God, sitting on his throne, sees Satan flying toward the earth, and foretells that he will succeed in pervert-

ing mankind. The change from the darkness of Hell to the light of Heaven causes Milton to comment on his own blindness and to invoke Celestial light to shine inward and irradiate his mind. Some say that Milton did not make this scene in Heaven as vivid as the one in Hell. But Milton is dealing with difficult material here. At the end of the poem, Adam and Eve have to suffer for their sin. But an ultimate hope must be held out. To make that sentence seem just, Milton had God explain that he gave Adam free choice and strength to stand without yielding. Adam alone is responsible for what happens. He himself does not complain about the judgment, about his having to work for his daily bread, for example. Only in recent years have people thought that Adam came off badly, and so they condemn the jury. The argument advanced is that no decent human being would do as God did, foreseeing an evil act, take no steps to prevent it. But Milton answers that. Life would not be worth living without free choice. Freedom presupposes not only success but possible failure. Then Christ the Son, seeing that man will fall, from where he is seated near the Father, offers himself as a ransom, to take on human form and save mankind. His heroism in facing death contrasts with Satan's volunteering for the dangerous journey through Chaos.

Satan's mood is far from heroic when he reaches the earth and compares the happiness of Adam and Eve with his own bitter thoughts.

The biggest thing in Book IV is the change in the character of the poetry as Milton lavishes all his knowledge of poetic places on his description of Paradise:

And of pure now purer air
Meets his approach, and to the heart
inspires
Vernal delight and joy, able to drive
All sadness but despair: now gentle
gales
Fanning their odoriferous wings
disperse
Native perfumes, and whisper whence
those stole
Those balmy spoils.

At first Satan tries to tempt Eve in a dream, but is spied by one of the guarding angels and driven out of Paradise. Eve on awakening tells her dream to Adam, who then sees an angel approaching. This is Raphael, sent by God to warn Adam of his enemy and to admonish him of his obedience. The angel arouses Adam's curiosity about who Satan is, and that causes Raphael to go back to the beginning and tell about the war in Heaven that preceded Satan's fall. The poem had begun *in medias res*, and this is to fill in earlier events. Raphael explains that one day in Heaven before the Earth was, God had issued a decree that all knees should bow to his newly created Son. This made Satan insane with jealousy, for he was one of the most exalted spirits. So that night he and his associates summoned their followers to a meeting in the northern part of Heaven, where they plan their great rebellion. Only Abdiel, one angel in the group who obeyed God zealously, dared oppose Satan's plans and predict his downfall. The ending of

Book V is a resting place before beginning the War in Heaven.

The War in Heaven is one of the most exciting books. Though not meant to be taken literally, it is so consistently told that it grips one's attention and raises one far above the concerns of the day. That is one of the finest qualities of *Paradise Lost*—its cosmic reaches. Milton hangs the world in space and makes us feel the wonder of the Creation. Abdiel rides rapidly from the hosts of Lucifer to warn the good angels, commanded by Michael, of the enemy. First comes the war of words and then the war of blows. Satan's forces retire at the end of the first day of battle in some confusion. That night they dig into the earth for sulphur and nitrate and devise the first gunpowder and cannons. The second day, that causes some confusion among Michael's hosts, until they rush to the hills and tear up mountains and forests with which they overwhelm Satan's forces. But the final victory is reserved for the Son, who on the third day, driving the chariot of Paternal Deity and armed with flames and thunder, drives the rebel angels to the brink of Heaven. They look down and hate to leap, but they look back at the pursuer and must. So down they fall into the bottomless pit. Nine days they fell. Thus measuring things in Heaven by things on earth, the angel tries to show Adam the nature of his adversary and the necessity of obedience on his part, so that he may be warned by the terrible example of Satan. The story is so vivid that we

almost forget that it is being narrated by Raphael to Adam while Eve's dinner is waiting.

In Book VII, Milton descends from Heaven to Earth, and is reminded of his own situation in England, fallen on evil days and evil tongues, with darkness and with dangers compassed round, but he hopes that his Muse will continue to visit him nightly and inspire his unpremeditated verse as he tells his story for "fit audience though few." Adam now takes advantage of the angel's visit to ask how the world first began and about himself. So Milton gives a splendid poetic expansion of the story of the Creation. He renews our perennial wonder at the existence of light, the sun and moon, the sea and earth, all the multiplicity of plants and animals, and lastly Man himself, the paragon of all, who is to subdue the earth.

In the eighth book, Adam presses his inquiry further, about astronomical wonders. The opening is almost in the exalted spirit of the Psalms:

When I behold this goodly Frame, this
World
Of Heav'n and Earth consisting, and
compute
Their magnitudes, this Earth a spot, a
grain,
An Atom, with the firmament compar'd
And all her number'd Stars . . .
. . . reasoning I oft admire,
How Nature wise and frugal could
commit
Such disproportions.

The framework of *Paradise Lost* is Ptolemaic astronomy. Milton knew the newer Copernican theory, too, but no proof had yet been advanced

for it, since there was no law of falling bodies at that time. Adam's questions are answered within limits, and he is told to be lowly wise and think most about what concerns himself, not about other worlds. Now the speaker changes, and Adam tells what he remembers of his own beginning, to the angel who was absent when his creation was accomplished. Here Milton reveals the true wonder of the world, as the first man might have seen it, and gives us the sense of gratitude that Adam felt for the gift of life itself. He enjoyed all the animals, called them by name, but found no companion for himself. Then Eve was created to complete his happiness.

Charles Lamb thought the only trouble with Adam and Eve was that they behaved too much like married people. Milton contrasts earthly and heavenly love in the spirit of Plato's *Phaedrus*. Plato's chariot had two horses, one representing the soul and one the body, whom the driver, Reason, makes pull together. The matter is introduced by Adam, who says that in the presence of Eve he first felt passion, and all higher knowledge seems to fall degraded. Yet earthly love was only an accident of the creation. The angel answers Adam:

What higher in her society thou find'st
Attractive, human, rational, love still;
In loving thou dost well, in passion
not,
Wherein true Love consists not; love
refines
The thoughts, and heart enlarges, hath
his seat
In Reason, and is judicious, is the scale

By which to heav'nly Love thou may'st
ascend,
Not sunk in carnal pleasure, for which
cause
Among the Beasts no Mate for thee
was found.

This is not quite in the spirit of Plato, who said that all sense experience is an impediment to the growth of the soul. Milton has the angel say that the natural passions are not degrading but must be kept in their place. He tells Adam, "Love the highest." This is the philosophy of the whole work. Life is right only if things are duly ordered.

