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THE TECHNE

Life Without Labor is a Crime, Labor Without Art
and the Amenities of Life is Brutality. — Ruskin.

Vol. XIV

March-April, 1931

No. 4

Some poetic mind called America the melting pot for all races; there have been some disappointments in melting adults, but none will deny that our public schools are the real melting pot, pouring out a new race. Under our schools, race, class, and religious hatreds fade away. From this real melting pot is the hope of that fine metal which will carry the advance of our national achievement and our national ideals.

HERBERT HOOVER

Published by
KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
Pittsburg, Kansas

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Pittsburg, Kansas

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No. 4

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

The *Techne* is sent free to alumni, teachers, school officials, libraries, and, on request, to any person interested in the progress of education.

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FULL-TIME HEALTH DEPARTMENTS FOR RURAL SERVICE

Earle G. Brown, M. D. Secretary of Kansas State Board of Health

Authoritative figures on public health show that one out of every four families in the country will have at least one serious illness in the course of a year, and that two per cent of our total population is at all times too sick for work. Rough calculations based on these figures, applied to the total annual income in the United States, indicate a direct monetary expense of something like \$2,000,000,000 a year for sickness. Distributing this amount evenly among the 27,000,000 families of the country, illness costs the average family the equivalent of \$80.00 a year through the loss of wages, salaries, cost of necessary medical care, and the like. In addition to this enormous loss, the total capital value of lives prematurely lost has been estimated at over \$6,000,000,000 annually.

Aside from the humanitarian aspects, these burdens weigh heavily on communities and individuals. There is encouragement in the fact, however, that medical and health authorities agree that something may be done about it. Much of the tremendous economic loss resulting from injuries, sickness, and death is preventable. Perhaps the major need today is to bring home to the public at large a knowledge of the benefits to be obtained through a promotion of public health education.

Efforts to furnish health protection to the citizens of the rural sections date from the early days of the Republic. Massachusetts as early as 1797 established a system of local boards of health. Connecticut followed in 1805. The movement made little headway prior to the Civil War, for up to that time only seven states had provided for the organization of local boards of health. After 1865, the movement began to make headway, and by the end of the nineteenth century practically all states had made some provision for health service in rural districts.

In New England and in the northern and northwestern states. in general, local government was based upon the town or township as a unit, and the administration of health service was confined to these units. In the southern and southwestern states, where the unit of government was the county, county boards of health were provided for or the county governing board was authorized to perform the functions of the board of health and to employ a health officer.

Prior to about 1910, the function performed by these county, town or village health officers was limited in amount and character. Though boards of health were given very broad powers, in practice they concerned themselves usually only with the control of communicable diseases and the abatement of nuisances. Routine control of communicable diseases was left largely in the hands of the private physicians, and only in the case of smallpox or of serious outbreaks of other diseases was the health officer expected to take action.

With the beginning of the present century there came a sudden and great extension in the conception of what constitutes the proper function of a health department. In the cities where well organized health departments were already in existence, it proved comparatively easy to add new personnel and to devise new methods capable of making the added knowledge of preventive medicine effective in the lives of the ordinary citizen. It was, of course, unreasonable to expect that the lay health officer, without training or experience, appointed frequently for political reasons and serving for a ridiculously small compensation, would be willing or able to inaugurate and carry on measures for the prevention of tuberculosis, for the reduction of infant mortality, for the promotion of hygiene of mothers, or, in fact, to do any of the work which constitutes the great bulk of present-day health service. The practicing physician, giving a small part of his time to health work in return for a purely nominal compensation and without especial interest or training in public health work, was in but a little better case than his lay colleagues. The result has been that the part-time county or city health officers still in office have for the most part continued to carry on the routine duties with which they were charged years ago, and in the districts over which they preside the real work of public health, as it is understood today, is either neglected entirely or is carried on by some agency quite separate from the board of health and the health officer.

Various means have been tried to make available to the citizens of rural districts the type of health service which is demanded and received by the urban population as a matter of course. Voluntary, and in some cases, official organizations have thought the problems might be solved by the simple expedient of providing a sufficient number of public health nurses and putting them to work in rural districts. In spite of the energy, intelligence, and devotion of many of these public health nurses and of the great volume of service which they have rendered to individual cases, it has proved impossible up to this time to furnish a well rounded and effective program of health service to rural districts through the efforts of nurses alone.

In certain states an effort has been made by the state health organization to furnish modern health service to the rural population. Although this work has been prosecuted energetically and intelligently in many states and considerable sums of money have been spent in carrying it on, results have, in general, been disappointing and have led to the conclusion that this method of work cannot be expected to furnish a permanent or successful solution of the problem.

It appeared to many workers in the field that the need for rural health service could be met only by organizing rural health departments similar in all important respects to those found in the larger cities. It was believed that only an organization large enough to employ competent, technical personnel could establish and carry on an effective, well-rounded and economical program of work. As early as

1911 an officer of the public health service, called upon to outline a program for the control of typhoid fever in Yakima County, Washington, concluded, after a careful investigation of local conditions, that the situation could successfully be met only by the organization of a county health department with sufficient funds, personnel, and authority to carry on an effective program of general public health activity of which the control of typhoid fever would be an important part. As a result, there was organized the first full-time county health department. About the same time experience in attempting to control hookworm disease in the southern states under the auspices of the Rockefeller Foundation, convinced those in charge of the work that effective control of hookworm disease could be accomplished in any rural area only by organizing for that area a department of health under competent technical direction, with a permanent staff and a comprehensive program of sanitary improvement. Simultaneously in several southern states the attempt was made to transform existing county boards of health into county departments of health, to provide health officers with some training and experience in health work, who would not be practitioners of medicine and who would be responsible for the development in each county of a county-wide service of which the control of hookworm disease would be an important, but by no means, the sole activity.

