THE PRESENT STATUS OF SOCIOLOGY IN
TEXAS HIGH SCHOOLS

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THE PRESENT STATUS OF SOCIOLOGY IN
TEXAS HIGH SCHOOLS

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By

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

Society, as it becomes more complex and develops higher standards of individual and social well-being, is always requiring more of its schools. During recent years there has been a marked change in the philosophy of education, in the organization of curricula, in the development of techniques of teaching, and the content of the various courses of instruction in the secondary schools.

Educators insist that education is the great constructive agency of civilization. They point out that the unique opportunity and obligation of the school are to develop a body of citizens not only well disposed to cooperate in beneficent activity for the common good, but also intelligent in regard to the conditions, institutions, and customs which delimit and express their collective life. It is important, they urge, that the youth in our schools be brought to an adequate understanding of the Great Society in which they live. It is essential, they insist, that the young people in the classrooms of the nation should acquire effective knowledge of the critical problems and issues, which as citizens of a democratic commonwealth, they must face and in some way attempt to solve.¹

The following statement, subscribed to by the twelve eminent members

of the committee on curriculum-making of the National Society for the Study of Education, expresses the obligation of the school "to consider definitely the merits and deficiencies of American civilization."

They write:

It is of increasing moment that our educational agencies be organized for the task of bringing children to a progressive understanding of their responsibility for social progress and of the problems, practices, and institutions of social life. Throughout their school careers, pupils should be given opportunities to think about these problems and institutions, to develop attitudes of understanding and tolerance, and to perfect habits of right conduct and creative self-expression. Because other agencies—such as the typical American home, the press, the church, the platform—cannot exert an adequate educational influence for social improvement, it is imperative that the systematic curriculum of our schools shall consider definitely the problems of economic, political, social, and individual life. Only through frequent and definite practice in clear thinking and right feeling about these problems and issues can children grow in the power to meet them.\(^2\)

In view of the important functions attributed to our schools, it is significant that the subject of sociology has not achieved the position of other courses in the social science group in Texas high schools. Of the 1,298 schools properly classified as two-year or four-year high schools, only 74 have accredited courses in sociology.

It is the purpose of this study to classify the high schools in the State of Texas offering accredited courses in sociology, and to make an analysis and evaluation of the textbooks that are on the recommended list for use in the secondary schools.

The basal texts used largely determine the nature of the course in any high school subject. Texas has never adopted a textbook for the

course of sociology. It pursues the multiple-choice system and recommends six books for selection. The book selected by the individual school is bought directly from the publishing company, and then resold to the student or furnished him on the rental basis.

In this investigation an effort will be made to present an analysis and summary of the content of the six recommended books, to determine the objectives and to compile a list of them for the teaching of sociology in Texas, and to draw conclusions and to make suggestions for their use in the secondary schools. No attempt is made to give a scientific evaluation of the content of the texts or to determine their relative values.

No attempt will be made in this study to determine the teaching techniques that are being developed in this state at the present time in the field of sociology. This writer aims to call attention to the indifferent disposal that has been made of this subject in the curriculum in Texas.

No attempt will be made to reach a conclusion as to the reason why sociology is not taught in all the accredited high schools in Texas. Neither will an attempt be made to determine why a high school student cannot get credit for both sociology and economics in high schools of less than 500 enrollment.

The prosecution of such a study here presented implies certain points of view--specific assumptions--the need for it, and the value of its results.

It is assumed that the majority of the citizens in the State of Texas need a better understanding of the society in which they live.
and the problems that confront them.

It is postulated that the degree of social understanding now possessed by the rank and file of the citizens is insufficient, but it is implied that they could better themselves if they were given the opportunity.

It is further implied that the citizens of the State of Texas will never develop and exercise an adequate measure of socio-civic ability unless the beginnings are laid in school activities and curricula. It is assumed that one of the major aims of education is that of social efficiency.

According to Finney, "The aim of education is to furnish the young with the intellectual resources that will enable them to live like men in the midst of the institutions of a civilized society". ³

The materials used in this study were found in the library of the North Texas State Teachers College, with extension material from Southern Methodist University, extension material from the University of Texas library, the 1938-1939 Bulletins #380-397 of the State Department of Education, and files from the office of Mr. J. W. O'Banion, Director of Supervision, Austin, Texas.

CHAPTER II

SOCILOGY IN TEXAS HIGH SCHOOLS

Sociology is the youngest of the social sciences. It has developed from a frail, indefinite subject into a field of study which is not only concrete but also very useful. It has for its field of activity the whole realm of human affairs, especially as they pertain to the relation of individuals to institutions and of institutions one to another. . . . Sociology may be engaged in essentially from the theoretical standpoint; that is, with a view to gaining information and adding to the sum total of knowledge, or it may be pursued primarily with a view to alleviating human suffering and to enhancing human good.¹

The social studies, probably more than other subjects, have suffered from exaggerated statements of objectives. Some of their proponents have claimed that a study of them would do everything "from teaching one to think clearly, to the reform of our banking system". The alliterative connection between social problems and social studies has apparently raised in some persons the fond notion that a study of the latter will necessarily lead to the solution of the former. Teachers of social studies need to beware of those who expect the mere study of their subjects will effect large social reforms. Only reasonable statements, ones which conform to at least potential accomplishments,

¹T. R. Schutte, Teaching the Social Studies on the Secondary Levels, p. 82.
should be made, for it is certain that the present popularity of the social studies cannot last if the public builds up exaggerated notions of their efficacy.  

Many educators are of the opinion that the sociologist does what should be done in the various other departments of social science, such as history, philosophy, ethics, geography, and psychology.

Such rationalization leaves much ground for argument. The greatest justification, perhaps, for the designation of an area of knowledge as sociology is that other social sciences have neglected certain types of knowledge which properly should be in their fields. Such an assumption is not offered as a criticism of the workers in the other phases of social work. This writer seeks to imply that they must draw the line somewhere. Sociology does well to attempt the task of drawing together, evaluating, interpreting, and disseminating in a practical way the most vital findings and results of the other phases of social science. In addition, it has a further problem which is probably of equal, if not greater, importance; namely, that of studying social relations, giving attention to social matters largely neglected by the other social sciences. By so doing, it becomes one of the chief foundation stones upon which the others may build.

As far as the other social sciences are concerned, sociology occupies a position of most enviable value and importance. It is the life

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2E. B. Wesley, Teaching the Social Studies, p. 174.

3T. H. Schutte, Teaching the Social Studies on the Secondary Level, p. 81.

4Ibid.
blood or vitalizing force of much that has been revealed by the workers in other fields. It is true because sociology is all inclusive. It is a study of human relationships in group life, and includes data of all other subjects. It does not minimize the importance of other subject matter, but it is maintained that sociology is all inclusive since it includes all social phenomena. The sociologist does not contend nor even imply that sociology is more important than any other subject, for sociology is a subject of all human relationships and each of the others is but a phase of the whole. It is maintained that human relationships have become so complex that if we are to live together there must be more understanding of social phenomena, so that we can develop a systematic process of living harmoniously together.

Sociology deals with social phenomena which do not fall to the other social sciences. In one sense, it works with the sum total of the peripheral aspects of human relationships; in another sense, it deals with the central essence of such relationships. For a long period sociology was quite interwoven with ethics, social philosophy, and moral reforms. Its attention was centered upon the ills of society, and the normal functions and processes were quite uncharted. Within the last two or three decades, however, sociology has increased its scope, shifted its center of interest and objectified its methods.

Sociology was first introduced in two high schools, those of Hammond, Indiana, and Jacksonville, Illinois, in 1901, but little progress

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was made in introducing the subject into high schools until after the World War. From that time (1918) the course continued to be rapidly accepted, especially in the schools of the Middle and Far West, although a few courses were offered in schools in different sections all over the country.

In 1922 only 58,000 high school pupils, or 2.2%, were studying sociology. By 1928 the gain in number of schools accepting sociology was inconsequential, and by 1930, there had been no perceptible rise in the last two years. In 1930, an examination was made as to the reason why sociology was apparently static. It was found that the typical textbooks prior to 1930 gave liberal space to all the common ills of society. Poverty, crime, divorce, defectives, and unemployment shared the spotlight. Students confronted with such an array of maladjustments completed the course with the feeling that the whole world was in such a muddle that nothing could be done about it. The stressing of social disorders was doubtless unavoidable, but it was none the less unfortunate. The emphasis left much room for a morbid effect upon the minds of the young people. Young people feel intensely and such courses might well have made them imagine that they ought to be agitators, radicals, reformers, philanthropists, or "social workers". Such a course tended to fill their heads with queer "half-baked" ideas, and might even increase the danger of their failing to function normally in the fundamental relations and institutions of society. No amount of reform and agitation could compensate for social disintegration. Society needs to protect its young from excessive pessimism.

Other criticisms hurled toward sociology as a high school course are
that it deals with controversial issues. These critics fail to consider that the younger generation are thinking about controversial issues outside of the classroom and they will probably continue to do so in an ever-increasing measure. It is assumed that it would be much better to eliminate misconceptions and encourage impartial, scientific procedures.\footnote{7} It would not be a perversion of the function of the school to examine critically and discuss freely and impartially the implications of social problems, even of a controversial nature.

Following 1930, the trend changed and the modern textbooks stopped stressing the pathological and abnormal aspects of society. Modern texts treat of normal functions of social institutions. It is granted that society does have both a normal and an abnormal aspect, but a correct approach for their study emphasizes both.

The chief aim of sociology in the secondary school should be to develop in pupils the conviction that social phenomena are natural phenomena. \ldots{} The chief aim in the study of sociology should not consist in memorizing a number of facts, knowing all about the ills of society, learning mechanical rules or even a number of principles. It should be the development of a way of thinking about social phenomena and social data.\footnote{8}

The young student needs to know what the family, the school, the

\footnote{7}{J. A. Hockett, \textit{A Determination of the Major Social Problems of America}, College and University Contribution to Education, p. 96.}

\footnote{8}{A. C. and D. H. Bining, \textit{Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools}, p. 47.}
state contribute to the welfare of mankind so that he may understand and appreciate the social service he is rendering when he takes his own normal place in these institutions. He needs also to know the harm he would do by any breach of normal relationships.

The most important social service that the future citizen can render is to function normally in the fundamental relations of life.

Sociology is intended to help the student discover for himself what the most worthwhile activities and satisfying interests in life really are, and why they are worthwhile and satisfying.

A deep and credible philosophy of life is the greatest need for most of our young persons.

High school sociology is intended primarily for beginners in the field of social science. It should deal largely with facts of social phenomena and with an analysis of social conditions and institutional life. Pure theory should be subordinated as far as possible.

A wide variety of topics are being taught in the secondary schools of Texas under the general name of sociology. These courses are in no way uniform or standardized as to content or method. Many of the materials are not suited to the teaching of modern sociology, and some, in fact, are quite undesirable for discussion in high school groups, especially under the direction of teachers who had not received thorough training in the subject. Such subjects as the organic evolutionary theory, socialism and communism should not be offered the immature mind by an untrained teacher. It is true that these subjects are pertinent to the study of human relations, but the secondary school is hardly the place to theorize on them. Academic freedom for the secondary teacher
should be looked upon as both a privilege and a reality, but the teacher needs to be judicious in the exercise of this prerogative.

Quoting directly from the 1938-1939 Bulletin, No. 397, of the Texas Public Schools of Standards and Activities, the following provision is made for sociology:

Contemporary social and economic problems should not be taught below the fourth year. It is a problem-solving course and requires the study of current papers, magazines, and books. No special text is recommended. . . . All social problems should be taught in the light of present-day happenings. For this reason, current social, economic, and political problems should be studies and related whenever possible to subjects taught.

Schools in Texas seeking original or increased classification and accrediting with the state department must make application to the State Department of Education through the Deputy State Superintendent for that district not later than October 1. The Deputy State Superintendent, who evaluates and approves the school so applying must make his recommendation concerning the school to the central office in Austin following the inspection of the school. Such school must also have the approval of the County Board of Education.

The Deputy State Superintendent visits the schools seeking the accrediting with two objectives in view. The first objective is to determine whether or not the standards of instruction and physical equipment are being reached and maintained, and the second objective is to work out with the local school authorities means of improving, if possible, the efficiency of the school.

The inspection is supposed to include the observation of classroom procedures, and an examination of the written work and plans of the teachers. At the end of his visit, he makes a written report of his
findings to the Director of Supervision who in turn passes this report on to the local school authorities.