The theme of Book IX is connected to that of Book VIII, the contrast between heavenly love and earthly love. The angel bases true love on reason, and Adam's sin is the displacing of reason by the lower capacities. Satan, in the form of the serpent, goes first to Eve, flatters her, arouses her curiosity as to how he attained human speech, and then explains how it all came about—the tree. Notice Eve's motives for eating the apple. Satan says that he has raised himself above the level of beasts; in like manner Adam will become an angel. He goes from flattery to argument. He says that he cannot understand death, that it may be death to life but birth to heavenly life. The detail about noon hunger might well have been left out. Eve eats and then goes to Adam. He is not deceived as she was, but resolves to share her fate, "fondly overcome with female charm." He forgets the lesson that the angel taught him. Immediately evil comes into the world. The eating of the apple, of course, typifies sin in gen-

eral, not just one silly little thing. The first obvious results are that Adam and Eve seek to cover their nakedness and fall to reviling one another.

Book X contains God's judgment of Adam, for which we were prepared in Book III with the statement that Man was created free and able to withstand. But God promises to temper justice with mercy. The sending of Christ as the mild judge and intercessor carries out the plan. The judgment is almost in the language of the Bible: "Curst is the ground for thy sake," and

"In the sweat of thy Face shalt thou eat
Bread,
Till thou return unto the ground, for
thou
Out of the ground wast taken, know
thy Birth,
For dust thou art, and shalt to dust re-
turn."

The scenes in this book run the gamut of Heaven, Earth, Hell. Sin and Death, abstract characters in Hell, feel Satan's success and immediately pave a path from Hell to Earth, over which Satan travels to report his success to his colleagues. But when he expects their cheers, only hisses greet him, for they are all changed to serpents, which spit out hot ashes. The whole order of nature is also altered: heat and cold, pain and storms are loosed, beasts begin to war with one another. Adam is horrified at the consequences of his sin, to be visited not only on himself but on all his progeny. He thinks that he could never bear it if Death were not a sure release for his soul, too. Eve at first considers suicide to prevent her bringing children into the world

to die, but Adam restrains her, and they decide that repentance and prayer are the better course. Adam does not complain that he has been unfairly judged:

... with labour I must earn
My bread; what harm? Idleness had
been worse;
My labour will sustain me.

Books XI and XII consist of a look ahead over the main incidents of Hebrew history to show Adam what the hope of man is. The angel Michael, before driving our first parents out of Paradise, spreads out the panorama for Adam—the first murder, of Abel, and the flood. In Book XII the method changes; the scenes are no longer spread out, and the angel just tells Adam the main course of events down to the coming of Christ. Thus the main teachings of the poem are brought to the test of experience or history. The most significant prophecy is of the coming of Christ, which links up with the mercy promised Adam.

After seeing all these events, Adam reaches his final conclusion:

Henceforth I learn, that to obey is
best,
And love with fear the only God, to
walk
As in his presence, and on him sole de-
pend,
Merciful over all his works, with good
Still overcoming evil, and by small
Accomplishing great things, by things
deem'd weak
Subverting worldly strong, and world-
ly wise
By simply meek; that suffering for
Truth's sake
Is fortitude to highest victory,
And to the faithful Death the Gate of
Life.

Here the tragedy turns to hope. These lines end the poem satisfactorily for most people, with the reference to "highest victory." In that day people were strong for the epic form, which was supposed to end in victory. But some still think that this ends in defeat, as Michael drives Adam and Eve out of Paradise:

The World was all before them, where
to choose
Their place of rest, and Providence
their guide:
They hand in hand with wand'ring
steps and slow,
Through Eden took their solitary way.

Paradise Lost is perhaps the last great English epic. Some object that too few human characters are brought into it. Adam and Eve seem rather types, not individuals. Other characters are angels and devils. And who is the hero of the poem? The English people have not fully settled it. In the first two books Satan is the hero, but later it is impossible to look upon him as the hero. Another suggestion is Christ. He saves the race, but he plays too small a part in the drama as a whole. Adam, representing mankind, is also said to be the hero. But Adam fails, and epic heroes do not. We must take both together for our hero, Adam and Christ, with the atonement. It is a story of the destiny of the human race.

The best students of Milton believe that you must take the poem away from the literalists to appreciate it. Some believe in a six-day creation of twenty-four hours each, but people will leave the poem unread as such history. It is not old-fash-

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ioned theology. Milton presents the question of the origin of sin. He presents two great forces, good and evil. Milton may not have accounted for the *origin* of evil; he is more interested in the *progress* of evil. What will human destiny be, with both good and evil present? Milton is sound here. His cure for evil is conformity with the divine plan, the restoration of reason to dominance. So the underlying idea is philosophical, not theological.

One difficulty to the appreciation of *Paradise Lost* is its length. Then, too, it is difficult to vivify Adam. Dante talks in the first person and is therefore easy to vivify. *The Divine Comedy* has as its hero *someone* plus *everyone*. *Paradise Lost* has *anyone* plus *everyone*. The difference is between someone and anyone.

Also, Milton's story is old and improbable, not without some inconsistencies. The poem is said to have an inconsistent attitude toward death. At times it appears a curse, at times a blessing. But this lies in human thought: it always has been looked upon in both ways. Others say that Eden is too happy; life there would be unbearable. We cannot conceive of living anywhere but in such a world as this. Then, it is said to have a "Puritan" attitude toward woman. But that is not Puritan; it is also Anglican. Bishop Jeremy Taylor wrote the same way. Then, too, the poem reveals a stern sense of justice. But Milton is careful to combine love and justice, to temper justice with mercy. Above all, it is great poetry. One never exhausts its possibilities.

The Geographer, World Citizen

ETELKA HOLT-VINCENT

And God called the dry land Earth; And the earth brought forth grass, and herb yielding seed after his kind, and the tree yielding fruit, . . . And God made two great lights; the greater light to rule the day. So God created man and blessed them and God said unto them, Be fruitful, and multiply, and replenish the earth, and subdue it.—Gen. 1.

From the beginning, the earth has been designated the home of man. He must learn to adjust himself to the conditions in which he finds himself whether it be the tropical jungles, the desert, or cold polar areas. In the various regions of the world he must do the thing that promises him a good living in that particular place. In other words, he must make the best possible adjustment to his natural environment.

Man's primary interest is self-preservation. The earth is the source of materials from which he provides himself with food, clothing, and shelter. The position of the sun's rays as they strike the earth helps to determine the abundance and variety of the products. In the tropics the sun is high in the sky twelve months of the year and in the regions where there is abundant rainfall vegetal growth is luxuriant; while in the polar areas when the sun is low or does not shine at all, sparse vegetation is sufficient only for the sustenance of a few animals which in turn provide meager food and clothing for the hardy inhabitants of the region. A study of

geography teaches the basic causes of the differences among the regions, enabling one group to recognize the position and problems of the other essential in solving world problems. To take its proper place in the school curricula as a science, geography shall include a knowledge of man and his capacity for adjustment to his natural environment. Geography involves the study of land forms, configuration of coasts, water bodies, climate; it includes the distribution of mineral resources, non-metallic raw materials, and agricultural potentials.