In spite of unfavorable economic conditions, these county departments of health soon demonstrated their inherent vitality and so convinced the citizens of the county in which they were established of the usefulness and desirability of their services that they have, with but few exceptions, developed a constantly expanding program of activities. The movement, confined in its beginning to the southern states, has spread rapidly to northern and western states until, at the present time, more than 500 county departments of health with whole-time health officers have been organized, and nearly twenty-five per cent of the rural population of the United States is now enjoying their service.

In the development of rural departments of health, it seems advisable for many reasons that the area to be served represent some existing unit of government. The county approximates most nearly to the theoretical needs of the situation and has in practice proved to be in most cases a satisfactory unit of health administration. Occasionally, counties have too small a population to justify the organization of a county health department and under such conditions may merge with an adjoining county. This has already been accomplished in some states and appears to be the only possible solution for the small county.

The function of the full-time health department is the safeguarding of the health of the community in every possible way. These duties include epidemiological investigations of actual cases of diseases, the establishment of the necessary restrictive measures, the blocking of the avenues of transmission of disease, the building of general resistance to infection, and the education of the public in matters of personal and community hygiene.

In popular opinion, the duties of the department of health in connection with communicable diseases are of outstanding importance and rightly so. Communicable disease is comparable with fire. It usually starts through carelessness on the part of some individual. It spreads among susceptible contacts as fire spreads into combustible material. It rages more or less violently until the susceptible material has been exhausted.

The control of fires is of such urgent importance that for the time it supersedes all other matters. In every city of any size in this country there is maintained on duty twenty-four hours of the day an organization equipped and responsible for subduing fires. The men in these organizations have not completed their tasks until all danger has subsided. Organizations for the control of fire have other duties than those outlined. It is universally recognized that prevention is the ideal toward which we should strive. Thus, men are constantly engaged in devising and putting into effect, measures designed to eliminate fire hazards. Part of such work is related to construction, and to the provision of equipment to extinguish fires at their outbreak and to facilitate the escape of the endangered individuals. Part of the work is educational, designed to develop in the public the practice of fire preventing habits. Because all of these measures are of such obvious material benefit, no one ever seriously questions the expediency of expending public funds for such purposes. No one city would consider abolishing or curtailing its fire protective organization merely because there has been no generalized conflagration.

The same arguments which support the expediency of maintaining whole-time fire departments are applicable in an even greater degree to the maintenance of whole-time departments of health. The material consumed in the conflagration of communicable disease is of infinitely greater value than that consumed by the most disastrous of fires. Human lives, human health, human happiness are at stake. The world can at least rebuild and thus preserve a copy of its most valued buildings. It is not possible to replace in any similar manner lost population. Such are the potentialities of human lives that such losses can be considered in no other light than irreparable.

Under these conditions, therefore, it should be obvious that an organization to prevent and control communicable diseases is of fundamental importance to any community. Unfortunately, however, we do not value life and health in anything approaching the degree to which we profess to do so. We place infinite values upon the lives of those who are near us. These values decrease in geometrical ratio to the distance of blood relationship and friendship.

Thus far, the relation of the whole-time health department to communicable disease control has been stressed. There are, however, non-communicable diseases and conditions which properly are the responsibility of health departments and which are of vital importance to the health, happiness, and economic development of a community.

Statistics for the past two decades have shown an increase in the death rates due to heart disease, Bright's disease, diabetes, and cancer. The increasing domestic use of natural or artificial gas has created a problem of great public health importance. New inventions in many cases imply new health hazards. Perhaps the greatest single development which has most complicated our health problem has been that of increased facilities for travel. During the past decade, good roads, automobiles, bus lines, improved railways, and the aeroplane have served to change our population from a reasonably stationary one to a migratory one. Truly, the entire nation is on the move. This fact, therefore, makes the health problem more complex. It is a difficult enough problem to locate and control the activities of typhoid carriers in a limited population, but it is far more difficult when such a carrier may be flitting about an entire state or even over the entire country.

In counties with an unorganized health department, the inhabitants are obliged to walk by faith and not by sight. They have no reason to feel any assurance whatsoever in regard to the milk supplies, butter, cottage cheese, and buttermilk which form so important a part of their daily diet. In public eating places, they have no reason to feel assurance in regard to the sanitary conditions under which food is prepared and served, in regard to the health of those who handle it. Municipalities within such areas are not as secure as they may deem themselves to be. As a matter of fact, legal boundaries have no significance in health problems or in the battle against disease. For practical purposes, entire counties and, in certain instances, entire states have become a single community.