Materials in sociology to be kept on file for each semester, before and after accrediting, are in two groups. The general materials include: (1) a definite statement as to the units covered and the objectives used in a general outline of the course; (2) three papers from one test from each class, accompanied by teacher's questions; (3) all test papers from one other test, accompanied by teacher's questions; (4) six final examination papers, accompanied by teacher's questions; (5) not more than one specimen of other worthy work that the teacher may see fit to include.

The special materials submitted for accrediting are original source reports, themes, summaries, outlines, charts, maps, and graphs, which should provide evidence that pupils have ability to solve problems through research and organization. Attention should be given to bibliographies and footnotes. Representative tests and examinations should be on file.⁹

The only academic requirements for teachers in high school sociology are that they must be graduates of a standard college or university with at least one assignment in their fields of college specialization.

One-half unit is the maximum credit given for sociology, and it is recommended that the students are on the fourth year level with pre-requisites in World History and Civics.

The placing of sociology in Texas high schools has largely been a

matter of the effort of some individual in the specific school system. Sometimes it is the superintendent, but frequently the need is felt by some classroom teacher who risks her future by asking that the course be included. This writer experienced all the urges and probably made a general nuisance of herself before she was allowed to teach a course in the subject. Students had to be persuaded to take the initial course. Those who did not need the credit for graduation, because there might not be any credit when the course was completed, were inveigled into blazing the trail.

"What is this sociology about?" was the cry of those adventurous ones that did come. They did not know, their parents did not know, and in the main, the stock answers of the faculty members to whom they made inquiry, was generally suggestive of a glorified slumming expedition. One young fellow was overheard to say, "Sociology! If it's that society stuff, I'm not going to take it!"

Children become interested very early in life to certain aspects of their immediate environment, and especially are they interested in those matters that are of concern to themselves. As they mature, their sphere of experiences and interests widen.

The old high school curriculum was made for adults. It was built on adult psychology and it was a formal catalog presentation of many unrelated facts that were to be memorized.

Sociology has its place in modern schools because it furnishes materials for developing our fellow man. Schools must reorganize the materials of instruction to meet the need of youth in the complicated environment in which the child lives. It is the job of the school to
orient the child in his social living.

Charters, in discussing the building of the future on the present, writes:

The best of this generation must be taught to the next, even though we recognize that the ideals and activities of the next generation will differ in part from those of our own. . . . With the ability to think their problem through for themselves we can trust the new generation to face their own problems with their feet solidly placed upon the structure of the past.  

Since the school is the chief agency of social improvement, it is its duty to capitalize on the interest of the student in things that concern himself and to help him recognize the social forces that are operating about him as an individual. Young people realize that they are unprepared to face the new problems and to think in terms of world progress, world cooperation, and the welfare of all humanity.

The child needs greatly to learn to value and to practice open-mindedness and rational non-emotional consideration of social matters. Young people need to learn to demand factual evidence, to be critical of sources of data on all sides of a question, to suspend judgment, overrule predisposition and to sympathize with the points of view of the advocates of each partisan interest.

The difficulties of democracy are the opportunities of education. The energy, enthusiasm, and intelligence which high school boys and girls show in grappling with the crucial problems of our society justify an optimistic outlook upon the future.

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11 J. A. Hockett, A Determination of the Major Social Problems of America, College and University Contribution to Education, p. 94.

12 Ibid., p. 98.
The boundless vigor of childhood and youth can either be wasted or directed to individual and social good.\textsuperscript{13} Today, as never before, we have the material and intellectual resources for designing a better environment and achieving our plan for general welfare. The direct accomplishment of this task is the only vital and significant educational experience toward which we can afford to work. Children and youth must be given the wisest guidance in accepting their share in this great social task.\textsuperscript{14}

We are living in a transitional age. Never before has there been such a gulf between technology and social institutions. We have a thoroughly up-to-date material culture, complex, diverse, and potentially efficient beyond that of any earlier age. On the other hand, our institutions and the social thinking which we seek to control and exploit this material culture are an antiquated, mosaic, compounded of accretions from the Stone Age to the close of the eighteenth century, with very little from a more recent period actually guiding our lives.\textsuperscript{15}

There has never been a period in American history when there was so great an opportunity, socially and educationally, to move ahead to better things. . . . We have utopia within our reach, but unless we take rapid and drastic steps to modernize and improve our institutions, we shall actually pluck chaos from the tree of life.\textsuperscript{16}

\begin{flushright}
\textsuperscript{13}Paul R. Hanna, \textit{Youth Serves the Community}, p. 32.  \textsuperscript{14}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 275.  \\
\textsuperscript{15}Barnes, \textit{Society in Transition}, p. 956.  \textsuperscript{16}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 969.
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CHAPTER III

AN ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF TEXTBOOKS RECOMMENDED
FOR HIGH SCHOOL COURSES IN SOCIOLOGY
IN TEXAS

The Texas State Board of Education for the school session of
1939-1940 had on the recommended list, six high-school textbooks on
sociology as follows: American Social Problems, by Burch and Patterson; Our Changing Social Order, by Gavian, Gray, and Groves; The Social
World, by Quinn; Civic Sociology, by Ross; Social Problems, by Towne;
and Social Living, by Landis and Landis.

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize and evaluate the con-
tent materials of each book in the order listed.

American Social Problems, by Patterson, Little, and Burch is at
the top of the recommended list of sociology texts for Texas. Such a
position is apparently due to alphabetical arrangement rather than to
any degree of superiority rating. The text is written by S. Howard
Patterson, A. M., Ph.D., Professor of Economics in the Wharton School
of Education, University of Pennsylvania; A. W. Selwyn Little, A. M.,
Department of Social Studies, John Harris High School, Harrisburg, Penn-
sylvania; and Henry Reed Burch, Ph.D., Head of the Department of History
and Social Sciences, Overbrook High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
It was copyrighted in 1939, and published by The Macmillan Company the
same year. There are 567 pages in the volume and the list price is
$1.96, subject to the usual school discount.

The book is printed on fine grade paper, the type is large and clear, and the book is standard size. It has a durable red binding with simple gold lettering on a black strip background.

The purpose of this book is to treat the fundamental social problems of our complex national life on the senior-high-school level. It aims to offer and to stimulate constructive, instead of destructive, criticism of our fundamental institutions. The authors voice their belief that America's past achievements have been great and that her future possibilities are even greater. The creed of the authors seems to be that education, however, is Aladdin's lamp, which Democracy must never lose or barter, for it can turn darkness into light, ignorance into knowledge, prejudice into sympathy, and despair into hope.

The subject matter in this book has been organized into nine units and twenty-four chapters. Each chapter begins with a statement of objectives and closes with a summary, word studies, reading references, and activities. The content features are that every phase of American life is examined; important problems are isolated for investigation; effects of social ills are shown; and remedies are suggested. The necessity for the scientific point of view in the study of social problems is emphasized and adhered to throughout the text. American ideals and respect for the fundamental principles of democracy are constantly stressed.

Unit I introduces the subject and explains the central problem of the course. It consists of two chapters which will be summarized separately. The first chapter specifically deals with social life and group culture.
Human beings tend to gather in groups, because it is advantageous and satisfying for them to do so. Group life is not peculiar to human beings, yet on the whole, association among human beings is more deliberate, thoughtful, and less instinctive than it is among the lower forms of life. A group of human beings who have associated themselves together is called a society. The term may refer to humanity as a whole, or it may refer to smaller groups of different kinds.

Civilization is the ever-changing heritage of the past. Sometimes the change is slow; sometimes, rapid. The changes may be produced by such factors as war, conquest, commerce, travel, education, invention, and discovery. On the whole, civilization is a lasting and cumulative thing. Each generation adds to its legacy before handing on the torch to the next generation.

The major objective of the second chapter is to understand the nature of social problems, and some of the factors that make difficult their solution. Problems have arisen in large measure because social adjustment has not kept pace with economic change and technological advancement. Problems are often referred to as economic, social, or political, but strictly speaking, they do not fall into any one classification. They are composite in nature.

The solution of social problems presents many difficulties. Efforts to eradicate the evils that beset mankind are obstructed by the attitude of the public as well as by the complexity of the problems themselves. Many citizens are indifferent to the public welfare; others see in the existing maladjustments an opportunity to advance their own interests, and therefore seek to hinder attempts to promote public well
being. There is a new emphasis now upon the scientific approach to the solution of problems, and the prospect is more optimistic.

The colonization of America represented the transplanting of an old civilization into a new environment. Our American democracy differs in many respects from other civilizations, but it is a phase of human development that has been going on since the beginning of time. It has been built up on the accumulated experience of thousands of years of human progress. The three great influences which have directed our development will be treated in the three chapters in the following unit.

Unit B gives the general background in physical environment, in biological and psychological factors, and in the culture stream of history. Each of the above designate a chapter in the group of three comprising this unit.

The third chapter discusses the influence that geographical features have had in determining the progress of nations. They have not only encouraged the development of certain personal qualities, but they have played a large part in determining a country's industries, occupations, and institutions.

The geographical features have played an important part in the development of the United States. The extent of territory has provided room for an ever-growing population. The conditions of border life favored the growth of individualism, initiative, optimism, and the spirit of democracy which we have come to consider as typical American qualities. Extensive territory, together with the richness of soil, the wide range of climatic conditions, and the presence of valuable natural resources, has made possible geographical division of labor and a great
number of different occupations. Our geographical position has enabled us to maintain social and commercial contacts with the other nations of the world, and yet has kept us sufficiently isolated to develop our own culture and civilization unhampere by interference from foreign powers. Our rivers, lakes, and valleys have help promote commercial intercourse between the different parts of the country, have broken down isolation, and have served to unite the country politically.

The biological and psychological factors of social life are stressed in chapter four. Biologic heredity makes for sameness, for the transmission of familiar traits and for the preservation of species. Acquired traits are not transmitted. Variation makes for individual differences. The people of the United States have a rich and varied heredity. It is important that individuals in a group be biologically wholesome. Man is influenced by his emotions as well as by his intelligence, while lower animals are guided more by instinct. Human nature can be improved, or at least trained in socially desirable patterns and social progress can be achieved. In order to promote progress, it is important that every individual strive to build good character, to develop a pleasing personality, and to be educated to the fullest extent of his natural capacity.

The progress of a people can not be accounted for without a survey of their social heritage, and that survey is the aim of the fifth chapter.

Primitive man laid the basis of our modern civilization before the dawn of recorded history. The crude tools of the Stone Age were the forerunners of many of our modern implements. Our speech had its
origin in prehistoric times.

Not only primitive man, but also the civilizations which succeeded him have made their contributions to modern life. To the Egyptians, the Babylonians, the Phoenicians, the Hebrews, the Greeks, and the Romans, we owe distinct advances in astronomy, mathematics, writing, building, engineering, biology, physics, religion, law, and government. The medieval period contributed the printing press, gun powder, and improvements in navigation which assisted in the discovery of America. It was in this period that our modern form of representative government, trial by jury, and habeas corpus originated. The Commercial Revolution introduced our modern exchange economy, and the Industrial Revolution several centuries later, brought about the extensive use of machinery, which led to the growth of the factory system.

Unit C is made up of two chapters in which our population and institutions are analyzed. The sixth chapter deals with the significant changes that have taken place in the population of the United States, and the causes and effects of American immigration.

The quality and quantity of a population have an important influence upon the growth, power, and prestige of a nation. The growth of population in the United States has been particularly rapid, although the rate of increase is declining. The census figures reveal that the percentage of older people is growing, the size of the family is decreasing, and the excess of men over women is declining. Our population is made up of practically every race and nationality in the world, and with the prospect of a stationary population at some future date, considerable interest has been manifested in improving the quality of our
population.

The seventh chapter emphasizes the evolution of and the nature of our basic institutions, and their significance in the social life of today.

Our basic institutions are the family, the church, the school, the state, and the economic organization by which man earns a living. Institutions are part of our social heritage, and they represent ways of doing things which man has accepted because they have enabled him to carry on his activities more efficiently. All institutions arose in response to definite needs. The family, the oldest institution, has served not only as a means of perpetuating the human race, but also as a basis for the development of the school, the church, and the government. The church expresses the spiritual and moral aspirations of human society. The school assists in the transmission of the social heritage, and prepares for efficient citizenship.

Economic institutions enable mankind more efficiently to carry on the work of getting a living. Serious economic problems make difficult the realization of the ideals of our forefathers. Our customs, ideas, and institutions have not kept pace with recent, rapid industrial changes, and much of our social unrest of today has been caused by faulty or tardy adjustment to new conditions.