Geography has occupied a high place in the school curricula as a cultural subject. While men remained remote from each other either because of distance or lack of facilities for communication, specific knowledge of geography was not considered vital to secondary education. Improvements in methods of transportation and communication have so reduced distance that men in all parts of the world have been brought closer together and made interdependent; consequently, the subject matter of geography today has assumed an importance in education and in experience that it has never before held. As man's economic and political horizons have been extended far beyond the environs of his own immediate activities, beyond the limits of his own travel and experience, he has found

geography an essential element in the knowledge that he and every successful man of business or progressive citizen of the world must possess. When the daily way of life becomes affected in intimate detail by the activities of almost all peoples of the world, interest in them becomes personal rather than merely academic. The interchange of ideas, of wares and commodities, and now the necessity of uniting in the war effort, leave out no part of the world and relate all types of regions, all classes and races of people, into one neighborhood where every man must be more or less affected by the activities and attributes of his world neighbors. The science of geography takes its place as a revitalized integer in the curricula of schools of higher learning as well as in intermediate and secondary education and is essential in an educational program which includes "building of world citizens" in its aims and objectives.

OBJECTIVES

Five cardinal objectives of the science of geography are here considered:

The first and most fundamental is to emphasize the application of geography to the immediate problems of life, to show how men live, what they do, and so far as practicable why they live and work as they do in different environmental conditions in various parts of the world; to establish a background that will help the student fit his own life intelligently into his physical surroundings, or to choose surroundings to which his capacities are suited.

In order to realize this objective, it is necessary to deal with the relations of specific groups of people to their natural environment. Just as individual people have personal traits, so individual regions have distinctive geographical characteristics. Thus with reference to the Amazon region the basic concept is a people adapting their way of living to a hot, wet, tropical forest. Today this region is studied with renewed interest because of the far-reaching need for rubber. The hevea tree, an excellent producer, is a native of the Amazon forest. The grass-thatched hut of this land is adapted to the hot, wet climate; the steep-sloped roof sheds the rain; the hut itself is made of materials at hand in the forest. In fact, all the activities of the peoples of this region are adapted to a land in which there is much rainfall, the sun is always high in the sky, summer lasts all year, and the vegetation is dense.

Many of our troops in northern Africa have found conditions just the reverse; here the people are making adjustments to a hot, dry land. The houses are made of sun-baked clay with flat roofs. Again the materials at hand have been used; the food, the clothing, the way of living are being adapted to a land in which summer lasts all year and the sun is always high in the sky; but here instead of plenteous rainfall, there is little or none at all. Thus each new region has its own personality and each time the people are doing what they are doing because of the kind of land in which they live.

The second objective is to teach

a knowledge of the location and character of the leading surface features of the earth such as continents, oceans, mountains, and rivers, not as isolated facts but in various relationships to human activity. It is well that not many teachers still ask that students memorize facts merely for their own sake. It is agreed that locations should be known and today it is particularly essential to be able to find on the map islands, cities, and villages over the world where American men and women are laying the foundation for global relationships upon which depends the peace of the future. How many of us remember from our own school days the location of New Caledonia, the Solomon Islands, the Caroline Islands? Yet today because of associating these places with war activities in which we all are vitally interested we know where these places are and know it very definitely.

The third objective is to give a sympathetic understanding of the conditions and problems of the peoples of other countries which are associated with and grow out of the kinds of lands in which they live. A few years ago how many of us would have understood the reason why the little island of Malta has been able to withstand so many bombings? Before troops invade a country war strategists must study the character of the terrain over which the troops must move, the character of the roads that will have to be built, the streams to be bridged. They must know against what climatic conditions they will have to contend and what problems they

will have to solve in caring for the sick and wounded.

The fourth objective is to show the dependence of man on earth conditions and earth resources as the material bases of social development and to bring out the economic interdependence of the peoples of different countries. Just as the inhabitant of a large city cannot live without coming in contact with his fellow citizens, so no nation today is able to avoid close association with the other nations of the world. An appreciation of the interdependence of all men and of the unity of the earth will help us all to become more intelligent citizens of the world.

The fifth objective is to point the way to better uses of land and of the natural resources. Millions of acres in the United States, once productive, now are useless. This condition cannot be permitted to continue if high standards of living are to be maintained.

INSTRUCTION MATERIALS

Although methods and materials for the teaching of geography must necessarily change to fit the needs of the present and future day, four great groups of tools which have been in use for many years still are vital:

1. Pictures, museum materials, observation through travel in the great outdoors. Pictures are the geographer's laboratory and are an important substitute for travel. Photographed from the air, coast lines and land forms become realities and their delineation accurate. Animated pictures are invaluable in many phases of the study of geog-

raphy. Pictures should be used not as illustrations but as intrinsic units in problem-raising and problem-solving. Attention must be given to their interpretation if they fulfill their purpose.

2. Globes, maps, gazeteers. It is necessary to be able to interpret with a degree of understanding the information shown on globes; to see the facts that the maps show. Projections change with the times. Mercator's map was early of great value to sailors; the Homolosine projection came into use with the need for steamships sailing the Great Circle routes; and now polar projections and perspective maps serve the flight of air-ships. Inability to read the information portrayed on a globe is a great handicap.

3. Text and reference materials, lectures, newspapers, radio. From this group of tools we not only add to our ideas of the region to be studied but check those ideas already gained from pictures or maps.

4. Statistical tables in graphic form aid in showing comparative production of crops or minerals, their value, and the like.

USES OF INSTRUCTION MATERIAL

In any given region the following uses may be made of the tools and materials:

I. PICTURES

- a. Study the kinds of work which the people of a given region are doing.
- b. The types of places in which the activity is being carried on.
- c. The reason or reasons which the pictures may suggest for the fact that this work is being carried on in this place.

II. MAPS OR GLOBES

- a. Reading any facts about this country, such as precipitation, winds, and ocean currents, which might help to explain why this activity is carried on there.
- b. Finding the reasons why land forms have played a part in the region.

III. PRINTED MATERIAL

- a. Checking ideas concerning the activity carried on which were gained from pictures and maps.
- b. Comparing and contrasting the activities.

IV. STATISTICAL TABLES

- a. Showing how the activity in a particular region ranks in world production.
- b. Showing the relation between value and volume in world products.