In order to present the benefits resulting to a community from the maintenance of a whole-time county health department, it is pertinent to summarize the work which representative county health departments conduct. To illustrate, extracts are presented from the reports of the Shawnee and Lyon County health departments for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1930:

	Shawnee	Lyon
Educational:		
Health addresses	6	36
Attendance	239	2,033
Bulletins distributed	27,925	3,947
Newspaper articles	511	169
Circular letters	6,890	14,293
Sanitary Inspections	605	372
Acute communicable disease control:		
Visits to cases, carriers, contacts	819	909
Cases or carriers quarantined	464	409
Immunization:		
Typhoid	845	522
Smallpox	1,147	765
Diphtheria	830	3,330

Infant and Preschool Hygiene:

Babies and children examined	185	590
Office consultations	16	291
Group conferences with mothers	66	24
Home visits	380	92

School Hygiene:

Children examined	3,044	6,811
Found defective	1,179	2,097
Total defects found	1,379	3,246
Consultations with parents	275	484
Home visits	998	199
Talks to classes	993	313
Exclusions for communicable disease	340	6

It will be evident from a cursory consideration of these reports that county health departments are actively engaged in combating actual outbreaks of disease, blocking the avenues through which infection spreads, attempting through the correction of remedial defects in the young to combat the chronic diseases which will threaten them later in life, developing community defences against disease, and educating the public in matters of personal and community hygiene.

The chief objection to the operation of a full-time health department lies, not in the principle involved, but rather in the cost of the work. However, these costs are remarkably low when the nature and the volume of the work are considered. The average per capita cost of operating full-time health departments in Kansas varies from a few cents to twenty-five or thirty cents, depending, of course, upon the population.

Success in the establishment and maintenance of any system of health administration depends, in a large measure, on the securing of reasonable freedom from interference by local partisan and political influences. As a unit of government, the health department must remain under the absolute control of the people it serves.

Finally, efficiency in any health service may be guaranteed only by the intelligent support and interest of the people. It is to be expected that the local health department, when it is in a position to render satisfactory and effective service, will be able to demand and receive the support and protection of intelligent public opinion.

THE POLITICAL THEORY OF THE UTILITARIANS

(Mary Elizabeth Cochran, Ph. D., Professor of History and Social Sciences)

For the purpose of this study, the word Utilitarian is applied to Jeremy Bentham and the Mills, father and son. These adhered to the philosophy that the standard for judgement should be "the greatest good to the greatest number." In spite of the small number of leaders who advocated this philosophy, it was one of the most potent forces in Europe and America for a considerable period of time.¹ If undue emphasis seems to be placed on the theories of the Mills, it is not because they are more important but because they, especially the elder, are exponents of Bentham's views and his ideas find expression through them.

The Benthamites advocated reforms, using their measuring rod of "the greatest good to the greatest number." Conservatism had no attraction for them. They justified the abandonment of principles long in practice and the introduction of entirely new ones.² This was rather a shock to the staid England of that time. Bentham encouraged social reform by his analyses, and as this spirit gathered momentum and manifested itself in a series of reforms, we may give some measure of credit to this school of philosophers. The development of these ideas led to gradual social progress in Great Britain. It may be said that today in most countries the general good of the people is supposed to be considered a test in the matters of legislation changes. For example, the advocates of the Mellon Tax Plan of income tax adjustment urged the general improvement of economic conditions of the whole country as their purpose rather than acknowledge that the interest of the very wealthy is the inciting factor.

Government was considered by the Utilitarians to be a necessary evil because man by nature sought his own good regardless of the good of others unless some restraint was placed upon him. The necessity of labor to obtain means of sustenance and of the greater part of our pleasures was said to be the factor which produced the need for government. If labor were not necessary, there would be no source of injury or dispute among men and no man would acquire authority over another.³ But possessing a quantity of objects enables a man to gain power over others. A union of men is formed to protect the individuals and a government has come into being. This association undertakes to prevent any man from getting an undue share and to offer an allurement for the production of desirable goods by insuring to every man the greatest possible quantity of the product of his labor.

Any government must be adjusted to the capacities and qualities of the society of which it is a part if it is to be a success. According to J. S. Mill this implies three conditions: 1. The people concerned must be willing to accept the government or at least must impose no great obstacle to it. 2. They must be willing to do what is necessary to keep it standing. 3. They must be able and willing to do the things necessary for it to fulfill its purposes. If any one of these conditions is not met,

the government as established is not suitable to that society and will not endure.

The Utilitarians were opposed to the "natural rights" philosophy. Bentham called it "simple nonsense".⁴ The rights which a man has are given to him by law. Therefore his theory of the rights of man is the theory of utility. The social contract theory was likewise rejected as unsound,—why should there have been a contract? Was not the good of mankind as a whole being considered? Why not get down to basic principles and acknowledge that it is the general good of mankind which is the primary consideration?

If there were no government, man would be exposed to the depredations of every other man. The most powerful man would be able, by eternal vigilance, to get the greatest amount of pleasure and the least amount of pain for himself. When the community confers power it is seeking this very proportion for itself.⁵ Thus the establishment of government comes about for the sake of the public good. The business of government is to increase to the utmost the pleasure and to diminish to the utmost the pain which is derived from our fellow men.⁶ Bad governments increase the rights of the few and diminish those of the many and are thus directly contrary to the purposes of government. This does not mean that equalities of rights exclude inequalities of fortunes.⁷ Many times men do not act in conformity with their own interest in setting up certain kinds of government or in allowing certain developments. This may be due either to a mistake as to their interest or to their being too inactive to regard it.⁸ These account for the evils of government. Were it not for the fact that men feel that there are greater benefits, greater securities to be gained from government than without it, there would be none set up. This refers not only to our modern highly organized governments but to the primitive forms, families, clans, etc., as well.