Unit D is made up of three chapters which lay the economic foundations of the more abundant life in improving consumption, in eliminating exploitation, and in providing social security. The eighth chapter is apparently Mr. Patterson's contribution to the text. This rationalization is reached because it is so essentially economic in character.
Consumption is the process by which commodities and services are used in the gratification of wants. As civilization has advanced, wants have increased. The number and kind of wants have become a measure of social development. Wants have promoted economic achievement by stimulating men to great physical and mental efforts. Until comparatively recent times, consumption has been given only slight attention, in comparison with that given to production. Today people are realizing that the health, happiness, and general well being of a country, depend not only upon the ability to produce efficiently, but also to consume intelligenently.

The ninth chapter seeks to indicate the significance and extent of child labor in the United States, the extent of gainful employment of women, and the evils of sweat shop labor. The growth of the factory system has created serious economic maladjustments. Among the problems which have had the most far-reaching social consequences are those relating to the exploitation of women and children in industry.

Child labor is detrimental to the child, to society, and to industry. The factors which have been responsible for the existence of child labor are the lack of skill required for the performance of many of the mechanical operations in industry, the demand of employers for cheap labor, poverty or greed of parents, public indifference, and temperamental maladjustments of some children to school life. The child labor problems first emerged in England after the Industrial Revolution, and in the United States with the development of the textile industry in New England. Children, as well as women, worked long hours, under wretched conditions, for pitifully small wages.
The status of women has changed significantly in the last hundred years. Perhaps the most striking development has been the tremendous increase in the number of women gainfully employed. Because of the social, as well as the economic aspects of large numbers of women in industry, far-sighted individuals and groups have recognized the importance of restricting the occupation in which women may engage, of limiting their hours of employment, and of regulating working conditions. In order to secure a living wage for workers, many states have passed minimum-wage laws.

The tenth chapter is confined to the aspects of injury, illness, and unemployment that beset the modern industrial worker. The rate of industrial accidents has been particularly high in the United States. The industries which lead in the number killed or maimed each year are railroading, mining, and manufacturing. The high accident rate has been attributed to insufficient precautions in the matter of safety devices, a lack of enforcement of regulations, and in some cases carelessness on the part of a worker, or trespassing on the part of an outsider.

Industrial diseases constitute another menace to the industrial worker. Health is constantly being endangered by conditions existing in certain trades or occupations. Among the materials used in industry that are injurious to human beings are white lead, phosphorous, and arsenic. A particularly widespread occupational disease is silicosis.

Perhaps the greatest of all hazards confronting the worker today is unemployment. So far-reaching have been the economic and social effects of industrial accidents, industrial diseases, and unemployment that strong efforts have been made to provide forms of social insurance
that would reduce the menace of these specters. Among the forms of social insurance in operation today are workmen’s compensation, old-age pensions, old-age insurance, unemployment insurance, invalidity insurance, and mothers’ pensions. Old-age pensions and unemployment compensation received a strong impetus with the enactment of the Federal Security Act in 1935.

Unit 2 is divided into three chapters which treat the social debtor group of dependents, delinquents, and defectives.

The eleventh chapter is a discussion of the problem of poverty and pauperism. Poverty is an evil that not only destroys the health and the efficiency, but also, if sufficiently widespread, constitutes a threat against the progress of a nation. The problem persists largely because of social attitudes that have prevailed for generations. Some groups maintained that since poverty had always existed, it therefore always would exist, and they were relieved of any further responsibility for the solutions of the problem. Others deplored the existence of poverty and sought to reduce it, but they erred in assuming that a single cause was responsible for it.

The sociologist distinguishes between the terms, poverty and pauperism. The term poverty he applies to the condition of that group in society whose plane of living is so low that the necessities of life cannot be obtained. Pauperism is applied to the condition of that group who are dependent upon charity for support. Poverty and pauperism are attributed to a combination of causes. Some are found in the physical, some in the economic, and some in the social environment.

The old fatalistic attitude toward poverty is being supplanted by a
new scientific attitude which sees in poverty a disease and seeks to treat it as such. In attacking the problems today the chief emphasis is placed upon prevention.

The twelfth chapter points out the causes of crime, and sketches the development of our modern criminal procedure. Some authorities fear that the spirit of lawlessness in the United States may undermine the very foundations of our established institutions. One of the comparatively recent manifestations of lawlessness in the United States has been the growth of organized crime. Racketeering has been a particularly insidious activity of organized criminals. The spread of criminal activities beyond state borders prompted the Federal Department of Justice to undertake drastic measures in order to meet this new problem. The work of this department, especially that of its agents known as G-men, has been notably successful.

The causes of crime, like those of poverty, are found in the physical environment, in the economic environment, and in the defects of government and education. There are also many individual causes of crime, but they too reflect environmental influences.

Public attitudes toward the punishment of the criminal have undergone many changes. The belief is now gaining adherents that crime is a social disease, and a greater effort is being made not only to reform the criminal, but also to prevent crime. The changed social attitude has been reflected in methods of punishment, and today many people advocate the abolition of capital punishment.

Since the reformation of the criminal is difficult, the efforts of society should be directed toward the prevention of crime through
improving environmental conditions, through developing good citizenship qualities in the youth of the land, and through segregating the inherently degenerate.

The fourteenth chapter points out the social significance of health, which is so important in a civilization where efficiency is paramount. Formerly, the question of health was regarded as a matter for individual concern. Today, society views ill health as a public responsibility and makes great efforts to prevent or check it. In spite of this attitude, millions of people are sick each year, and the annual cost of sickness reaches an enormous total, not only in medical costs, but also in low wages.

The great problem for the future will be to make available for all the benefits of increased medical and scientific knowledge. Several methods have been suggested for providing adequate medical service and for distributing more widely their costs. One of these methods would involve the coordination of medical facilities in a community under the supervision of the medical profession. This would permit extensive health services at lowered costs. In recent years, socialized medicine has also attracted much attention and created considerable controversy.

In the fifteenth chapter, the authors discuss the importance of leisure in our modern economic system. Formerly, leisure was the prerogative of the few, but now it is available for large numbers of our people. The increase of leisure is important because it affords an opportunity to secure release from the stresses and strains of our highly industrialized, competitive society. Increased leisure provides an opportunity to engage in recreational activities which give a new meaning
to life. To many, leisure means idleness, and idleness may lead to de-
moralization. Leisure is a challenge to our modern economic order. The
value of leisure in a society will depend upon the uses which are made
of it. The increased leisure in modern times has stimulated interest in
various forms of recreation.

The interest of modern society in the wide use of leisure is reflect-
ed in the increased efforts that are being made by communities to provide
wholesome recreation. School programs today present many opportunities
for worthwhile recreational activities. The increase leisure of modern
times has also stimulated an interest in the cultivation of hobbies,
which contribute much to the satisfactions of life.

The sixteenth chapter emphasizes the social importance of housing
and some of the conditions that exist in the United States. While modern
homes and improved equipment have greatly increased the comfort of Ameri-
can families in the higher income groups, millions of poor people in the
United States are living in homes that are a menace to safety, health,
and morals. Poor housing is today recognized as a problem of major
social significance. This is due to the relationship that has been
established between poor housing and such evils as vice, crime, disease,
and juvenile delinquency.

The most important cause of poor housing has been low income. Other
factors contributing to the prevalence of poor housing are excessive
taxation, greed, lack of planning, and public indifference. A conference
on Home Building and Home Ownership, called by President Hoover in 1931,
made some pertinent recommendations for solving the housing problem, but
because of the complexity of the problem, the solution will not be easy.
Housing touches the interests of property owners and the public at large, as well as those whose homes are sub-standard.

The unsightly, disease-breeding, crime-ridden slums which infest most of our large cities constitute a challenge to the resourcefulness of modern society. The United States has lagged far behind the European nations in the matter of slum clearance.

Unit G stresses the state as an important social institution and explains the expanding functions of government in the following three chapters.

The seventeenth chapter stresses the significance of government in a study of social problems. The United States is a Federal Government with a written constitution. The National Government possesses only those powers specified in the Constitution; the individual states retain residual or non-specified powers. In both Federal and state governments there is a threefold division of functions among the legislative, the executive, and the judicial branches. The Constitution provides for an intricate system of checks and balances among these three divisions of government.

There has been a tremendous growth in the functions of government, due chiefly to the increasing need of regulating business and to the increasing number of social services rendered to its citizens by the state. It is a far cry back to the theory of laissez-faire in industry.

There has been a growing concentration of power in the United States, as well as an increase in the functions of government. Old duties of local government, such as health and education, are being taken over, in whole or in part, by the individual states. Similarly and simultaneously,
the states are losing power to the Federal Government.

The eighteenth chapter is a brief chapter that discusses American cities and their problems. The "city beautiful" is the ideal of those who would remodel city life upon more artistic lines by inaugurating an era of city-planning for future development.

The second ideal centers in public health. The city, which was formerly regarded as extremely unhealthy, is becoming more sanitary with the advance of scientific knowledge.

A third ideal of American cities is that of reform in housing. Committees of socially-minded citizens have determined that the slum must be eliminated in modern American cities.

The political ideal seeks a municipal government which is both efficient and democratic. Some American cities have adopted the commission form of government or the city-manager plan in order to secure better civic housekeeping.

The nineteenth chapter attempts to show the importance of political parties and propaganda in our national life. A political party is a group of individuals who hold similar views regarding matters of public interest. The members of the party associate themselves together in order to elect candidates to office, control the administration of public affairs, and further the policies of the party.

Individuals are impelled to join political parties for various reasons. Some join because they feel the party upholds the principles to which they subscribe. Others join because of tradition, while still others are influenced by a desire for favors or awards.

The political party performs valuable services. It is an agency
for the expression of public opinion and the enactment of public opinion into law. They help focus attention upon issues of the day. Two parties are especially desirable because one acts as a check on the other. The success of a party depends not only on the quality of its leaders, but also on the efficiency of its organization.

Public opinion is a powerful factor in the operation of a democratic government. Propaganda is a deliberate attempt to influence public opinion in a certain direction and toward the ends of some particular group. Enlightened public opinion required that each individual shall think for himself, without being greatly influenced by suggestion or imitation. Our educational institutions should provide, not merely information, but also opportunities for training our young people to think clearly and impartially, and to form reasoned opinions for themselves.

Unit H continues this analysis of our basic social institutions in chapters on education, the family, and religion, and morality. The twentieth chapter deals with democratic education. Since the sum total of human knowledge is constantly increasing, each age must decide for itself what knowledge is of most value. Educational readjustment is one indication of intellectual progress.

An evidence of educational readjustment is the growing content of the curriculum. Improvement in methods of teaching and in school administration are keeping pace with the expansion of the curriculum.

Economic society now feels the need of efficient and versatile workers. The present generation, therefore, asks for that type of education which will best prepare it for the practical duties of everyday
life. The sociological trend in education has expressed itself in vocational education. Education for all and education to meet the needs of each are modern ideals. Education is a cause of social progress and a result of social progress. A liberal education sets people free--free from superstition and prejudice; free from individual dictatorship of mob rule.

The twenty-first chapter attempts to show the functions and social significance of the family. The family, like other social institutions, is in a process of transition. The economic bonds which formerly held it together are weakening, while at the same time the authoritative ideal of family life is gradually disappearing.

The family of the future must depend largely upon mutual love, consideration, and forbearance. It will therefore be stronger and of a higher type. The unfortunate increase of divorce may be an indication of social progress, which is always a costly one. A more democratic type of family must be evolved in harmony with the higher ethical standards of the age. The monogamic family will still persist. After the process of adjustment is completed, the ideal of lifelong union will once more triumph. The new type of family will be founded upon the principle of mutual obligation. It will be democratic, for the spirit of dominance and subordination will disappear.

In chapter twenty-two, the aim has been to analyze the nature and social significance of morality and religion. Morality may be defined as the code of conduct governing relations between individuals. Group morality developed in response to definite social needs. The individual found through experience that he could not be a law unto himself, and
that in human society conformity to the group code was essential if the safety of the group was to be maintained. Morality varies with different people and with the passage of time. The degree of morality prevailing at any particular time may be considered as a measure of the progress of civilization. There is a vast difference between the moral code of primitive days and that of the modern American community. Today, there is an urgent need for a higher type of morality, as well as for a more cooperative type of individual.