Notice that each of the activities listed above contributes something toward mastering the understanding of relationships between this activity and the natural environment in this region. Any other activities that may be carried on should contribute just as definitely to the mastery of other elements of thought in the unit.

The study of geography should stimulate an interest in contemporary affairs and leisure-time reading, and throughout life the student should be able to place current events of which he reads in their proper regional setting. Geography may thus have its part in establishing a sane procedure in a post-war world for it has become an essential part of the intellectual and educational life of the individual. He now has a richer and more wholesome outlook for he has come naturally to have a world point of view: he is in fact a citizen of the world.

Words in Service

WALTER PENNINGTON

In the present conflict it was early recognized that the ablest orators were on our side. While everyone might not at first thought attach much significance to this statement even though granting its truth, a little reflection will convince the most skeptical of its importance. Our government wishes us to have our radios in working order, for the radio furnishes a ready means of disseminating information of the progress of the war on its far-flung battlefields. The radio also furnishes essential instruction to civilians that will convince them of the necessity of such matters as guarding against the operations of a black market, of buying more and more war bonds, of doing everything that they humanly can to help the boys on the fighting line.

It is hard to estimate the good that has been done in the way of enlightening public opinion through the media of speech and published writings. Most of these writings will not live beyond their hour of need; few of them make or claim to make any contribution to literature.

Exception is seen in some of the stirring speeches of our allied leaders—Roosevelt, Churchill, General MacArthur. Their speeches have fired the enthusiasm of millions of people to further efforts and have kept high the morale of the allied nations. Quotable phrases like MacArthur's "I give you the unbreak-

able faith of a free man," will long outlive the war.

The war has brought sharply home to us the need for knowing our own language, knowing how to use it so that orders may be given that admit of but one interpretation, knowing how to write in clear, correct English, and knowing how to read such English comprehendingly. Is the student in our present accelerated programs having difficulty in understanding what his physics book or his history text has to say? He may have been allowed to become what is called a passive, not an active, reader, a reader who reads that he may absorb enough to pass the next test, who takes in the material like a blotting-paper, and like the blotting-paper, gives but a very indistinct reproduction of that which he has absorbed. The active reader brings to his text an active, alert mind; he challenges every statement that may seem to require proof. When he finishes, he not only knows, but knows that he knows and why he knows.

Not only has the war brought to our attention the need for good English, but it has also made a great impression on the language itself. Recently the publishers of Webster's *Dictionary* queried for their pamphlet *Word Study* some of the leading philologists. Their question was: What is the war doing to English

and to the study of foreign languages? Briefly, I paraphrase here some of the answers they received:

Dr. George Oliver Curme, author of *Syntax, Parts of Speech, and Accidence*, and many other works, writes:

"After the first World War, German returned to our universities but not in large measure to our high schools. The colleges were teaching elementary German, but as the students did not need advanced courses for their high-school teaching, little was done past the fundamentals."

Greek, the language which Dr. Curme majored in during his college days, has almost disappeared as a foreign language study. It is not today a question of studying the languages of our friends and ignoring those of our enemies. It is unlikely that after the war we shall study Russian and Greek.

The real difficulty is in the spirit of the age, which seeks only the practical, only that which means financial success, only that which can be made to function as a tool in the student's later career.

Curme urges students to learn at least their own language well, for though they do not know it while they are students, a good knowledge of English has the practical value that they are seeking.

Curme ends by saying that our admiration for the English people in the present war seems to find expression in imitation of some of their pronunciations. He has noticed particularly American adoption of the British pronunciation of *against*, and of *either* and *neither*.

Professor Robert C. Pooley, of the University of Wisconsin, tries to answer the question: "What causes underlie the present abandonment of foreign-language study?" He believes that the reasons are "natural, inevitable, and completely temporary." Language study has been to most students unreal. The languages have been studied not for the satisfaction of knowing the culture of another people but to satisfy a curriculum requirement or to have a credit slip to turn in at the registrar's office. In the first World War not many of our boys were in a foreign country long enough to know or use a foreign language. From the present war will return men who have felt the influence of Italian, Norwegian, Russian, and other languages. The languages will have become very real to them. Their interest in the language will be reflected in the interests of their younger brothers and sons and daughters.

Pooley agrees with Curme that there will be no matter this time of linguistic revulsion, that we shall not cease studying a language because we have been at war with the people who speak that language as their native tongue.

Professor Pooley says that the boom in Spanish is quite as external and temporary as the decline in French and German. There are two influences that have caused the increase in interest in Spanish: the good-will propaganda and the popular commercial fallacy that Spanish is a good business language. Professor Pooley explains his use of the word

fallacy here by saying that if we were interested in the best foreign language for business purposes, we should study not Spanish, but Portuguese, the language of Brazil, our chief ally and friend among the South American countries.

Henry Grattan Doyle, of Washington, D. C., replies to Professor Pooley's article. Doyle begins by quoting Dr. Edwin A. Lee, Dean of the School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles:

There are two equally defensible reasons for studying foreign languages, the vocational and the cultural. These two reasons are not mutually exclusive, but in most cases the student will be more vividly aware of one than of the other. . . .

Doyle uses this quotation as a text, pointing out that the practical value of a language as well as the cultural value offers a worthwhile reason for study of the language. Doyle deplors Pooley's invidious comparison of Spanish and Portuguese. Doyle concludes that we need a wide range of foreign languages in our curricula that students may study the languages longer and more effectively.

The paraphrases just given help us to understand the responsibility and privilege of English teachers today in preparing young men who are entering the armed services so that they may have a fair command of their own language.

English departments are intensifying that part of the work in rhetoric having to do with vocabulary-building. Assumption cannot be made that the average youth to-

day who reaches college has had either the advantage of foreign-language study or the rich experience of wide reading of the great classics of literature. So the English instructor opens to him a new realm by showing him how new words are made by the use of prefixes and suffixes—Latin and Greek and native Anglo-Saxon. The good student is quick to perceive that this knowledge will help him in his other studies. For example, to know that *amphi* means "of two kinds, or both," helps him to see what amphibious means. If he knows that *iso* means "equal," isobar, isosceles, and isothermal take on clearer meaning. From the Greek *hydor*, meaning "water," he can find help in his study of hydraulics and hydrolysis, and know whence the hydroplane gets its name. Thus he builds and correlates, and accepts this kind of learning because he can see its application in so much that he is doing. He learns some of the common Latin verb, noun, and adjective roots as well as some of those from Greek. Those who are in service see why what they wear is called a *uniform*; the Latin root *voc*, together with the prefixes that they have learned, will give new meaning to *vocation*, *avocation*, *convocation*; the Latin *grad* makes clear why both a thermometer and a student are said to be graduated, and thermometer itself is more interesting when it is revealed as a measurer of heat. From Greek *micro* he will readily think up microbe, microscope, microphone, and microcosm, and *photo* (light) will be useful for his understanding of

photograph, photoplay, photosynthesis, and photoelectric. These are but a few of hundreds of words which will be enriched for the student in the progress of developing his vocabulary.