After a man decides to set up a government, the next question is, What form should that government assume? Here again, man must consider his interests. If a monarchy is to be set up, the desires of one man will be set over against the mass. Bentham had no love for kings and had an unbounded dislike for George III. If there should be an aristocracy, there would be the desires of the few over against the many. Bentham was opposed to the hereditary character of the House of Lords and wished to sweep it out of existence. An hereditary aristocracy is deprived of the strongest motives to labor. Mill believes that, "Intellectual powers are the offspring of labor." This would mean that an aristocracy would be marked by a noticeable lack of ability. In a pure democracy each would be working for his own interest regardless of others and there would be the terrible tyranny of the majority. Then in addition to the unwieldy nature of a real democracy, the community as a mass is ill adapted to the business of government, and attention to the routine of government would mean a neglect of necessary

labor.⁹ This seems to be a dark view of the case, and many are led to believe that a monarchy is the best government for the great body of men, since it is easier to satisfy the desire of one and still have enough for the people at large. Others advocate a combination of the three simple forms, letting them act as a check on each other. The government of Great Britain is cited as an example. The objection is made that if the government were so balanced, each of the three being equal, a combination of two against the third would render it impotent and the system would be destroyed. The theory is pronounced visionary by the elder Mill. He says it must be based on the supposition (1) that England is an example of three-fold balance and (2) that the English government is one of exceptional excellence and (3) that its excellence proceeds from its three-fold nature. Since these cannot be proved, he denounces the theory as a general delusion.¹⁰

The way out of this dilemma is suggested by the representative theory of government. Even this has its dangers. The representative once chosen may become a seeker of his own happiness rather than of that of the community. It must be certain that the electors' power of checking the representative is a real power and that he has an identity of interest with the community.¹¹ All advantages of such a system are lost if these points are not met and evils peculiar to the system, in addition, will arise. The representatives must realize that they are held responsible. Pain is a stronger instrument of obedience than pleasure, and the pain of the loss of position and the disapproval of the constituency should be apparent.¹² John Stuart Mill advanced the argument that some form of representative government was necessary to secure general patriotism: "Let a person have nothing to do for his country and he will not care for it."¹³ Representative government also encourages intellectual excellence by active effort.

The representative system naturally has its limitations and its dangers. There are two especially worthy of note: (1) general ignorance and incapacity in the governing body; (2) controlling body under the influence of interests not identical with the general welfare of the community.¹⁴ The first danger is one common to all forms of government, unless there is a body whose profession is government, as in a bureaucracy. But a bureaucracy is very likely to be killed by routine. There is no reason why representative government should not avail itself of those who are trained and skillful. It must be, of course, an intelligent democracy to choose these men consistently. In regard to the second danger the responsibility would lie rather largely with the electorate for choosing men whose interests are those of the community. The representative should represent all,—not merely a majority.

The function of government in any society may be reduced to two main heads—permanence and progress; preservation of all the good inheritances of society and additions to them.¹⁵ The best government for any group would be the one which meets these needs the best. Hence it would be folly to urge the same form of government on all

peoples, no matter what the stage of development may be that they have reached. Likewise there may be times when temporary changes are desirable. In that case the cause of good government is best served by adopting some other form.

One of the chief things expected of government is the protection of rights. Men are susceptible of happiness only as their rights are protected.¹⁶ In attaining rights four factors need to be considered and adjusted: (1) Security, (2) Subsistence, (3) Abundance, and (4) Equality.¹⁷ The adjustment of these factors is the business of the legislature. But the legislation must have popular sanction to be truly effective. General dissatisfaction means ultimate rebellion. It is therefore necessary that the political leaders be not too far in advance of the populace. The reasons for legislation should be given and motives should be clearly understood.¹⁸

The Utilitarians were quite active in dealing with problems of their time and they are perhaps as well remembered for their influence for reform as for any other thing. Bentham had three cardinal principles in regard to elections and parliamentary reform: (1) universal manhood suffrage; (2) annual parliaments; (3) vote by ballot.¹⁹ John Stuart Mill agreed on the first point with the proviso of suffrage for women. He said that they needed it as a protection. He also was very insistent on the educational qualification. James Mill was willing to have a slight property qualification and proposed the age of 40 as a proper voting age because a man of that age was interested not only in himself but in the younger men, his sons, etc. Plurality of votes was also advocated, giving the educated man more weight in the government because of his superior training. An extra vote on account of property was not condemned.²⁰ If the suffrage is regarded as a trust rather than as a right, greater intelligence in its exercise will be more likely.

Bentham thought that annual parliaments would give greater security against self-interest and lethargy on the part of the members. The representative would also be more closely in touch with his constituents.²¹ John Stuart Mill does not agree.²² He argues that while a member should not have so long a tenure that he will forget his responsibility, he should be able to look forward to a long enough term to enable him to be judged by his course of action rather than by a single act. It is hard by any rigid rule to fix the boundary line between the two principles. As is usually the case, it would depend on conditions within the country. If democracy should be weak, more frequent elections would be necessary than if it were strong and assisted by a great amount of publicity. In the former case, three years would be almost too long a term to maintain a close community contact and in the latter five years would be almost necessary to prevent a timid subserviency. It is interesting to note the difference between Mill and Bentham on this point. Mill accounts for it thus: "The change which has taken place in English politics as to all these features explains why annual parliaments, which forty years ago stood prominently in front of the creed

of the more advanced reformers, are so little cared for and so seldom heard of at present."