The importance of religion as a factor in the expansion of social morality can hardly be exaggerated. While morality emphasizes man's relations with his fellow man, religion emphasizes the relations between man and a supernatural power. Religion has been an important factor in promoting social progress. It has exerted a powerful influence in improving human behavior and in lifting human thoughts to higher levels.

Unit I constitutes the conclusion, presenting both the need for intelligent social control and the possibility of peaceful social progress in the two final chapters.

The twenty-third chapter emphasizes the phases of social control in human relations. Conformity with group codes is secured through the social pressure exerted by the group as a whole upon the thoughts and actions of the individuals within it. This pressure is called social control. The high degree of cooperation demanded of individuals by the complexities of modern life has made social control increasingly important. In spite of the fact that democratic societies are particularly dependent upon cooperation, conformity to code does not mean regimentation. Intelligent social control aims to promote liberty within the law. Dictatorship
represents personal rather than social control and a mob illustrates the absence of social control.

A too rigid application of social control may induce a lag in culture. In a progressive society the controls must be elastic enough to permit necessary adjustments to meet changing needs. In the past, social control stresses things to be forbidden. Such a course belongs to a static society. Today, social controls are tending more and more to stress things to be done.

Among the agencies of social control which exert the most powerful influence upon the individual minds in the group are public opinion, custom, law, fashion, education, and religion. The formulation of public opinion is greatly influenced by the press, the radio, the motion picture, the public platform, and the pulpit. If public opinion is to have value as a form of social control, it must be enlightened and not stereotyped.

Customs represent the hold of the past on the present. They are more static than public opinion and may act as a restraining force, thereby checking progress. If an intelligent public opinion is to be developed, if custom, law, and the other social controls are to serve a useful purpose and promote civilization rather than retard it, a constructive educational program must be created. Education, as a method of influencing and stimulating individual thinking, is the hope of democracy.

The final chapter indicates the nature of social ideals and social progress. Although change is an inevitable characteristic of life, it does not follow necessarily that every change results in progress.
Change may mean retrogression rather than progress.

Progress implies a conscious or purposeful change in the direction of a desired goal. Progress is difficult to determine and evaluate since it must be measured in terms of the social goals or ideals toward which man is directing his efforts. Social goals are subjective; they differ with various groups of people; and they change from time to time. Because of the lack of common agreement in regard to social goals and what constitutes human happiness, there is a wide divergence of opinion concerning the progress man has made. Despite the opinions of pessimists to the contrary, there is considerable evidence that civilization is moving toward desirable goals.

The changing nature of society will always produce maladjustments. Consequently, society will always have problems to solve. Some of the obstacles that stand in the way of progress are ignorance, indifference, selfishness, and culture lag, as well as the lack of agreement in regard to social ideals. Careful thought should be given to the solution of problems, if lasting progress is to be achieved. Democracy seeks not to overthrow the existing order and take refuge in some cure-all, but rather to promote progress through orderly adjustment by means of the cooperative action of its citizens.

The general bibliography of collateral readings and the adequate index conclude the volume. The general make-up of this book is startlingly an innovation over other textbooks in the field. Each chapter discussion is aided by study equipment that would challenge the most indifferent pupil. Each chapter states its objectives clearly at the very beginning, and each chapter has a brief summary, word studies, questions,
references, and activities.

The activities are applications of the principles presented in the text. They consist of floor talks, essays, committee investigations, cartoon drawing, map study, and other types. There is an intimate integration between this course and English, science, history, government, economics, geography, and health and character study.

All illustrations, such as pictures, diagrams, graphs, and maps are integrated with the text and appear on the pages with the textual material.

As a whole, this text is well adapted to the maturity and ability of pupils in secondary schools. Its organization is designed to promote the objectives of the course. It is clear, and concise in its handling of its subject matter. Facts are presented frankly. The text goes to the heart of each problem. The evils in our social structure are not evaded, but are treated with utmost care and are invariably accompanied by suggestions of reform. It is noteworthy that where needed, historical backgrounds are provided, but these are kept to a minimum as to space.

The tone of the book is optimistic—but it is not optimistic in that it shuts its eyes to weaknesses and evils, but it is optimistic in that it confronts problems with faith that solutions are to be found only in the application of the principles of democracy.

The textbook, *Our Changing Social Order*, was written by Ruth W. Gavian, College Preparatory School for Girls, Cincinnati, Ohio; A. A. Gray, Head of the Department of Social Science, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California; and Ernest R. Groves, Research Professor of Sociology, University of North Carolina. It was copyrighted in 1939,

The purpose of the book is to help the student of the present time improve his own social adjustments. The authors believe that the study of sociology in high school can and should prepare the individual to live more intelligently. The basic purpose for introducing sociology into the curriculum was to prepare students for well-informed participation in public affairs. Throughout the book stress is laid on the need for realistic thinking, and of what may be termed skeptical reading.

The subject matter of this volume is organized into eleven units, which are subdivided into thirty chapters. The units open with previews and the chapters close with activities, word studies, questions to discuss, and readings.

Unit I is made up of two chapters. It deals with the scientific method of thought and why it is difficult for people to use it. The first chapter explains the difference between magical and scientific thinking, and tells why sociology could not exist during the Middle Ages. People generally have not learned to think scientifically. They refuse to subject themselves to experiment and they are prejudiced, emotional, and superstitious.

Sociology is the science of social relations. It studies all social behavior, and this includes practically everything that people do.
Before sociology could be born, men had to realize that their institutions are social creations which are responsive to social demands. In the Middle Ages no one thought that human efforts should be directed to bringing about intelligent social changes. Human suffering was held to be due to the natural sinfulness of men; it could not be prevented. The institutions which shaped men’s lives were thought to be divinely ordained, and therefore, sociology could not exist.

No social change can be made by the scientist alone, no matter how intelligent and forceful he may be. Social changes are made by groups of individuals. Unless the reasons for a proposed change are understood and seem necessary, this change will never be made. Social changes generally run counter to established beliefs. The social scientist must expect that every change he proposes will seem to many to flout the "tried and tested wisdom of the ages", the "old sturdy virtues of mankind", or the "wisdom of the fathers".

Chapter two presents some of the difficulties we all experience in trying to think straight. By the time anyone leaves school his mind is pretty heavily stocked with facts, beliefs, theories, traditions, and rumors. Most of this mental stock in trade is not reliable, yet it is going to influence every thing the individual thinks until his dying day. The attempt to develop a science of society is beset with many difficulties. It is seldom possible to conduct experiments with human beings under controlled conditions. It is not always easy to uncover facts because people are fond of deceiving themselves. Especially in the realm of social relationships they often refuse to face reality, preferring to cloak it with all sorts of agreeable fiction.
The highest type of thinking is objective or impersonal thinking. It attempts to leave behind the personal feelings and prejudices of the individual. It is open-minded, and flexible; in the light of new evidence it readily modifies or discards old theories.

Unit II contains two chapters dealing with the creation and growth of culture. The third chapter shows what is meant by the social heritage. It explains how men learned to satisfy their basic physical needs, and how these material ways shaped their ways of living together.

We live in an ocean of culture of which we are as little conscious as of the air we breathe. It has been accumulating for millions of years. It consists of innumerable inventions and discoveries by which men have little by little learned to make life safe, easier, more comfortable, and more worthy of living. It is the heritage with which we are endowed from birth, and it determines the kind of individuals we shall become. The outlines of our culture were laid down before the Stone Ages came to an end. To these ancestors, we owe the basic elements of both our material and our non-material culture.

Chapter four describes the ways men invented to make their relations with each other more orderly and satisfying. It shows how morals were created, and how they are perpetuated by institutions. All the members of the group are expected to conform to its customs. A custom or folkway is a habitual way of thinking or acting that is common to the members of a certain group. The customs which a people believes are essential to its welfare are called mores. Customs change more rapidly than the mores largely because the mores are enforced by means of the
taboo. As civilization advances some taboos are no longer felt to be vitally important and they are reduced to the rank of manners. The mores tend to crystallize into institutions. Institutions appear primarily in response to cultural needs, and they control most of our behavior.

Institutions are likely to perpetuate themselves after the need for them has passed, but there is a corollary to this principles that they have a tendency to cling to their traditional form when it no longer serves its purpose. Familiar ways are comfortable. It is easier to continue the institutions to which we are used to than to go to the trouble of changing them. Popular indifference, conservatism, and vested interest combine to delay possibly needed institutional changes. Nevertheless our institutions do change. Even the most time-honored are always in process of being made over. It is the outward form that resists alteration longest. Inventions, scientific discoveries, new ideas, and new economic conditions are always being incorporated into institutions and making them over.

Unit III emphasizes human nature and how culture controls it. The argument, "You can't change human nature." has been overworked. Social scientists believe that human beings can be educated to take their place in a social order that is much more highly organized than is our present one. The process begins at birth, and its foundations are already laid when the child reaches the public school.

In chapter five, the inborn equipment which is common to all human beings is discussed, and whether a baby is born with a set of instincts like those possessed by a puppy or a kitten. It is not easy to determine
exactly how much of human behavior is original. It appears that very few of the actions of civilized adults are unlearned. In fact, the reflexes may be the only acts which are dictated by nature. Man apparently possesses few of the inherited patterns of behavior that are seen in animals. His unlearned behavior is simple, and most of it is soon modified by his experiences. Human instincts as a term should be avoided. The terms reflexes, tensions, drives, or wishes should be substituted.

All behavior results from the effort of the organism to make a better adjustment to its surroundings. When the organism is moving successfully toward a goal, all the parts function smoothly and there is a feeling of well being and harmony. This makes for a high quality of social relationships. When the organism encounters a serious obstacle in its path, the internal drives are blocked, and the emotion of fear-anger is aroused. This drive produces a low quality of social relationships. As culture advances, it becomes easier for men to fulfill the wishes that are common to all human beings.

The sixth chapter inquires into the differences between people, and the importance of inheritance, race, and sex in determining ability. It will help answer the question, "Which is more important, heredity or environment?"

All kinds of human characteristics—physical, physiological, mental—are influenced by the genes which represent the possibilities of the individual. He cannot exceed these possibilities, however favorable may be the environment. Which of the inherited possibilities will develop is decided by the kind of stimuli which play upon the individual. We do not inherit characteristics but material under
which one set of conditions will produce one characteristic and under a different set of conditions will produce another. Acquired characteristics are not inherited. Nothing an individual learns during a lifetime can be inherited by his children. It is certain that no two individuals, except identical twins, are ever born with exactly the same inheritance.

Environmental conditions in childhood seem to explain many of the existing differences between people. After a child is transferred from a poor home to a good home, his intelligence quotient may improve remarkably. Many of the existing difference between the sexes are traceable to environmental conditions, particularly to the current social attitudes.

Chapter seven explains what environment does to the growing personality, and why ideas and attitudes are often wrongly held to be inherited, simply because they appear in succeeding generations. Personality consists of the habits by which the individual adjusts himself to his environment. These habits are partly the result of inborn tendencies, but largely the result of learning. Personality is the social man—the role of the individual in the group. It depends in part on the individual's basic physical and mental equipment, and still more on his experiences.

Most of the mental furniture of the adult is a jumbled mixture of whims, prejudices, and peculiarities acquired in childhood by conditioning. Prejudices are as hereditary as titles. This refers, of course, to social and not to biological inheritance. Attitudes are mind sets in certain directions and they are also the results of early conditioning.
At no time in life is the self completely formed. Each time the individual confronts a novel situation, he has to choose between various responses. This response will involve body, mind, and emotions. To some extent the organism is remade every time it confronts a novel situation. Learning is continuous as long as we live.

Unit IV presents three chapters discussing individuals who are maladjusted. The eighth chapter makes use of the subject matter of the preceding unit, and discusses the various ways, effective and ineffective, in which individuals react to disappointment. Then it takes up the little understood topics of mental disease and mental hygiene.

The central problem that all of us have to face is how to adjust ourselves to the people around us. The adjustments we made yesterday will hardly satisfy us tomorrow. The social relationships we achieve depend in large measure upon how nature we happen to be.

In the preceding unit it was noted that all human behavior is an attempt to satisfy the basic drives. Sometimes an obstacle appears that cannot be overcome. The emotionally mature person tries to find a solution to his problem and meet the disappointment on the reality level. Frequently it is not possible to meet the disappointment on this level, and the individual resorts to escapes such as daydreaming, identification, consolation, procrastination, wishful thinking, projection, regression, or repression to solve his problem. Whenever anyone refuses to face a difficulty squarely and tries to escape it by disregarding the facts, he is behaving as does a person with a mental disease.