Even semantics is allowed to rear its no longer ugly head. Semantics has survived the well-meant attention lavished upon it in recent years by men not trained in philology and has gained new impetus because of the real contribution it can make in the developing of vocabulary. The first-year student gets enough of semantics or the study of how words change their meaning to open a new avenue of thinking. He learns that it is the characteristic of a living language as indeed of any other living organism that it is constantly changing. He is made to realize that new words, especially in war time, are being constantly coined, that old words are furbished up for new meanings, that words become obsolete. He learns that the core meaning of a word has many peripheral meanings and that the jargon of a trade or a profession may use a word in a specialized sense. In military usage, *ration* does not mean what it does to the civilian population, nor does the word *mess*, to name but two.

He learns something of how these semantic changes come about—through generalization (a clerk was

at first a clergyman, then a student, now a keeper of records or a retail salesman); through specialization (*starve* meant to die, now to die in one manner only, from hunger); through elevation (a *pastor* was what the name implies, a shepherd, but has come to mean a clergyman in charge of a church; through degeneration (a *villain* was once a feudal servant on a villa or farm, now a scoundrel); through substitution (a *journey* once meant a day's travel or a day's work, but now means a trip of any length, though we still keep the day idea in journal and in journeyman worker.)

The student learns something of the history to be found in words, something of the old sciences, of the making of books, of the theater, of feudal society, and so forth. Our experience has been that students enjoy the study of words and that the study does aid greatly in vocabulary building.

This is truly an all-out war, and the English teacher has much to offer to young men who are going into service. The English teacher could give more if the training curriculum made more provision for the study of literature, for through the medium of *belles lettres* young men could learn to emulate the highest ideals and could better understand the heritage that they are going out to defend.

Nutrition Education in the Elementary School

E. LOUISE GIBSON

Nutrition education is being stressed increasingly in the elementary grades. There are many reasons for this. Food habits are formed in childhood; therefore nutrition education is particularly important in the elementary school. It is difficult to change the habits established in early life; consequently it is much better to form good habits in the beginning than to try later on to change bad habits. Emphasizing nutrition during the elementary years has another advantage in that more persons can be reached, since many children secure no formal training beyond the eighth grade.

Many factors have contributed to the interest being shown in this phase of education at the present time. Countless surveys and studies have been made in recent years of various aspects of the health and nutritional status of the nation. These tell us that a high percentage of the people in the United States are undernourished, and that there are still many deaths from the dietary deficiency disease, pellagra, and that outbreaks of scurvy and the deformities of rickets are still all too prevalent in our country. Examination of school children shows frequently that many children who, while not ill in a clinical sense, are in substandard health, marked by underweight, anemia, poor posture, diseased tonsils and adenoids, and low resistance to disease.

EFFECTS OF MALNUTRITION

These children are usually slow in their school work. They are unable to concentrate. They have poor appetites. Many are dull and lethargic. Others are irritable and frequently disciplinary problems. Does the school have a responsibility for these children? It certainly does. One cannot teach successfully malnourished children.

In 1917-18, and again in 1940, malnutrition and underweight were important causes for rejection from military service of young men called up under the Draft Act. It is estimated that "perhaps one-third of the rejections were due either directly or indirectly to nutritional deficiencies."¹ The war effort, with its demand for physical fitness, serves as a strong motivating force for the study of nutrition.

The problems brought before the citizenry by food shortages present a need for knowing which foods are equivalents and which ones make good substitutes for those which are unobtainable. Boys and girls can carry home from school information which will aid in solving these problems.

POTENTIAL OUTCOMES OF EDUCATION

Among the outcomes to be sought

¹Hershey, Brig. Gen. Lewis B. in address given at the National Nutrition Conference, Washington, May 26-28 1941.

through nutrition education in the elementary grades the following are proposed for consideration:

1. Good habits of food selection.
2. A favorable attitude toward all foods necessary for health and growth, especially the protective foods available in the communities.
3. An understanding of the importance of the right kinds of food to healthy growth, resistance to fatigue, attractive appearance, and physical well being.
4. The ability to check one's daily food intake with a daily food guide.
5. The ability to plan a simple meal suitable to a child.
6. The ability to prepare and serve a simple meal suitable for a child.
7. The cooperation of parents in helping the child to apply in his daily eating what he has learned about nutrition.² Some of the experiences by which children will be enabled to acquire the habits, attitudes, and appreciations implied in these outcomes will be described.

INSTRUCTION MATERIALS

The child may keep a growth chart. In so doing, however, his attention should be drawn to his rate of growth, rather than to the fact that he is over, normal, or underweight, according to the height-weight-age standards. The practice of checking the child's weight with

the normal has been abandoned in most schools, because being "normal" in weight does not indicate that a child is well nourished, since what a child should weigh is determined largely by his individual physical build.

Children may be taught by means of photographs and films the signs of good nutrition, such as a well-developed body, hair smooth and lustrous, eyes clear and without dark circles under them, skin clear, smooth, and slightly moist, posture good, and teeth well-formed and sound.³

There are many lists of food compiled by nutritionists, which may be used in checking to see if the daily diet meets the requirements necessary for good growth and the prevention of deficiency diseases. The child can make a record of what he has eaten during the day and check it with the standard list. By repeating this activity a number of times, varying the approach, the child should become familiar with his daily food needs by the time he leaves the elementary grades. In carrying on an activity of this type, one should inform the parents of the use to be made of such information in order to avoid misunderstandings which might arise. The teacher who uses a learning experience of this type needs to realize that it is possible to obtain the necessary protective values from a wide variety of foods and to keep this in mind when

²*Nutrition Education in the Elementary School*. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Food Distribution Administration, Nutrition Education Series, Pamphlet No. 1, p. 1. Issued August 1942.

³Additional information concerning the signs of good nutrition may be found in *The Road to Good Nutrition*. Roberts, Lydia J. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, Children's Bureau Publication No. 270. pp. 2-8.

helping children to evaluate their diets.

EXPERIMENTS IN NUTRITION

Through rat-feeding experiments children acquire an understanding of the importance to healthy growth and good appearance of the right kinds of food. In the elementary school some experiments with white rats can be used to contrast the growth of the rats when fed a good and a poor breakfast, or a good and a poor lunch. The poor breakfast or luncheon menus selected may well be ones found to be eaten by members of the class. Youngsters are greatly impressed when they see the lack of growth, shabby fur, and pale color of the ears, nose, feet, and tails of the rats which are fed on the poor diets. When carrying on experiments of this nature, children enjoy showing their animals to members of other classes and their parents and making reports, written and oral, of their activities.