The third article in Bentham's program was the vote by ballot. He considered it a safeguard against intimidation and bribery,—a guarantee of electoral purity. This stand was generally accepted by the Utilitarians, though opposed by J. S. Mill.²³ He grants that there are cases where secrecy is justifiable and even imperative, but he contends that such cases are the exception in political affairs. He fears that the spirit of the vote by ballot may be that the vote is given as a right to the voter for himself, rather than as a trust for the public. He points to the possible pernicious results which might come from this view. The voter should consider the good of the public and not his private interest. Mill believes that coercion by landlords, employers, and customers had disappeared as a factor in elections. He fears that a voter will not give his vote as honestly in secret as he will in public.

Time has decided against Mill and for Bentham in regard to the ballot. But in the matter of duration of Parliament Mill seems to have had the better of the argument. Suffrage has been extended not only to all men but also to women, as Mill urged.

In the matter of the branches necessary to carry on the government, we have a diversity of opinion.²⁴ Bentham was opposed to a monarch as executive and thought that the House of Lords was unnecessary and evil. James Mill thought that the representative assembly did not meet the needs for executive and judicial functions. He thought that monarchy was a fine executive arrangement and upheld the second chamber as very desirable in that it was more deliberative than the popular branch. The younger Mill places definite responsibility as the first requirement of the executive department. The "Board System" is particularly bad from this point of view. But he clearly states that, "A most important principle of good government in a popular constitution is that no executive functionaries should be appointed by popular elections; neither by the vote of the people themselves, nor by those of their representatives." The example of the mediocre men selected for the presidency of the United States is cited as a warning. The point that the political effect of public questions too often obscures the merits of the question is well taken. He is not opposed to the monarch, but his discussion takes for granted the ministerial system of England. He points out the necessity of professional advisers that the work may be done efficiently. He does not consider the second chamber so highly as his father. It is of secondary importance whether parliament is bi-cameral or uni-cameral. There is an ingenious speculation as to the composition of the Second Chamber if the historical House of Lords were out of the way. There is a hint in regard to lessening of power which seems to foreshadow the House of Lords reform of 1911. He bases his main reliance on the Commons.

The court system is generally treated as a part of the executive. Bentham felt that in his time there was great need for reform of the

courts. His criticism of the mode of administration of justice was scathing. He had scant respect for the judges of his day. In support of the justice of his criticism may be offered the fact that practically all the great legal reforms advocated have been adopted.²⁵ He particularly insisted on the exclusion of party motives in the appointment of judges,—merit and proper training should be the deciding factors. He and James Mill²⁶ thought that there is greater security to the community in a single judge with sole responsibility. Bentham thought that judges should not be chosen by popular election but that the people of the district should have the power to remove them after sufficient experience. But J. S. Mill felt that the separation of judges from politics was so essential that he was opposed to the recall.²⁷ He thought that popular participation in the administration of justice should be confined to jury service.

Other reforms were advocated by both men. Bentham advocated the equalization of electoral districts. He thought that that was necessary to prevent bribery, corruption and misrepresentation. He was always a champion of the freedom of the press as being one of the greatest necessities of a democracy.

The idea of liberty was one of the underlying forces of the whole Utilitarian philosophy. J. S. Mill gave it the most extended treatment. Only a few of the outstanding points will be mentioned. Public opinion is sometimes as much of a curb to liberty as law itself. In England law is lighter while the yoke of public opinion is heavier than in most European countries. "The sole end for which mankind are warranted, individually or collectively, in interfering with liberty of action of any of their number, is self protection," and, "The only part of the conduct of any one for which he is amenable to society, is that which concerns others,"²⁸ Mill concludes as to the admissible restrictions on liberty. It seems to me that that sums up the idea of liberty. There are at least three fields in which human beings should enjoy liberty, inasmuch as in these fields the concern of the individual is greater than that of society: (1) liberty of thought and feeling, absolute freedom of opinion and sentiment on all subjects, practical or speculative, scientific, moral, or theological; (2) liberty of tastes and pursuits; (3) liberty of combination so long as it does not involve harm to others. Political, civil, and religious liberty are neatly included in this classification. Mill particularly calls attention to the losses which society at large suffers from suppression of the liberty of ideas and discussion.

The problem of crime and the treatment of criminals arrested the attention of this group of thinkers. Bentham proposed reforms on a very extensive scale. His plan was rejected by the government but it had far-reaching results. The reforms of prisons and the establishment of reformatories and industrial schools have proceeded on the principles formulated by him.²⁹ "The ability of the punishment to

secure the public welfare" was the only test to be accepted. The power of pardoning criminals and diminishing punishment is attacked. The enforcement of punishment should not depend on the will of the individual administrator. The elder Mill³⁰ holds that two things are necessary in dealing with crime: (1) Injury should be repaired if at all possible and (2) future occurrence should be prevented. Certainty and speediness of punishment are two excellent deterrents. Whenever possible the enjoyment which the criminal anticipated would be his should be prevented, for "no man would commit a crime which he was sure he would not profit by." Above all things the good of society as a whole is the highest consideration.