It is increasingly recognized that mental hygiene is as important
as physical hygiene. Mental health is much the same thing as happiness and efficiency. Only through good mental health can the individual adjust himself to life.

The ninth chapter shows why maladjusted people often turn to alcohol, and how drinking is apt to increase their maladjustment. It also sets forth the conditions under which drinking does the least harm.

Alcohol injures society in that it is a contributing factor to accidents, to poverty, to moral restraint, and to crime. There is no agreement among those who would curb the use of liquor. Whatever methods are found to discourage the traffic in strong drink, it seems likely that the traffic will exist for a long time to come. Liquor will continue to be available on some terms to those that really want it. Effective control will be possible only when a new public opinion is created. To create this public opinion is the task of education.

The tenth chapter bears the title, "Who Is the Criminal?" There are few subjects about which so much has been written and in which the average person is interested. Nor is there any subject, unless it is the related one of mental disease about which there is so much misinformation.

An act punishable by society is a crime. Our crime rate is probably the highest in the world, and it seems to be increasing. An enormous amount of money is expended each year to catch and convict criminals and to maintain our police systems, courts, jails, and prisons. To the money cost of crime must be added the real cost of suffering.

Increasingly our criminals are young people. In careful studies of the conditions which produce the criminal it has been found that the
average delinquent is the result of bad home conditions, a slum environment, school maladjustment, physical illnesses, mental abnormalities, and the drive in the adolescent for new experiences.

The long-range program for reducing crime will require an attack upon all those conditions in our society which now prevent the majority of people from enjoying an adequate standard of living. There must be enough material goods for all, with security for anyone who is willing to work and for his family. The abolition of poverty, bringing an end of bad housing, of insufficient medical care, of malnutrition, of preventable death, and, above all, an end of the fear and worry that grips so many people throughout life, will mean, on the one hand, a general improvement in mental health which is bound to be reflected in better social attitudes and conduct.

Unit V deals with the methods by which individuals may improve their adjustments to the ever-changing conditions of life. The eleventh chapter seeks to consider how an individual may improve his standard of living by more skillful buymanship, by better management of his resources, and by cooperating with other consumers. The standard of living is a behavior pattern and a system of values contained in the mores. In the American standard of living the most prominent values are: physical health, cleanliness, physical comfort, the saving of time, the avoidance of boredom, and prolonged schooling. When a person's interests are limited, and his set of values crude, his standard of living will not be high. A high standard of living is really a high sense of what is worthwhile doing and having and being.

Budgeting makes possible a higher standard of living. It is
nothing more than a pattern or plan for spending, which means the surveying of one’s needs and one’s known resources and then deciding how the resources can best be used to satisfy the needs. In making a plan for spending our money, we are making a plan for living.

Since leisure is to be a feature of modern life, the twenty-first chapter discusses how it can best be used for true recreation. The chief business of life is growth, reproduction, and development. It is these which bring the deepest human satisfactions. We measure the fullness of our lives by the variety and depth of our experiences.

Leisure is that time in which we are free from drudgery and from all other activities not of our own choosing. It is the time that is at the disposal of the whole man. The diversions with which men fill their free time are known as recreations. Any activity which is joyous to the one that performs it is a true recreation.

In 1885 the play movement was inaugurated. It has already accomplished a great deal, because people are coming to realize that for all ages and conditions of men that recreation is a part of a normal, healthy life. The schools will undoubtedly assume more and more responsibility for teaching people to make fuller use of leisure time.

The thirteenth chapter analyzes some of the characteristics most desirable in a marriage partner. In America marriage is popularly prescribed as a gamble. To judge from the mounting divorce rate, it seems to be growing more hazardous every year. Perhaps some of the hazard lies in the way in which some people choose their marriage partners. Marriage is particularly like a lottery where the romantic tradition prevails.
In order to establish a successful family, people must be grown up emotionally. The emotionally mature person is aware of long-term goals, and keeps them steadily before him. Most of the problems that are faced during marriage can be solved by intelligent effort, and they can be solved with the least difficulty by persons who are intellectually mature. Social maturity is another attribute that is necessary for successful family life. The individual who is socially mature is willing to employ the customs which make for smooth living. He is willing to adjust himself to the habits of those with whom he lives.

The fourteenth chapter discusses the transition of the family. It suggests some of the reasons for the alarming increase of divorce and some of the difficulties experienced by the divorced.

The family is the oldest and most important of all social groups. It fulfills more human needs than any other group. Society has no substitute for the home as the nursery of social attitudes. It is in the family that the individual is most likely to learn loyalty, sympathy, unselfishness, and the ability to cooperate with others.

In any period of rapid cultural change such as the present there is a great deal of maladjustment which affects family life. Everything that hurts human welfare attacks the family, and it is not surprising that our times should witness a tremendous number of divorces and other signs of family breakdown. For every six new marriages in the United States, one marriage is ended by divorce. This is an appalling record of failure and misery in the personal relationships from which the individual ought to obtain his chief satisfactions.

Unit VI consists of two chapters, the major aim of which is to
discuss the education for a new day. The fifteenth chapter shows how amazingly our public school system has grown, and some of the serious educational inequalities that exist.

The welfare of a people is determined largely by the training which the young receive. Schooling for the masses of the people is little more than a century old. Of the schools in some areas of our country, nothing more can be claimed. In the more prosperous areas the schools have prepared pupils for a vocation, taught them to get ahead in the world, and instructed them in the rudiments of music, art, and civics. Here and there schools can be found that hold character building and training for happy living higher than academic subject matter. These schools provide opportunities for pupils to learn to function in democratic groups whether they be racial groups, the physically handicapped, or the uninformed adult.

The time will come, probably, when free higher education will be provided for all gifted young minds. We cannot afford not to educate our best minds. They are the greatest asset of our society, and an asset of which we can never have enough. To them we look for discovery, invention, and leadership in every worthwhile human activity.

The sixteenth chapter discusses the various purposes of education and raises the question: Is our educational effort producing the kind of people who can create a better society? Our educational efforts are well-meaning, but they do not always bring the desired results. One of the basic ideas of American democracy is the belief that every individual has the right to advance as far as his talents can carry him. The great American ideal is that education should not be a class privilege, but
should, from kindergarten to graduate school, be open to everyone. Equal opportunity does not mean that every child should have exactly the same kind of schooling. Now the best schools are providing for individual differences. Equal opportunity really means surrounding each child with the conditions in which he can grow best.

Education, even at the highest levels, has largely ceased to have a scarcity value. It can no longer be counted on to raise earning power. Its primary function is to help people to live more fully, and to show them how to create a better society.

If the general level of culture is to be raised by the schools, they must have teachers who are superior to the majority of the people in the community. The good teacher is one who never stops growing in courage, power, and refinement. Teachers must be active in educating the community to the necessity of social change.

Unit VII discusses health as a social problem. The seventeenth chapter shows how health is distributed among economic classes, and explains why many doctors have little to do, while two out of five people have no medical care in a given year. In the last fifty years the public health movement has steadily grown. It has taken on many new duties. It has reached out beyond the cities and entered many neglected rural areas, and it has been extraordinarily successful.

Our greatest statesmen have said that public health should be the first concern of government. It has never been the first concern of government, and it has never received more than niggardly appropriations. The result is that numerous grave health needs are still unmet. Preventable sickness and premature death take a huge toll, and few have
the buoyant health that is their birthright. We are gradually developing a new concept of public health. We are beginning to demand at least a minimum of health protection as a right. Our plans for distributing such health protection must be based on the concept of an equal opportunity to be born healthful, to maintain health, to prevent needless disease, unnecessary disablement, and premature death. To the informed modern mind, this opportunity for health is beginning to rank with other basic equalities of American life.

Housing, which is closely connected with mental and physical health, is presented in chapter eighteen. The kind of house a family occupies has much to do with the quality of life that goes on within its walls. The house is the center of family activity. It ought to provide a background of peace and security so that members of the family may relax from the strain of life outside. This requires that the house be free from dirt, clutter, and excessive noise, and be spacious enough for the occupants to move about freely without interfering with one another.

Community planning, treated in chapter nineteen, can give us garden cities and towns that are far more healthful and comfortable than those we live in today. Intelligent, long-range planning of cities has been rare. The community should be so arranged that it will be economically efficient, safe, healthful, agreeable—a good place in which to live, and work, and play. In so far as it is not a good place for all its citizens, rich and poor, young and old, white and colored, it is a failure. Community planning in the United States has been undertaken chiefly by cities, but it is needed in communities of whatever size. The fundamental principles apply equally well to the village and to the metropolis.
The garden city idea envisioned by Ebenezer Howard has made rather slow progress in the United States. Americans are inclined to be individualistic and they are reluctant to subordinate individual gain for the welfare of the community. However, there are trends in evidence that the city of the future will be less compact than the city of the present day. It may be a great metropolitan district so carefully laid out, and so well served by transportation facilities, that its people can live close to their work in semi-rural environment. If society so chooses, any city can become a garden city.

Unit VIII propounds the question, "Can We Preserve Democracy?" Among thoughtful people today there is an ever present fear—the fear that totalitarianism will spread over wide areas and perhaps overthrow democracy altogether.

In chapter twenty, inquiry is made as to what the dictators have to offer, and why certain European nations have gladly exchanged democracy for the rule of a dictator. The first part of this chapter gives an excellent study in contrasts between totalitarian states and democracy. Both sides are presented accurately and without too much bias. Totalitarianism has been accepted by certain nations because individuality and intellectual freedom have disappeared from their group by totalitarian education. Children born in a Fascist or Communist country are carefully brought up to be completely loyal and uncritical of their government. The sense of unity is one of the most important characteristics of the totalitarian state; each person must be conscious of the collective purposes and devote himself to fulfilling them. The leaders constantly nourish the sense of unity among the people through the schools, the
radio, the newspapers, and through leisure-time activities.

How much we want to preserve democracy depends on the rebirth of our patriotism. The democratic tradition belongs to this country, and it is our duty to arouse ourselves to the fact that a land of free people is the ideal to be sought. We must work with all diligence for peace.

The twenty-first chapter considers the party system in the United States. Political parties arose without any authority from the Federal Constitution, because the people were divided on the public opinions of the day. This chapter is largely a historical discussion of the history of the party system in the United States and how it works.

Opposition parties propose changes in public policies, and encourage people to take an interest in public policies and to make up their minds about them. Intelligent party participation is not blind following.

The twenty-second chapter is concerned with important experiments in improving the machinery of our government. Since the beginning of the present century, our government has been changing in two directions. One of these is reform in its structure and administration. This may be seen in such improvements at the merit system, centralized purchasing, the unification of conflicting and overlapping departments, and the one-house legislature. The other path of reform is the improvement of elections and the more direct control of public officials.

The institutions of democracy are not fixed, but they are growing. This is well; otherwise, we must despair of having our government catch up with our rapidly changing ways of living. Industrially and economically, we travel much faster than we do politically. We are quite ready to introduce new inventions into our homes, offices, and factories, and
to change any commercial practice, especially if it means more profit; but we are slow to adopt inventions in the field of government.

In these days when the rise of dictators threatens the survival of democratic government abroad, and when there are numerous interests which would like to see our democracy fail, we cannot afford to ignore any serious proposal for making our government more truly responsive to the people's will. So far as the government obeys the wishes of the majority, it deserves and maintains the loyalty of all who believe in government for the many and not for the few.

The problem of public opinion is dealt with in the twenty-third chapter. In a democracy there is urgent need to safeguard the formation of public opinion. If public opinion is confused and divided, the government will not serve the people, but will serve some well-organized minority that knows what it wants.

There are two kinds of public opinion. One type is to uphold traditional customs, and the other favors change. Public opinion has never been so dynamic as it is today, for economic changes have created tensions in practically every institution. Directly or indirectly public opinion in a democracy shapes the procedure of all agencies of government. Public opinion is an aggregate of individual opinions. It is likely to be irrational, highly suggestive, easily exploited, and based on stereotypes.

We live in an age of incessant propaganda. The kind that concerns us most is that which alters public opinion on matters of large social consequence. A great deal of propaganda is desired to think or act in a way designed to persuade people to think or act in a way desired by some selfish interest. Our best defense against propaganda is education. We
are gullible only in fields in which we are ignorant. Education can arm us against propaganda by giving us the facts.