A study of what the neighbor who has a poultry farm feeds his chickens in order to have high-grade poultry and eggs for sale, as well as what is fed other pets and farm animals, forms another approach to the teaching of the importance of the right diet for growth and health of boys and girls, and gives, also, some acquaintance with the minerals and vitamins needed in their own diets.

Teaching what is found in the bottle of milk, the apple, the candy bar, the coca cola, and the sucker which children eat is a means of showing the composition and comparative food value of foods. Sug-

gestive methods of teaching this type of lesson may be found in *Nutrition Education in the Elementary School*.⁴

There are at present very attractive and realistic food models with which children can plan meals. By using the daily dietary standard as a guide they can plan simple breakfasts, lunches, and dinners which will provide them with the essentials of the daily diet.

Children who eat their noon meal in the school lunch-room may evaluate the lunches served them there. Also, a study of the foods which should be in the lunch-box is quite worthwhile. A child may be encouraged to try to bring the foods listed in a "5-Star"⁵ lunch each day. In schools where many children bring their lunches it would be of value to study ways of varying the menus, such as making different kinds of sandwiches, using different breads and fillings, and preparing vegetables and desserts which may be carried satisfactorily. The children may then be allowed to prepare the foods for a lunch-box and learn how to pack a box correctly.

In many modern schools provisions are made for the children to prepare and eat certain foods under pleasurable circumstances. Group pressure and the fact that they have had a part in preparing the food will lead children to eat foods at

⁴*Nutrition Education in the Elementary School*. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Food Distribution Administration Nutrition Education Series Pamphlet No. 1, pp. 8-11. Issued August, 1942.

⁵Revolution in Bridgeport. "Pack a Lunch a Man Can Work On." Public Health Committee of the Cup and Container Institute, 1790 Broadway, New York, N. Y. 1942.

school which they would not eat at home. In this way a liking for essential foods may be developed.

In rural schools the children may prepare the hot dish which is to supplement the other food brought from home. They can be taught good luncheon menus by having them plan ahead what foods to bring from home to serve with the hot dish which they will prepare at school.

In some schools the children plan and care for a school garden. Deciding upon what should go into the garden furnishes an opportunity to teach the comparative food values of different vegetables and fruits. Having a garden at school may interest some children in producing some of their food at home.

Where there is a school lunchroom, opportunity might well be given the children to participate in planning menus, buying food, storing food, and keeping accounts. At the present time additional lunchroom problems which the children might help to solve are those concerned with rationing, food shortages, prevention of waste, and the use of waste fats. Information gained from these experiences should carry over into their homes.

The program should be planned to reach all students, and to include parents, also. It should be taught in all grades, the units being worked out so that the work of each grade grows out of and builds upon that done in the lower grades.

COOPERATIVE EFFORTS

In most school systems there are

persons other than the elementary teachers who can assist with the program of nutrition in the elementary school. Some schools have a health teacher who can be of much service. She is in touch with up-to-date visual aids and source materials, and can assist in working out a program for keeping growth records. She may be able to analyze the cases of absence in children due to nutritional causes and work out a remedial program. The school nurse and physician may be of much assistance in working out a nutrition program.

In some school systems the home-economics teachers have schedules which permit them to be of service in carrying out programs with elementary teachers. They as well as the science teachers can assist with the animal-feeding experiments. The home-economics teacher usually has a wealth of pamphlets, posters, pictures, food models, and other aids which may be put at the disposal of the elementary teacher. There may possibly be times when the children can be taken to the home-economics rooms for special problems, such as the preparation of foods, and setting up of exhibits.

In science classes, experiments to determine the composition of food may be carried on. The science teacher may also help with problems of an agricultural nature. In order to have an effective program of nutrition education in the elementary schools, the work must be cooperatively planned by the teachers and administrators. Specialists should be made available to the elementary teacher.

The State Department of Education may be of assistance in promoting effective nutrition education in the elementary school. Specialists of the state staff, such as supervisors in the field of health education, elementary education, and home-economics education, should work together. Special departments including the health department and rural-education department should cooperate in this program.

The elementary teacher must have training in foods and nutrition with emphasis on nutrition work with children. Teacher-training institutions are offering courses for elementary teachers in the field of nutrition at the present time. Some schools are publishing reading matter in this field that can be given to children.

An example of another type of

assistance given by the schools of higher learning is that which is offered at the State Teachers College at Buffalo, N. Y., where the home-economics majors are being prepared to give leadership in the lunch and nutrition education program of the elementary school.

Some institutions have provided summer workshops where teachers can make an intensive study of the many problems involved in carrying out a broad and successful nutrition program in schools.

Nutrition education in the elementary-school program is clearly receiving a great deal of attention at the present time. If children are to survive the stress of the years to come, they must be prepared physically, mentally, and morally. This program provides a definite opportunity and a challenge.

Cooking and Kitchen Utensils of the Past

ANNIE MARRIOTT

PART I. PRIMITIVE COOKING

Food was cooked long before kitchen utensils, as such, were available. The first great event in history of cookery was the discovery of fire. "This in all probability came about partially, at least, by accident."¹ Before the beginning of history, volcanoes erupting set fire to the forest and drove the people from their villages. On their return, they found among the ruins roasted food which was good to eat.

Others made the same discovery when lightning started a forest fire. People learned that if they were careful, they could always have a fire by saving coals to kindle it. Among some tribes it was considered good manners to ask for some fire. When it was to be carried a short distance a torch was the means used. When the distance was too great to use the torch, a basket lined with a layer of earth was used. The live coals were put in and covered with ashes, and the fire could be carried all day and a new camp fire kindled with it. When the earth lining was clay, in a few hours the clay had baked and was hard and could be taken out in one piece and used as a dish.

"The founders of Rome carried fire in this way, in a round basket with a cover shaped something like a bee-hive. The young girls of the family were responsible for the care

of these precious baskets, and it was their duty never to allow the hearth-fire to go out. This is the reason the temple of Vesta, goddess of home, had a dome roof. Its altar fire was tended by daughters of the oldest Roman families, descendants of those first householders on the "Seven Hills."²

Occasionally a fire may have been kindled by a falling meteorite. Dry grass and leaves could be set on fire in this way. A meteorite is almost pure iron, and the Egyptians referred to it as the stone from heaven. The Eskimos utilized this iron in the making of knives.

CONTROLLING FIRE

A whole new range of things to do was opened to our ancestors when they learned to kindle a fire at any place at any time.

Cookery is possible even without the use of fire, by the heat of the sun. The Indians baked thin cakes of corn bread on sun-heated rocks. But real cookery began with the use of fire.