Education was a part of Bentham's plan for dealing with criminals. This was to assume the form primarily of industrial training but was also to include fundamentals of religious and intellectual instruction, that the individual might be not only a skillful workman but that he might become a skillful member of the community through a real and stable reformation. But his interest in education was not confined to the criminal alone. He was the first to advocate a system of education for pauper children. Bentham and the Mills are consistent in their championship of general education—on it rests the stability and effectiveness of representative government. The elder Mill had a keen practical interest in education and made an attempt to establish a school on the principles laid down by Bentham, education according to conditions of life, i. e., pauper, middle rank, wealthy, all to have training adapted to their needs. He conceived that the chief aim of education is rendering the individual "an instrument of happiness, first to himself and next to other beings." He ascribed an enormous power to education. His son accepted the earlier theories and added two of his own which are especially worthy of note: (1) The state should enforce universal education; (2) Suffrage should depend on educational qualifications. If the first were enforced, the second would follow without question. He, however, places the responsibility of providing an education squarely upon the parent.³¹

In conclusion we may say that most of the theories advocated by these three men are commonly accepted today. But at that time they were a bit of an innovation. It should be noted that some of these theories are now accepted as theories but the practical application of them varies widely. It would be safe to say that there are few, if any, places in the world where the broad conception of liberty is practiced. These ideas of the English Utilitarians are worth studying not only in their setting of the nineteenth century but as rules of practice in our own day.

¹ Dunning, *Political Theories*, III, pp. 269 ff.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 212 f.

³ Mill, James, *Essay on Government*, pp. 4 f.

⁴ Davidson, *Political Thought from Bentham to J. S. Mill*, p. 72.

⁵ Mill, *Essay on Government*, p. 60.

⁶ Mill, *Essay on Government*, p. 4.

- ⁷ Mill, *Essay on Jurisprudence*, p. 6.
- ⁸ Mill, *Fragments on McIntosh*, p. 272.
- ⁹ Mill, *Essay on Government*, pp. 6 ff.
- ¹⁰ Mill, *Essay on Government*, pp. 13-16.
- ¹¹ Mill, *Essay on Government*, p. 16 f. J. S. Mill, *Representative Government*, p. 182, calls attention to the fact that a nation may not choose its form of government, but this is determined by social circumstances. This theory will be taken up later.
- ¹² *Ibid.*, p. 11. All three of these Utilitarians favored representative government.
- ¹³ *Representative Government*, Chap. iii, p. 204.
- ¹⁴ Mill, *Rep. Gov't*, Chap. vi. p. 243 f; the following exposition is based on his reasoning.
- ¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 187.
- ¹⁶ Mill, *Essay on Jurisprudence*, p. 3.
- ¹⁷ Davidson, *op. cit.*, p. 81.
- ¹⁸ Davidson, *op. cit.*, p. 82.
- ¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 75 f. He modified the last by saying that a voter should be able to read.
- ²⁰ J. S. Mill, *Representative Government*, Chap. viii, p. 286.
- ²¹ Davidson, *op. cit.*, p. 75.
- ²² *Representative Government*, Chap. xi, p. 313 ff. Jas. Mill in the *Essay on Government*, p. 18 f., advocates a short term as a check but says shifting without reason is bad. He advocates re-election whenever possible if service has been good.
- ²³ *Representative Government*, Chap. x, 298 ff.
- ²⁴ Compare Davidson, *op. cit.*, pp. 77 ff., James Mill, *Essay on Gov't.*, pp. 27-32, and J. S. Mill, *Rep. Gov't.*, Chaps. xiii and xiv.
- ²⁵ Davidson, *op. cit.*, p. 93.
- ²⁶ *Essay on Jurisprudence*.
- ²⁷ *Essay on Representative Government*, 339 ff.
- ²⁸ Mill, *Essay on Liberty*, pp. 72 f.
- ²⁹ Davidson, *op. cit.*, p. 111; see also 98 ff.
- ³⁰ *Essay on Jurisprudence*, pp. 17 ff.
- ³¹ *Essay on Liberty*, p. 160, ff.

SELECTING TEACHERS FOR THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

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The best way to find good teachers is to be on the watch for them every day of the year. Some will be found in normal schools or universities, others may be married or widowed and living in the community. One cannot get the best teachers by waiting until a vacancy is forced upon one. By keeping a careful personal record of all applicants and all prospects during the year, one has constantly a reserve of good teachers.

In selecting teachers for the rural high school, one should make a study of essential qualities governing such a selection. Most authorities agree that good teachers must have experience, even though they be natural born teachers. They must in like manner have had training in the particular subjects they are expected to teach.

With these two important essentials we must also have character and personality, two rather intangible elements very desirable in a teacher, but hard to measure either from personal or written applications. One author explains personality as including health, sympathy, honesty, sense of humor, poise, firmness, tact, appearance, voice, faith in human nature, personal influence, and religion; he then explains that man is by nature religious and that the man who is not religious is only half man. What we must have is positive personalities, not negative or neutral ones.