The twenty-fourth chapter is occupied with the question, "War--Can We Avoid It?" The people of the United States want to make sure that we shall never again be drawn into a war.

Public opinion is divided as to whether isolation or cooperation with other nations is the best way to insure peace. Trade with the warring nations seems to have been the chief factor in drawing us into the World War. Congress has passed neutrality laws designed to reduce the dangers involved in trade with belligerents. There is grave reason to doubt that the neutrality laws can be maintained if another major war plunges America into a severe depression.

Some believe that cooperation to remove the causes of war is America's best hope of peace. The gradual lowering of tariffs and the gradual removal of all other barriers to world trade is urged as the most practical way to overcome the intolerable handicaps of the "have-nots" and to promote world prosperity. To preserve our democracy it behooves us to work with all diligence for peace.

Unit IX contains two chapters discussing the question, "Can Agriculture Be Saved as a Way of Life?" In the twenty-fifth chapter, America discovers the farm problem. The problem has not come about suddenly or from any one cause but rather from a whole series of gradual changes. The growth of tenancy, the increase of farm indebtedness, the shrinkage of the farm market, and the depletion of the soil have hurt the security of a large proportion of our farming people.

City people cannot afford to ignore the problems of rural dwellers.
In the first place, the cities maintain their population only because they attract a steady stream of surplus farm youth; upon the quality of this stream depends the welfare of the cities. In the second place, a large part of the city's products must be sold to the farm people. If the farm people are too poor to buy, then the factories close and millions of city workers are unemployed.

Farm people are no longer secure. Unless the legislative remedies that Congress is trying are not too late, agriculture as a way of life, appears to be doomed.

The twenty-sixth chapter deals with the proposals for increasing farm security. These proposals are classified and discussed under the following headings in ascending order of importance: (1) enabling farmers to obtain land and credit on more favorable terms; (2) improving the farmer's position as seller and as buyer; (3) finding new markets for farm products; (4) enabling surplus farm people to find non-agricultural employment. This chapter contains too much tiresome, statistical data for secondary school pupils, but the discussions of the various agencies for carrying out the above-mentioned proposals are interesting.

Three chapters comprise the final unit. These chapters discuss the most pressing of all modern problems--how to assure to everyone an adequate income.

The twenty-seventh chapter treats of some problems of labor. The welfare of society is best served when there is industrial peace, and peace is possible in a democracy only when human rights are fully recognized. Organized labor has won recognition of its rights, but unorganized labor still has little protection.
Labor always involves human costs. Society's problem is how to produce the largest amount of wealth to satisfy human wants at the lowest human cost. At present the human costs are apt to fall most heavily upon those least able to bear them. By minimum-wage laws, workman's compensation, unemployment insurance, old-age insurance, and other social legislation, this injustice is gradually being overcome.

The twenty-eighth chapter attempts to answer the question, "Can the National Income Be Made Adequate?" Our basic problem is to produce a larger national income measured in goods and services. We have the plant and equipment, the labor supply, and the natural resources. The obstacle seems to be the lack of purchasing power among the masses of people. They are not able to buy all the output of our existing productive mechanism.

Proposals for correcting this situation include: (1) raising wages, (2) sharing profits, (3) reducing prices, (4) preventing excess savings, and (5) lightening the tax burden of the poorer classes.

After purchasing power is adjusted to our producing power, it will be necessary to increase the output of goods and services. A greatly expanded production is needed if all the people are to live in reasonable security and comfort. A larger output depends on: (1) use of all of our man power, (2) use of all of our plants, (3) preventing depressions, (4) use of improved machinery, (5) promotion of invention and research, (6) wise use of natural resources, and (7) a more scientific taxation. Each of the above are discussed in some detail.

The twenty-ninth chapter discusses the regulation of business. The essence of the Constitution of the United States is to "promote the general welfare of the people". Gradually it has become clear that the
welfare of the people suffers when business is let alone. The free competition which might automatically have regulated business has in many industries ceased to operate. Few now question that where free competition is absent, government regulation is needful.

Efforts have been made since 1887 to regulate big business. Most of the regulations that have been imposed on business have been for the purpose of preserving competition and protecting the smaller or weaker businesses from the unfair practices of their stronger rivals. Whether government can succeed in regulating business or not is debatable. People feel strongly on the question, and even on the solution, the best minds have not changed.

The thirtieth chapter sums up the elements constituting human progress. True social advance is measured in terms of human welfare. As personality is increasingly valued, a higher worth is placed on individual life and happiness. During the last century the rights of the weak have been increasingly recognized, but the tradition that might makes right has by no means disappeared.

The instruments of social progress are research, education, and religion. If we have a better society, it is our duty to make use of these instruments to their fullest extent.

This textbook indicates that a consistent effort has been made to select material that will help the student to improve his own social adjustments. The style is clear and coherent, and a logical organization of the subject matter is well preserved. The title clearly indicates the content.

The study activities and illustrations are challenging and
interesting. They relate to the subject matter particularly well. The drawings by James Daugherty are quite superior to anything this writer has ever seen in a textbook for secondary schools.

This book is in the main adapted to the maturity and ability of the pupils, but this writer feels that it is much too long for a half-year course in sociology. Texas schools make provision for only one-half credit in the field, and it is beyond the ability of the average teacher to guide eleventh grade pupils through a 683 page textbook. The last half of the book would be admirably adapted to a course in either civics or economics.

The general tone of the book is questioning. It emphasizes the need for thinking about and recognizing the actual conditions in our changing social order. If pupils can be made to think, the book is worthwhile.

The textbook, The Social World, was written by James A. Quinn of the Department of Sociology in the University of Cincinnati. It was copyrighted in 1937 and published by J. B. Lippincott Company of New York. There are 558 pages in the volume and the book sells for $1.80 per copy.

The book has interesting mechanical elements in its makeup. It has a durable red binding with simple silver lettering. The paper is fine grade; the type is large and clear.

According to the author, this text was prepared at the request of the Ohio Sociological Society, a professional group whose membership consists mainly of teachers of sociology in universities, colleges, and high schools. The Society became actively interested in problems of high school courses in their subject as a result of a survey made by the members of the Department of Sociology of Ohio University. These
investigators reported that a wide variety of courses were being taught in various schools under the name of sociology; that the courses were in no way standardized or uniform in content or in method. The report challenged the members of the Society to take the leadership in outlining a satisfactory standard course. The Society accepted the challenge and appointed a Committee on High School Sociology to carry out its purpose. At the request of the Committee on High School Sociology, the author assumed the responsibility of preparing the necessary materials for a standard course. This text has been written as a result of this request.

The subject matter of this book is organized into units which have been subdivided into chapters. Each unit and chapter opens with a preview and closes with a summary.

Unit I consists of three chapters. The first emphasizes that man is truly a social being. It attempts to impress this fact so firmly upon the mind of the student that he can never forget it. In doing so, it points out that all men live normally together in groups and that only a few individuals ever escape from group relationships. Upon every continent and in every period of history, both savage and civilized persons share the common characteristic of living together. Occasionally some exceptional individual spends his life apart from other men, but each of these exceptions appear to be more animal-like than human.

The person who spends his early life within social groups can never lay aside their influence, even though he may wish to do so. Human personality develops in groups; it decays in isolation. Men seldom want to escape from social relations, because these relations furnish regular patterns of customary behavior which make every-day living efficient
and easy. Groups give man a higher standard of living than he could possibly attain by himself. Sociology is a study of these social relations that seem so very essential to man.

The second chapter discusses the essential characteristics of these groups which play so important a part in human life. Social relations differ from other kinds of group relations in that they involve a mental exchange of meaning and are carried on through the medium of communication by signs or symbols. Within the social groups the members expect certain kinds of behavior from their fellows. Each member has a role to play and these roles become customary. They may be filled in turn by different men, thus allowing the group to live on after its original members have died.

Various types of social groups are described in this chapter. They include institutions, which tend to develop around the satisfaction of human needs; the primary and secondary groups, which exhibit differences in the quality of their social relations; and in-groups which unite one set of people in opposition to others of the out-group.

The third chapter directs its attention to the nature of sociology. It describes the point of view from which sociology examines the social aspect of reality, the problems which it attempts to solve, and some of the difficulties which it encounters. It attempts to discover the nature of social relations, the forms and functions of group life, the causes of social changes, and the effects of social groups upon their members. Its central problem is that of social control.

Sociology attempts to be scientific. It has succeeded in using the scientific method in that it bases its conclusions upon typical facts
that may be observed repeatedly, tries to discover regularities of cause and effect which explain social behavior, and watches its own conclusions critically. It has not been able to use controlled experiments and has not learned to measure social relations. Each field of science studies only a limited aspect of reality. The physical sciences look for regularities in the behavior of the non-living aspects of reality, the biological sciences seek them in the behavior of living substances, while the social sciences try to discover regularities in social life.

Sociology emphasizes all the forms of social relations, without regard to the needs which are satisfied. Sociology examines the nature of the social bond, classifies the forms of social relations, studies the regular ways in which they change, and indicates the part played by each in the total civilization and in the life of separate persons.

Unit II consists of nine chapters dealing with the factors affecting social life. The explanation of varying forms of social life and of their changes may be found in the influence of four sets of factors: culture, physical factors of the geographic environment, biological factors of man's own body, and population. Even a superficial study of these factors will show that they always work together, no one of them ever operating entirely apart from the other.

The fourth chapter, the first in the second unit, discusses the importance of culture and its immediate influence in determining the exact forms of group life in which persons live and develop. Every man is born into a culture which serves as a rich heritage and which brings the accumulated wisdom of past generations to him. This culture heritage determines the majority of the tastes, beliefs, ideas,
judgments, and standards which he uses in ordinary everyday life. It provides the tools, skills, and knowledge which makes his high standard of living possible. The infant absorbs his culture heritage so gradually and unconsciously that he accepts its customary ways of acting, thinking, and feeling as right and natural. These facts that he accepts upon faith constitute culture bias. They sometimes become so powerful that men tend to twist the facts to fit the biases rather than to change their biases to agree with observed facts. The student can readily discover the culture biases of foreigners because they seem peculiar to him, but he finds greater difficulty in recognizing his own.

The fifth chapter stresses the importance of culture change in history. The person who lives within a culture can scarcely judge its changes except with the aid of the long-time perspective of history.

Culture grows by accumulation. Modern Western civilization has been accumulating for at least 100,000 years. Men of the old Stone Age made many basic inventions and discoveries, including language, tools, fire, clothing, boats, religion, and art, which formed a basic core for later culture growth. Neolithic men added agriculture, domestication, pottery, bow and arrow, the wheel, and lifting devices. Social institutions had developed before the dawn of written history.

Culture changes in various ways. Each generation fails to copy old patterns exactly, thus causing slow, unconscious changes which can be neither predicted nor controlled. The total culture of the world changes mainly through invention and discovery, but the culture of a group changes chiefly as a result of culture borrowing. Crises which set new problems also encourage culture change. The existing level and type of
culture influence both the speed and the direction of the change.

The sixth chapter explains how geographic factors influence man's social life. The influence of geographic environment cannot be escaped. Civilized man of modern times remains as dependent upon Mother Nature for food, drink, and shelter as did the poorest savage of the early Stone Ages. Nature must always furnish whatever food, shelter, and clothing man uses; it sets limits on his behavior; it provides rich regions which attract, and poor ones which repel; and it sets barriers to human travel; but it never compels man to follow a given pattern of social behavior. Climate, gravity, and winds act upon man's body, and it increases or lowers his supply of energy. Only as it affects the behavior of man as a cultured human being, however, does the geographic environment afford much help in explaining the social behavior of men.

The seventh chapter discusses the geographic influences of culture growth. Geographic factors have greatly influenced the development of culture during the long course of history. Climate affects the speed of culture growth, for favorable climate affords greater energy, and energetic people tend to be more progressive.

Resources help to set the stage for human history. Unequal distribution of resources leads to exchange of goods and encourages both borrowing and invention. The qualities of resources which man uses, help to determine the forms of their social life. Geographic barriers prevent contacts between peoples, and if they are extreme, they hinder culture growth. On the whole, favored geographic locations tend to develop rapidly, but the favorableness of a location varies with the type and degree of culture. So far as is known, the geographic environment does not
directly mold the customs, moral standards, or social relations of any region.

In the eighth chapter, Quinn presents some of the biological influences in social life. Numerous culture biases center around the part played by biological factors in determining the forms of everyday social life. Man belongs to the animal kingdom, but the human body proves superior to those of other animals in several qualities—in brain, vocal apparatus, hands, erect posture, and long-continued immaturity. These superior qualities enable man to develop and use a complex culture heritage.