In earliest times bread was cooked under embers. The use of the oven was introduced into Europe by the Romans who had found them in Egypt. But in spite of this, the old system of cooking was used for a long time. In the tenth century, Raimbold Abbott of the monastery of St. Thierry ordered in his will

¹Lamprey: *The Story of Cookery*.

²*Ibid.*

that on the day of his death bread cooked under the embers should be given to his monks. According to feudal law the lord was obligated to bake the bread of his vassals, for which they were taxed, but the vassals often preferred to cook their bread at home in the embers of their own hearths, rather than to take it to the public oven.

When bread or cakes are mentioned in the Bible or in old fairy tales or medieval history, it does not mean loaves like ours but rather flat cakes.

BROILING, ROASTING

The first broiling was done by putting meat on the end of a pointed stick and holding it over the fire. When the hunter cut a smooth stick and thrust it through the body of a bird or an animal he had killed, he could rest the two ends of the stick on stones and roast his meat over the coals. This primitive stick was replaced by a "spit" or iron rod and this was a considerable improvement. The heat of the iron cooked the inside of the roast. Even after kitchen ranges became common, it was still claimed that oven-baked meat had not the flavor the open fire gave it.

The next oldest way of cooking was probably baking or frying on a flat stone. The metal plate which came into use as soon as a tribe could work iron or copper was more convenient than the stone.

Baking in an oven was not done for some time after roasting, broiling, and the use of the cooking-plate of stone or metal became common.

Cooking in water was difficult

until fireproof earthenware or metal pots were made. Some Indians boiled food in a basket or in the skin of an animal or a birchbark kettle.

Broiling and stewing as methods of cooking did not become general until iron and copper pots were made. These were hung directly over the fire. The Gypsy kettle-hook came into use at this time. It is an iron rod about four feet long, one end sharpened to thrust into the ground slanting toward the fire, the other end bent into a curve from which a kettle could be hung above the flame.

"The only stone pots used for cooking seem to have been the Eskimo soapstone kettles, for the reason this stone will not crack when hot if the kettle is filled with water."³

Another reason stone pots were not used was they were too heavy to carry about when a tribe was on the move and must go afoot. But the Eskimos' soapstone lamp and cooking-pot could be put on a sledge or into a boat quite easily, and the Eskimos cooked in stone over a soapstone lamp fed with seal or whale oil until traders brought iron kettles to exchange for furs and walrus teeth.

The cooking of tenting people had to be done over an open fire. Their meat supply went with them, on the hoof. A camel load of dry grain, dried vegetables, and fruits would feed a family much longer than the same weight in fresh foods. A considerable variety of dishes could be concocted from the stored provisions when the tribe camped

³*Ibid.*

where there was water and fuel. Water and oil could be carried in skin bags; but the cooks had to pick up something to burn.

Olive or some other vegetable oil was used for cooking. This oil was sold in skin bottles made by taking off the skin of an animal as nearly whole as possible, plugging up all the holes but one at the neck for the mouth of the bottle, and painting the outside with pitch to keep it from leaking. Such a container could be used for oil, water, wine, or any liquid, and might be made from an animal so large that two of the jars would be a load for a strong mule. The robber captain smuggled his thieves into the courtyard of Ali Baba's house by one of these skin containers! Thus a man could sit curled up in a skin bag without its looking from the outside as if it had anything in it but water or oil. These skin bottles could be used over and over but not indefinitely.

This bag was used by some tribes in the making of butter. The bags were filled with milk and then tied to saddles and dragged over rough ground by way of churning.

PART II. PRIMITIVE UTENSILS

"An interesting collection of old skillets and pot-hangers is in the Antiquarian House at Concord, Massachusetts. This collection contains examples of almost every kind of hearth and kitchen utensils in use in America during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries."⁴

One of the most interesting groups is the one having to do with the

baking of bread—an important activity in an American household in the eighteenth century. The process was almost identical with that of the medieval bake-shop, viz., a stone or brick oven was heated by building a fire inside the oven itself, after which the fire and ashes were removed and the bread baked with the retained heat in the masonry.

A shovel or "slice" with a long handle was used to remove the embers. A similar gadget made of wood and having a rounded blade, known as "bread-peel," was used to put the loaves into the oven. A salamander was used for browning the loaves. This was an iron shovel-like instrument which was made red-hot in the fire and then held near the crust of a loaf until it became brown. Pastry and other dishes were browned in this same manner.

Small loaves of bread were baked on the hearth on a griddle-plate sometimes supported by a brandreth, which was a short-legged iron trivet used to raise the griddle-plate above the embers.

In the less pretentious homes larger loaves as well as the small ones were baked upon the hearth in the iron cauldron. Sometimes this was turned upside down over the loaf and the embers heaped about it. The bread when baked this way was sometimes called upset bread. When the loaf was placed inside the cauldron and covered with a lid, it was known as pot-oven bread.

"Louisa M. Alcott used the cauldron during the time she served as volunteer nurse in the Civil War."⁵

⁴Nancy Cooper: *House Beautiful*, Vol. 70.

⁵*Ibid.*

The iron skillet or posnet, the medieval equivalent of the saucepan, was developed from the cauldron. The earliest English specimens were shaped like cauldrons with long curved handles. Eighteenth-century models had flat instead of curved bottoms and were larger at the tops than at the bottoms. Being down-hearth vessels they, of course, had legs, usually three, to raise them from the embers.

Another utensil in use at this time was the grisset, a shallow iron vessel on short feet used for melting the wax into which were dipped the wicks of rush lights.

Some of the most fascinating of the seventeenth and eighteenth century kitchen utensils had to do with the roasting of meats and game. One of these was the spit-jack.

The wrought iron skewer holder with its hanging iron skewers of different lengths and sizes was an important accessory of spit roasting.

Sugar nippers were important kitchen tools. They were used to cut hard irregular pieces of sugar when it came into the home from the retail stores.

The long-handled frying-pan was an important utensil for down-hearth or open-fire cooking. The pan was $13\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter and $49\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. Another article in use in the eighteenth century was a poker-like utensil known as a loggerhead or toddy-iron. This was used for heating toddy. Its bulblike end was heated in the flame until it was red-hot and then plunged into the toddy glass and held until the drink was of the proper temperature. The

remark has been made that after a sufficient number of drinks had been consumed, the partakers were more likely than not to apply the iron to each others heads rather than to the toddy.

Two important features of down-hearth cooking were broiling and the toasting of bread and meats. The bread toasters were made of wrought iron. They had a rack of twisted iron with a center ornament of thin wrought iron. Both racks revolved on an axis so that the bread may be toasted on both sides without being removed from the toaster.