The man responsible for the selection of teachers in the future will have to become a student of psychology and, in a measure at least, realize that there are three types of minds to be considered. (1) The abstract-minded person finds his greatest satisfaction in dealing with abstractions and is often too impractical for the classroom. He knows his subject matter, but usually does not know how to teach, discipline, or manage his pupils. (2) The concrete-minded person is more successful but fails at times to make the right adjustments to pupils. (3) The socially-minded teacher likes folks, likes her children individually and collectively, likes their fathers and mothers, and is generally interested in the welfare of her pupils, appreciates their whims, weaknesses and complexities as well as their virtues. She is therefore ideal. She will give individual instruction willingly and without suggestion from her superiors. She will wholeheartedly and naturally take part in student activities through the joy of doing.

The precautions to take in hiring teachers are, to make no political appointments, to avoid the teacher who has had short periods of service in previous locations, and to reject the teacher of a questionable character or reputation. Study the individual making the recommendation or criticism and if possible find out his motive and draw rational conclusions from your own knowledge of human nature.

The written application is probably the most common form for applying, and it is the most unsatisfactory. More than fifty per cent

of written applications are poorly written, having misspelled words and showing bad taste in addressing the letter merely to the superintendent of schools without giving his name. Pictures with applications offer little help in selecting teachers, as one can learn very little about the ability or character of a person by the study of his photograph.

The letter of recommendation that is always presented has a very questionable value. Some of the best authorities are of the opinion that fifty per cent of them are of no value whatever. A letter of recommendation from a minister is of little value, as ministers usually know nothing about the applicant's ability to teach and also usually know only the better side of a person. College recommendations are also of little value for the same reasons. Grades made in colleges are of no significance when used in measuring prospective teachers as to their personal fitness and willingness to work and co-operate.

The best recommendations come from the applicant's former superintendents, but many of these are of no value, as there are few teachers of whom some good cannot be spoken. However, length of service in former locations should be of considerable value. Letters of recommendation from personal friends of the superintendent choosing teachers have considerable weight and should be used whenever possible.

The personal application is thought by most administrators to be highly desirable, but there are a number of teaching qualities which cannot be determined even by its aid. The personal interview will merely tell the administrator something about the appearance and personality and possibly something of the health of the applicant. There is considerable satisfaction, however, in seeing an applicant instead of relying on his picture.

Some superintendents prefer to hire teachers after a personal visitation to the class-room of the applicant. This method has its advantages, but it is not likely that all positions could be filled in this way, because most superintendents would not have the time or the money to make many visits.

Selecting teachers through a teachers' agency is a very poor practice. The agency is an institution organized for profit and too often is not in a position to discriminate in favor of the good teacher. The picture and recommendations of a poor client appear equally as good as those of the good client. He is, therefore, recommended by the agency on the same basis, and the selection of a teacher becomes a lottery.

It has long been recognized that the school that has good teachers needs little more and that the school without good teachers will be little bettered by the addition of anything else. The problem of securing and holding good teachers is therefore more important than those involved in the courses of study. The teacher and a good text-

book constitute ninety per cent of a course of study. If we are to produce desirable changes in pupils, we must by all means have the best possible producers.

Much has been said about important factors in high school education. Curriculum, organization, equipment—important as they are—count for little or nothing, except as they are vitalized by the living personality of the teacher. It is better to sacrifice at any other point than to accept a mediocre or a poor teacher. This is especially true during the high school age, for at that time the teacher has more personal influence upon his pupils than at any other period. The superintendent is therefore justified in spending whatever time and money are necessary for him to inform himself fully as to the qualifications of all applicants.

THE TREND

Connecticut Schools, the official publication of the Connecticut State Board of Education, has asked the teachers of that state to join with the teachers of Rhode Island in celebrating the one hundred twenty-fifth anniversary of the birth of Henry Barnard, January 24, 1936. Henry Barnard takes rank with Horace Mann in giving impetus and direction to the present American school system.

Under the direction of Dr. Harold Rugg, Teachers College, Columbia University, a series of reading books for children of the elementary school has been prepared. In his announcement to "Co-operating Schools," Dr. Rugg states:—"After several years of careful research and experimentation my associates and I are ready to launch our new program of *Little Reading Books* for the elementary schools . . . These books have been prepared to fill imperative needs . . . little unit reading books for the new unit-of-work curriculum . . . childhood experience dramatized . . . a moving history of race experience."

"The Status of Rural Education" and "The Textbook in American Education," probably the last word in their fields to date, constitute the *Twentieth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.

There seems to be a growing tendency among school administrators to require each member of their faculty to become a member of the State Teachers' Association and of the National Education Association as a condition of employment. It is being recognized more and more that teachers cannot keep in touch with developing educational thought and practice unless identified with the associations disseminating this knowledge.

The tendency of some communities to lower the wages of their teachers reminds one of the man "who bit off his nose to spite his face." The following statement by the officers of the National Education Association should cause such communities to pause before crippling themselves by such backward steps:-

"The officers of the National Education Association, speaking for the Association's 220,000 members and in the name of the teaching profession of America, reaffirm the Association's historic belief in the importance of education in American life. We regret and condemn shortsighted proposals, now current in certain communities, to cripple needlessly the effectiveness of the schools by indiscriminating and drastic reductions in the salary schedules of teachers. We condemn these proposals because they involve a grave injustice to the schools and the teaching profession, because they attack American

ideals and wellbeing at their source, and because they would rob the children of the nation of their just educational rights.