Biological differences afford little help in explaining everyday social life. Aside from the natural biological differences, most of the differences in behavior of the sexes result from culture. Individual differences, such as caste, class, royalty, depend more upon social conditions than upon biological factors. Man's biological development has not paralleled his culture growth.

It was interesting to note that in the preceding chapter there was no discussion of racial qualities included in the biological factors influencing social life. This difficult but interesting topic forms the center of interest in the ninth chapter.

Race refers to a biological division of mankind rather than to a culture type. It implies biological likenesses which depend upon the inheritance of similar qualities from common ancestors. Scholars who try to classify men into racial types upon the basis of biological similarities cannot agree upon which qualities to select. No single criterion proves satisfactory, and usually each scholar selects
whatever criteria suits his purpose, and defines a race as consisting of those men who fall into a given class upon the basis of these chosen characteristics.

No satisfactory evidence exists which proves whether races have equal ability to develop a high type of culture. Race prejudice, race pride, and race consciousness are powerful influences in the modern world. They apparently rest upon cultural rather than upon biological foundations. Whenever they take the form of culture biases, they form the root of many social problems.

The tenth chapter deals with the growth of population as a factor for affecting social life. Population forms an immediate basis for society, because without people there could be no social life. This chapter examines the importance of one of these aspects of population, that of size.

The size of the population inhabiting an area helps to mold the course of its social life and to set its social problems. Other things being equal, the larger organized population tends to accumulate culture more rapidly, both because it produces a larger number of superior men and because its members develop a wider total range of social experiences. At the same time, a population that is too large may become so crowded that it loses its efficiency, and its pressure for additional resources may lead to war.

Many scholars have tried without success to discover a natural law of population growth. Malthus made the most famous of these attempts. Recent scholars have turned attention to the specific factors that affect population growth through birth rates, death rates, and
movements of people. They have discovered that both birth and death rates have decreased within the Western world. The birth rate seems headed still lower, but the death rate will probably rise again in the near future. The result will probably be a slowing of the rate of growth to the point that population will either become stationary or will begin to diminish.

Movements of men from place to place forms the basis for the eleventh chapter. Throughout history men seem always to have been wanderers. They have pushed from the original human cradle-land into less populated areas which have offered better opportunities.

Many important social problems arise directly or indirectly as a result of population movements. The growth of huge cities depends in part upon shifts of population. Stable community life breaks down in neighborhoods where people move every few weeks or months. Men who move into new localities suffer shock or find themselves ridiculed for following peculiar customs. Many persons become confused and turn to vice and crime. Children escape from the control of their parents and drift into delinquency, especially in immigrant communities where conflicts develop between the young and old generations. Movements which bring peoples of different races into close contact usually result in race mixture and problems of mixed-blood classes.

Changes in the composition of population often introduce new problems into social relations and require new social adjustments. In the twelfth chapter, Quinn makes the following statements. Composition of population varies for different populations. Unless disturbed by war or migration, the numbers of men and women tend to be about equal during the
mating period. Because of the effects of war and migration, the United States contains a higher than average proportion of men in contrast with European nations, which contain more women. Serious lack of balance between sexes sometimes occurs in frontier and mining communities, where it results in unusual social problems.

The population of the United States is becoming older as a result of rapidly decreasing birth and death rates and the immediate effects of limited immigration. This change in age composition presents a serious challenge to schools for adult re-education, to industry for employment, and to the government for old age pensions. As population grows older it may tend to grow more conservative.

Unit III, consisting of two chapters, offers two illustrative examples of the analysis of social change.

The thirteenth chapter attempts to explain how the various factors of the existing culture heritage operated together to develop the need and set the stage for the development of literate civilizations in Egypt and Mesopotamia. In this chapter, it is pointed out that writing is one of the most important inventions ever made. It enables men to keep accurate records of past events without relying upon faulty memory; increases the permanence of records, thereby preserving some features of culture that otherwise would be lost. Writing increases the complexity of culture by permitting the storage of literature, historical data, and scientific observations; and it increases the range of communication by permitting messages to be separated both from the sender and the receiver. It is emphasized that a considerable accumulation of culture was required before the invention of writing could be made. Once this addition was
made to culture it paved the way for tremendous new cultural advances which could not have been made without it. This chapter attempts to give a complete description of the development of writing and of its importance for further culture growth to a literate civilization.

The fourteenth chapter explains some of the important influences which have resulted in the change from the simple social life of medieval times to the complex civilization of modern Europe and America. It discusses how that modern Western civilization developed from the culture base of the Middle Ages. The attitudes of the Middle Ages reflected deep interest in heavenly salvation, neglect of worldly reform, and willing submission to custom and authority. In contrast, modern men express great faith in science and in human ability to control everyday affairs. They refuse to submit to custom or authority which limits personal or social development, and they insist upon the supreme value of individual freedom and equality. The mechanical efficiency, the world-wide contacts, and strong national patriotism of the modern world afford further contrasts to medieval life.

Quinn lists and discusses the numerous specific factors which influenced the growth of modern civilization to include the following: the existing culture heritage of the Middle Ages, which affords the starting point for the analysis; the Crusades, which helped to break community isolation and to develop pride in common culture; the use of local languages in literature; dissension in the Church, which broke the tradition of world unity; the rise of national states, which divided the world into conflicting groups; printing, which helped to educate the masses; the Renaissance, which placed emphasis upon the
value of the individual; science, which gave man confidence in his own powers of control; trade, which increased wealth and culture contacts; the agricultural revolution, which introduced a new type of social relations; the Industrial Revolution, which made men more efficient and yet more dependent upon others; and the rise of new ideals, which helped to develop a democratic society.

Unit IV centers attention upon the immediate social situation in which the student lives. It seeks to demonstrate the oft-repeated conclusion that the forms of every day human behavior can best be approached through the influence of groups and culture. The unit consists of two chapters.

In chapter fifteen, the author discusses some of the important ways in which social groups attempt to control the behavior of their members. It examines both those fundamental controls which make men want to obey their groups and which cause them to feel bad-mannered or immoral when they disobey, and those which cause groups to attempt to keep in line members who wish to break the rules.

The cultural machinery for control is grouped under three main headings: uncritical control through folkways and mores; conscious control through critical agreement; and forcible control through law.

Folkways and mores seem so right and natural that group members ordinarily want to obey them. They require no formal machinery for enforcement, but they are seldom violated except under conditions of complex social life. Even though they can seldom be reduced to formal rules, group members know immediately whether any given act constitutes a violation. Folkways and mores are often supported by a body of public beliefs,
sentiments, and emotions which is sometimes called public opinion. Mores, which involve moral judgments, have the additional support of conscience. The types of control operate most effectively in simple, isolated, primary groups.

When group relations become complex, some members refuse to obey the rules, and control through law becomes necessary. Law makes use of force or threat of force in compelling people to obey the rules which it declares. Effective control through law depends upon the underlying folkways and mores of the population. Laws are limited however, because they cannot control human thoughts and desires, but laws remain necessary under complex social conditions.

The chapter following, sixteen, discusses the nature of the person as an organization of social roles, and shows that he cannot possibly be understood apart from his group situations. It examines some of the difficult problems which arise when two or more roles of the person conflict with one another; some of the ways in which persons try to solve these conflict situations; and some of the effects of this struggle upon the character and behavior of the person.

Many aspects of personal behavior and social problems take on new meaning when examined in terms of conflicts of roles. Secrecy and deceit often arise as attempts to escape from the requirements of one role in order to play another. Most crimes consist in obedience to one set of group rules which happen to conflict with the laws of the state. Persons may sometimes not be aware of contradictions between their roles, and may suffer from troubled conscience when they discover the conflict. In extreme cases conflicts may cause loss of moral standards, suicides,
or multiple personality.

Unit V consists of a single chapter. It attempts to help the student to understand the major plots and roles of the social drama within his own civilization.

The seventeenth and final chapter indicates the essential nature of various fields of social institutions and the basic contribution of each to a well-rounded life.

Institutions afford a sound approach to the study of social life. The central feature of every institution consists of a basic pattern of social relations which has the function of satisfying some human need. This relation seems so important that men develop machinery to protect and preserve it. Each institution makes use of material equipment and customary forms of behavior. They often develop supporting sentiments and beliefs which may cluster about an external symbol. The institutional pattern furnishes a mold which shapes the form of numerous concrete social groups.

Quinn stresses the fact that relations between institutions differ in various civilizations. Simple civilizations may need only a single general institution which performs all basic functions. Complex civilizations usually develop a number of specialized institutions. These specialized institutions tend to crystallize into fixed forms so that they fail to change as new conditions require.

Following the last chapter, Quinn gives a ten-page review summary of the entire text. It is written in the form of a traveler living over in his memory some outstanding experiences that he has encountered in his exploratory voyage of the social kingdom.
The remaining pages of the book are given over to questions and exercises for each chapter, references for additional reading for each chapter, and an index.

This writer recognizes that this book, The Social World, is well planned. The subject matter is logical in its arrangement; the style is coherent, and the fundamental unity is preserved. There are no illustrations, but there are good accurate maps, charts, and graphs. The comprehensive exercises and questions in the closing pages of the book relate to the subject matter very well, but they seemingly defeat their purpose by being made into a separate section in the appendix of the textbook. The references are of more value to the teacher than to the pupil, for they are not books for children of secondary school level. The index is usable and adequate.

The book, designed to promote the objectives of the course, gives a balanced and complete social picture of human social relations, behavior, and events.

This writer offers the following criticisms of this book. It will not challenge the interest of the pupils, largely because of its lack of pictures. The inference is not that is should be a picture book, but pupils of secondary level are particularly picture-conscious. The study helps should not be placed in the appendix, but should accompany each chapter. Student reaction to the book is invariably, "It's too dry!"

Civic Sociology, a textbook in social and civic problems for young Americans, was written by Edward Alsworth Ross, Professor of Sociology in the University of Wisconsin. Although the book was first copyrighted in 1925, this summary and evaluation will be made from the enlarged and

Civic Sociology seeks to offer what the graduate of an American high school may reasonably be expected to know in this field. It aims to help lay the foundations of sound citizenship by promoting the study of our chief social and civic problems. In this book the author challenges the youth of today to investigate and to inform themselves upon the world's needs.

This book is small in size, but the type is clear and readable. The author has a pungent, concrete style that is a departure from the usual textbook writing. He makes use of his ability to be quietly humorous without detracting in any way from the scholarship of the volume. The book is divided into three parts which are subdivided into a total of thirty-two chapters. Each of these chapters will be summarized by this writer, and a general evaluation will be made of the book.

The first chapter discusses the trend that population has taken in the United States. The settlement of this country took place under conditions which tended to kill off the weak. The frontier left only the stanchest survive, but thanks to the pioneer families' multiplying so fast, the pioneer traits naturally became more plentiful in the American people. In 1920, thirty-nine per cent of the blood of the American people came from whites who were on this side of the Atlantic before 1790. Thirty-eight per cent came from European immigrants who have come here since the forming of our republic. Thirteen per cent of the population were foreign born, and ten per cent were Negroes.

The second chapter emphasizes how our frontiers have disappeared
and the increasing pressure that is being made on natural resources. Through the nineteenth century the frontier moved westward at an ever accelerated rate. This movement was a response to the lure of opportunity rather than to the lack of need, and the rate of expansion kept pace with the growing liberality of the government to the settler. With land so plentiful, early settlers utilized the land resources with no thought for the future.

Only in recent years have wise Americans begun to look carefully into the need for the conservation of the resources that have been left to us. This country is no longer youthful, and it is still an open question whether our resources can continue to support our increasing millions. There is every reason to expect that we shall have to develop a new attitude toward waste and in so doing we shall preserve the democratic spirit kindled in the frontier that we have lost.

The third chapter deals with the drift of the rural population to the city and the developments that make for such migration. Now that free land on the frontier is but a memory, the ambitious farm youth who inherits no capital must either till another man's land or go to the city. Some of the major factors causing this movement trend are the development of transportation, gasoline engine, farm machinery, and general machine industry. Living conditions in the city outstrip those of country life, and the city beckons the unencumbered young adults. As a result, the city hums with energy and glows with hope, while the countryside bereft of its youth, remains reserved, deliberate, and conservative.