The mortar and pestle is the earliest of all kitchen utensils. In the seventeenth century it was used both as a pastry bowl and as today for grinding and pulverizing condiments and spices.

PART III. COLONIAL UTENSILS

Practically every man and boy in the Colonies was continually on the lookout for carvable wood. Each kind held all of the potential pantry tools, such as: casks, spoons, door-knobs, latches, spatulas, pie-crimpers, apple-parers, dippers, and mashers. The early settlers on the Atlantic seaboard whittled, shaved, and gouged from the trees much of the equipment they used.

If a young man wanted to impress his best girl, he whittled a love-spoon. The popularity of the girl was measured by the number of love-spoons she possessed. "Marriage-spoons" were often joined by carved chains and were presented to the bride and groom to use at the wedding feast. In many ranks of society

a couple announced their engagement by eating together from one trencher.

For a long time after china had come into common use, after pewter had enjoyed its day and disappeared except in bullets, wooden kitchen and pantry ware, known as "treen," continued to serve.

The kitchens of our great grandmothers were stocked with not less than thirty kinds of household articles cut and carved from wood. Chopping-bowls, potato-mashers, egg-poachers with hollowed-out handles were among the thirty.

At least half a dozen rolling-pins were considered necessary in these pantries. The earliest had no handles; some were higher in the center than at the ends and one ribbed form was used for rolling out cookies in the old days.

Pantry tools included a long-handled stick for stirring the Indian Pudding, another for exclusive use in the dye-pot, and yet another for soap-making. A broad spatula was used for turning over apples drying on racks.

The spoon was the mainstay of Colonial kitchen life. It was made of wood, a crudely hollowed-out ladle which did most of the hard work, stirring, beating, and whipping. Paddles of pine were used for lifting and airing syrup at sugar-making time; paddles of cherry for butter-making. A beechwood

butter paddle had the butter stamp cut in the handle.

Food was served in large wooden bowls or trenchers piled high in the center of the table. Ordinarily trenchers were made of poplar wood and of the roots of the yellow ash. Miles Standish used trenchers and left a dozen to his heirs. For years Harvard students ate from them. These had been purchased for college use. They survived in some of the colonies until the time of the American Revolution.

In certain sections of Vermont, wooden plates were used as late as 1850.

Usually husband and wife ate out of the same trencher. One colonist who permitted his dozen children to have a trencher each was hauled into court for putting on airs, and a Connecticut farmer who failed to require his children to eat two from a tray was refused election to office on the ground of undue pride.

Wooden butter molds were standard colonial family equipment. They varied in shape and construction. Some were cylindric while others were round with handles. Along with the molds we learn that the colonists used curved wooden ladles to work the butter, and tubs of wood to store the butter.

The kitchens of today are veritable fairylands as compared with the kitchens of primitive and colonial times.

CAMPUS ACTIVITIES

Thirty-five teachers of home economics from the southeastern section of Kansas spent the second week in June on the campus, enrolled in short intensive courses in home mechanics, furniture refinishing, and furniture upholstering. After listening to lectures and demonstrations by the instructors, the teachers spent the remainder of the time in simple repairs and adjustments on electrical and other household appliances and equipment, and in removing old finish from pieces of furniture and applying the new.

The work in home mechanics and electrical appliances was directed by Professor William H. Matthews, of the Physical Science Department, and the work in furniture refinishing and upholstering by Professor George E. Braley, of the Department of Industrial Education. Professor Charles R. Wasser, of the Department of Industrial Education, demonstrated and supervised the work of sharpening kitchen knives and other household tools. The activities included a demonstration on cleaning and oiling the sewing-machine by Carol Pearson, teacher of vocational homemaking at Yates Center, Kansas.

The short courses were offered by the Home Economics Department in cooperation with the Kansas State Board of Vocational Education. No

college credit was given to those who enrolled.

Helen G. Yenzer, BS 1932, has joined the homemaking education staff of the Kansas State Board for Vocational Education, with headquarters at the College. She takes the place of Elizabeth Journey, who resigned last summer.

Porter Library had a number of special exhibits on display during the month of June. One, entitled, "Our Neighbor Republics," was prepared by the U. S. Office of Education and contained books on the various Latin American nations, samples of pottery, weaving, basketry, metalwork, maps, and picture panels.

A second display, entitled, "Lands and People South of Us," included 30 panels of original photographs with explanatory texts.

Also shown during the Summer Session was a series of eight displays of mounted photographs dealing with various phases of British military life. Each exhibit was on display for about ten days. Three of the exhibits were entitled, "Soldiers with Wings," "Coastal Command," and "RAMC in Action," respectively.

During the Junior High School Workshop, held in the reserve reading room of Porter Library during

the week of June 12-16, the Library staff displayed samples of textbooks, courses of study, maps, and other teaching aids suitable for the junior high school. Some of these materials were provided by various publishing houses, and others were selected from the regular collections in the library. Students enrolled in the Workshop spent many hours examining these materials.

Harold E. Binford, instructor in the Department of Commerce and Business Administration, was granted a commission, Lieutenant (jg) in the U. S. Navy in April, 1944. He was stationed at Tucson, Arizona, and on June 15th was transferred to Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, to continue his training in the field of military communications.

Contributors to This Number

J. Gordon Eaker (Ph. D., University of Iowa), professor of English literature and language and acting head of the department, came to the College in 1932. He is a member of Phi Beta Kappa and of the Modern Language Association of America; author of a monograph on Walter Pater, and contributor to philological and educational journals.

E. Louise Gibson (A.M., Columbia University) is associate professor of home economics, and has done graduate work at the University of Iowa and at George Peabody College. She came to the College in 1923 as assistant professor, and was promoted to her present position in 1928.

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 was promoted to his present position in 1939.

Etelka Holt-Vincent (M.S., University of Chicago) was appointed assistant professor of geography in 1930. She has taught at Pennsylvania State College and at State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Ky.

Ernest Mahan (Ph.D., University of Wisconsin) is head of the department of social sciences. He is a member of the American Historical Association and of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. He spent the year 1938-39 in research in a number of libraries throughout the United States on the early history of the Mormons.

Annie Marriott (A.M., Columbia University) is professor and chairman of the department of home economics and director of the College Cafeteria. She was appointed instructor of home economics in 1914, associate professor in 1930, professor in 1932, and was promoted to her present position in 1941.

J. R. Pelsma (Ph. M., University of Chicago; M.D., American College of Medicine and Surgery) has been head of the department of speech and coach of forensics since 1920.

Walter Pennington (Ph. D., Northwestern) is assistant professor of English. His interests in medieval legends stems from his graduate days at Northwestern. He has contributed articles to *Modern Language Notes* and the *Philological Quarterly* on these themes.