"Common justice demands that income reductions should not be exacted from those least able to bear the loss. Teaching has always been an underpaid profession. Increase in teachers' salaries have always been accompanied by higher standards of preparation, requiring large investments of time and money in professional education. The teacher today is paid only seventy per cent as much as the average gainfully occupied person. The quality of teaching largely determines the future of childhood. Teaching is already an economic disadvantage; to increase that disadvantage is to strike the schools at their most vulnerable point and to weaken the one institution which can contribute most to the recovery of prosperity.

"The Welfare and Stability of the nation depends on a continuous-ly effective educational system. To cripple the schools, even for a year or two, means an irreparable loss in the national health, stability, culture, leadership, and citizenship. We must not forget the lessons of the World War—the utter helplessness of the illiterate and untrained man to cooperate effectively with others, the tragic wastefulness of poor schools or no schools at all. As citizens and educators we re-direct the attention of this country to these lessons. Temporary difficulties do not excuse the working of permanent harm.

"Every child born in America has a right to an adequate education—a right guaranteed by the state constitutions and implied by democratic government. The failure of our own generation is to face and solve the problem of economic depression and should strengthen our determination that the new generation shall be better fitted to cope with these and other problems of modern life. *We call upon the fathers and mothers of the nation to reaffirm the American faith in education and to resist firmly any attempt to handicap their children by driving their best teachers out of the profession.* The rising generation must not be forced to pay the price of the present generation's failures and blunders. Such a sacrifice of childhood's opportunity is utterly unnecessary. Given equitable and proper methods of taxation, this country is wealthy enough to give every child its American birth-right—a generous education under the direction of trained and competent teachers."

American high schools are varying their programs more than ever before in an endeavor to satisfy in an effective way the peculiar needs of every individual student, according to an announcement made by the United States Office of Education. Twenty-eight different methods by which high schools of the United States recognize and adapt their programs to special needs of individual students were reported to *School Life*, official organ of the Office, by Dr. Roy O. Billett, school administration specialist of the National Survey. "Both large and small schools use problem method, project curriculum, out-

of-school projects, special coaching of slow pupils, individualized instruction, and laboratory plan of instruction with about equal success," Dr. Billett points out. He stresses the fact that advisory programs, educational and vocational guidance through exploratory courses, opportunity rooms for slow pupils, scientific study of problem cases, psychological studies, and ability grouping are used in large schools with far greater frequency and reported success than in small schools.

Negro high school enrollment has increased 177.8 per cent during the decade, according to the findings of a statistical study announced by the Office of Education. In Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia steady progress is being made to overcome difficult educational conditions. Houston, Texas, is the only city reporting a public junior college for negroes, but there are seventeen land-grant institutions and teacher-training schools throughout the South. North Carolina College for Negroes, Durham, N. C., is the only college for negroes supported entirely at state expense.

Four advance chapters of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1928-30*, and two other new bulletins of the Office of Education are now available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. The publications with their authors are: "Educational Boards and Foundations," by Dr. Henry R. Evans; "Medical Education," by Willard C. Rappleye; "Art Education," by Royal Bailey Farnum; "Hygiene and Physical Education," by Marie M. Ready and Dr. J. F. Rogers; *Symposium On Home and Family Life in a Changing Civilization*, by John Cooper, Karl E. Leib, Arthur J. Todd, and William H. Lancelot; and the new *Record of Current Educational Publications*, Bulletin 1931, No. 3, a list of the best current articles in education selected by thirteen leading specialists.

Since the labor of preparing objective type examinations is almost as great as that of grading the essay type, Professor A.R. Lang's book, *Modern Methods in Written Examinations*, published by the Houghton Mifflin Company, provides the teacher with much excellent advice and numerous examples and suggestions for the preparation of his own examinations, where, for any reason, standardized ones are lacking or unsuitable. It includes a chapter on scoring and grading and one on administrative problems connected with testing.—*Educational Administration and Supervision*, Jan. 1931.

The most recent and in many regards the most interesting educational reform undertaken by a leading European country is the latest turn in the reorganization of the secondary school in France

which occurred on March 12, 1930, when the French Chamber of Deputies voted the principle of free public secondary education in France by a modest majority of six votes. The debate on the reform presented two large aspects: who should benefit by secondary education and what should be the methods, objectives, and curriculum. It is understood that free tuition means selection and competitive examinations in which the less capable among the children of the privileged will inevitably be surpassed by the gifted children coming from poor families. Monsieur Ducos, spokesman of the Committee of the Chamber, stated that secondary education is fundamentally designed to promote general culture. It does not prepare the students for any vocation. Its exclusive goal is the formation of the mind, as that of physical education is the formation of the body. France again determines to be a democracy fortified by an aristocracy of intellect. —*Educational Administration and Supervision*, Jan. 1931.

An unusual shortage of housing facilities for students exists in many of the nation's leading institutions of learning. Capital investments of the institutions, with special reference to dormitories for men and women students, were appraised in the survey made of the fifty-two land-grant colleges with the discovery that only 4.8 per cent of the colleges' total outlay of \$427,005,366 was invested in dormitories. In 44 of the institutions examined with a total enrollment of 136,000 students, the number living in dormitories was 21,000, or 15 per cent of the entire student body. Two of the colleges, the University of Nebraska and Colorado Agricultural College, are recorded as having no residence halls of any type. The need for the construction of additional dormitories for women students was particularly emphasized by the findings of the Office of Education. Out of the total students residing in dormitories at the colleges, 13,000 were men and 8,000 were women, indicating that more facilities were supplied for the housing of men students than for women students.