Human nature is everywhere the same, but it develops according to its surroundings. The city tends to drain the country of its natural
leaders. It does not favor the basic economic virtues of foresight and frugality, but despite the crowded conditions and loneliness, the chains of habit are strong, and most of the city dwellers will go on living as they have always lived.

The fourth chapter deals with the spread of the machine age. We are in the age of machines and shall never return to the age of tools. In olden times the worker guided the tool; in modern production, machinery guides the worker. The power-driven machine has lifted much strain from human muscles, but has added to the over-taming of the nerves of the workers.

Many problems have arisen from the ascendance of the machine. Women and children have been forced into employment which has menaced their health, strength, and morals. Industrial accidents and diseases have taken an enormous toll in lives and property. Probably the most significant problem growing out of machine production has been that of unemployment which has been a big factor in family demoralization. The family without an adequate income disintegrates rapidly. When industries run to make profits rather than to meet human needs, there will always be social demoralization.

The fifth chapter discusses the expansion of the social mind. The change to the present regime of railroads, telegraphs, daily papers, telephones, and the rest, has involved a revolution in every phase of life. Improved communication has permitted a new pattern of social grouping to emerge. The neighborhood has practically disappeared, and preference rather than accident determines now with whom you associate. Democracy is the natural and inevitable result of improvement in the means
of interchanging thought. In the degree that people are knit more closely together by newspapers, public meetings, by state sectional and national conventions, it is certain that more consciousness of one's fellow man will develop.

Chapter six deals with the transformation of the home. Four fifths of the industrial processes carried on in the average American home in the middle of the nineteenth century have departed, never to return. As a consequence of the shriveling of the home on its industrial side is the migration of daughters from the home, where there is so little for them to do. In great numbers they go to the factory, laundry, restaurant, store, offices, and classroom. Women wage earners are increasing in numbers faster than men wage earners, and they form an ever greater body in our industrial army.

The opportunities of serious occupation for women in the home are now so few that married women who have not entered industry are faced with the problem of leisure time. The wife is no longer much of an economic factor. Apart from motherhood, her role is chiefly ornamental.

Chapter seven is a relatively short chapter dealing with the family. The family is more than a social institution. It is a natural formation, for nature has implanted instincts which draw the sexes together, and other instincts which unite parent and child. The early family was a political, economic, religious, and educational unit. There have been outside factors that have released the family from many of these functions, but in spite of all that it has surrendered, the family still remains the key institution that serves as a bridge between self and society.
The eighth chapter discusses the trends in child welfare. Certain changes in society have made many parents less able to provide all the child needs for his proper welfare and development, while other changes have made society less reluctant than formerly to shoulder responsibility regarding children. Children no longer exist in great oversupply, and they are now recognized as a great national asset and a proper object of public attention. Society has become freed from its old superstitions regarding inheritance, and is today willing to stand up for the abused or neglected child.

The present day child cannot look to his father to build up in him a skill, but he must depend on the vocational training provided by the community. This factor of powerlessness of parents explains that the child is becoming a social problem. Society, therefore, cannot allow any child to be crippled or stunted in body, broken in health, corrupted in character, or denied an education by premature labor. Society cannot improve unless it starts the young correctly.

Health and disease are emphasized in the ninth chapter. There are supposed to be among us constantly two million adults too ill to work. Probably a great majority of these inherit a sound body and could lead a comparatively disease-free and happy life if we only did the right thing. So much is known now about our invisible enemies and the means of warding them off that it seems an infinite pity that people should misuse their bodies and let themselves in for ill health, simply because no one has told them rightly the thing to do.

Health is no longer a local problem, and health departments have been set up in various states that provide clinics, health centers, infant
welfare stations and public health nursing for their citizens. Many health experts think that the services of physicians will some day be available for all at common expense, just as are the services of public schools, the public libraries, and the public works and parks. Health service should not be given according to the ability to pay but according to the need.

Chapter ten discusses education—the amazing progress it has made, and the motives of society in promoting it. Education is the greatest single spiritual enterprise in America. A nation can hardly endure half-lighted and half-benighted. Despite the shocking unevenness of school opportunities, nowhere else does so large a proportion of children receive secondary instruction as in America. Probably nowhere else does the bright boy of the day laborer face such an opportunity of improving his status through his own efforts.

Education should help one make the most of himself in body, mind, and heart, but this is not the sole motive of society in laying out such princely sums on schools. Society believes that education is the bulwark of people-rule. Every profession, business, and pursuit should be conducted with due regard for the welfare of society, and to open the eyes of young people to the truth that one's calling should be followed as a means of service, is the supreme mission of a system of public education.

The standards of social distinction form the theme of the eleventh chapter. Most people crave to be or do something which others regard as fine. This ambition is a drive-wheel of progress, but if misdirected may do social harm. The system of appraising individuals according to their
scale of spending is the pecuniary system, and it acts on society just like poison. It not only makes the good-natured grasping, but it also strengthens the temptation to get money by sharp practice, trickery, and graft, to quit honorable highway for some short cut or crooked by-path to riches.

Another standard for valuing men is by that of conspicuous leisure. The stigma on work is designed to bolster up the self-respect of the idle rich and their parasites. It also infects many useful people, making them contemptible in their own eyes and ready to resort to any scheme in order to avoid visible work. The harm that results from accepting this false standard is plain. Under its influence, the contented may be made discontented and unhappy.

America may save her soul when it is made general that the worth of a man or a woman should be measured by his or her service to society and not by their costliness of style of living, nor the amount of leisure time that each has.

The twelfth chapter explains the social defense against crime. Civilization is impossible without peace and security, so organized society bans not only acts which injure it, but also acts which injure its individual members. Crime is a heavy ball-and-chain for society to drag at its heels. It is estimated that the annual total cost of crime is well over three billion dollars. At this point Ross points out that we cannot create a pure heart on short notice, so there will be about as many crooks next year as there are this year. Our chief reliance for a speedy reduction of crime will be to deter bad men from committing crimes by convincing them that crime does not pay.
Apart from home and church, society can do several things to lessen crime in the next generation by training the young. The school may help by teaching the child the reasonableness of rules and laws to promote the common good and to help him realize that the law breaker is not "playing the game". Only when society realizes that the millions that are being spent fighting should be spent in prevention will we lessen our crime.

The thirteenth chapter deals with poverty and relief. Society is learning that to relieve the wants of the destitute without demoralizing them at the same time calls for science and skill. Promiscuous almsgiving is no longer considered something to admire; but one need not hold back in doing good to the distressed, provided that certain principles are observed. The helpless must be taught to help themselves. All persons should be given a chance to work to the extent of their working power. Indiscriminate giving is dangerous and should be avoided.

In chapter fourteen the social side of business and the professions is discussed. By that heading is meant what society has a right to expect of business and professional men. A business man, without a sense of honor and without a sense of right and wrong in business matters, is a public menace.

In society there are two opposing terms, commercialism and professionalism. The ruling motives in the practice of a profession are to render service, to protect the patron's interests, and to work for the general interests of society. The professional man does not advertise, neither is he unwilling to do some free work. To the commercialist profit means everything. This is detrimental to the welfare of society.
The fifteenth chapter glances at a few typical fields of regulation in business. The buying public is entitled to a square deal everywhere at all times. Regulation which aims to make business fulfill its obligations to its patrons is in no wise a disloyalty to the principles of private capitalism. Some of the types of government regulation discussed in this chapter are banking, investment, and advertising.

Ross discusses the speeding up of social progress in the sixteenth chapter. The chief obstacles to social progress are mental laziness, control by the old, veneration for precedent, and the notion that society keeps to its planned course until some large visible force starts it on a new track. The truth is that society is dynamic, and in one way or another, social conditions are always changing. Something that is old should not be venerated after its usefulness is over. Self interest is another obstacle to progress. Persons who become dependent on an institution resist proposals to abandon or alter it.

The seventeenth chapter discusses personal freedom. Man has an instinct against close restraint. Our forefathers deemed it a simple matter to make the individual secure in his freedom. Everything has been focused on the rights of the individual. Democracy, however, has dispelled much of the old mistrust for government. Mr. Plain Citizen has learned to look to the government for help and protection in matters too big for him to cope with. Society also is beginning to realize that people are individuals and that they influence each other. Public health legislation, for example, hampers the freedom of the individual to a certain extent, but it is made up to him in his prospect of being free of disease. Pioneer individualism is not suited to the present stage of
society. Constant watchfulness is necessary for the good of the people.

Chapter eighteen treats of willing obedience to law. In a democracy
the chief thing behind law is not a man with an instrument of force, but
the will of the good citizens. The ability to live as a free people is
the most precious thing in the world. Disobedience to law is like blood
poisoning—it spreads. On the prosperous and educated people rests a
special responsibility. Nothing but the widespread respect for law
makes him secure in his possessions and enjoyments, and he should justify
this protection by showing every respect for law and its enforcement. A
good American will obey all laws, even those he thinks vexatious; he will
tolerate the utterance of all opinions, even those which he loathes. Law-
making cannot always await the ripening of public sentiment. Occasions
arise which make new laws necessary, and they should be obeyed regardless
of whether the individual believes in them or not.

In chapter nineteen Ross differentiates between a crowd and a mob.
The individuality of the average person is a fragile thing, easily
crushed in the pressure of a crowd. When their self sense is deflated,
the people in a crowd are worked upon by a powerful stream of suggestions
all tending one way, and there the crowd self is likely to appear. How-
ever, since fulfilled suggestion raises the emotion of the crowd, the
development of this crowd self usually takes time. Once it is developed,
the crowd self displays a short-lived, simple primitive and simple in-
stability. Nothing constructive can come from them. Crowds may over-
throw despoticisms, but they never build free states.

The twentieth chapter deals with independence. The tradition of
independence is a birthright of infinite value to every American, but
the economic society has developed in such a way that sixty per cent of
the people have to hold down some kind of job or position. When a per-
son sells his services, he is bound within reason to render the kind of
services the buyer desires. However, he does not consider that he is
selling his soul when he hires out. If the employer is domineering
over his employees, their only recourse is through mass protest sup-
ported by public sentiment. Probably nowhere in the world are men
more willing to starve rather than fawn or truckle. The American spirit
is in the employer too, because most of them hate being cringed to. They
prefer level speech with a competent, decent man on their payroll, and
they have no desire to control the lives of their employees after work-
ing hours. The American who admires and is pleased by the relation ex-
sting between employer and employee, has in his heart the kernel of our
national character.

The twenty-first chapter concerns itself with the matter of free-
dom of speech. Free speech is a social concern, and it is a priceless
heritage held by the American people. It is our duty to cherish it and
never allow it to be encroached upon or destroyed. The matter of free
speech involves the protection of the citizen's right to express ideas
about matters of public concern. We should not curb any public dis-
cussions of our institutions and our social order with a view to chang-
ing them in any lawful way. If the discussion clearly tends to stir
people up to immediate unlawful acts, it has passed beyond the rightful
bounds of "free speech". Sound institutions can stand free discussion.
Free speech makes for social safety.

In chapter twenty two, Ross expounds on personal competition. Ours
is a society in which any man can aspire to any place. Our ideal is a
democratic society, in which each finds his place by tryouts and by
matching himself with others. How much effort people will spend in get-
ting themselves placed depends upon the degree of personal liberty, the
rate of social change, and the efficiency of the selective agencies.
Like fire, competition is a good servant but a bad master. Ruthless
competition is welcomed only in a young society that has not yet
learned to take the long view. With ripeness comes the recognition
of limits to competition.

Ross states in the twenty-third chapter that nature must bear the
blame for some of American sectionalism. There are parts of the country
in which it is hard to get the citizen to lift his eyes from the concerns
of his own section and fix them upon the achievements and interests of
his country. However, with the progress of automobiles, good roads,
aviation, and radio, section-mindedness is on the wane. No longer has
a section much chance to stamp men's minds with an impress all its own.

There are various time-tested means of keeping sectional feeling
and loyalty from cutting into national feeling and loyalty. Out of the
long experience of minority rule has developed the principle of equal
representation of equal numbers. If there is to be a proportional
sharing of the benefits of the government, there should be a proportion-
al sharing of the burdens of the government as well. Each section should
be willing to listen to the leaders of other sections who express views
may not like.

The twenty-fourth chapter stresses the promotion of religious free-
dom and peace. One of the best developments of modern times is the general
giving up of the conviction that God is pleased when we wipe out those of faith other than our own. For more than two centuries it has been well understood among the level-headed that the only safe policy is to tolerate religious differences. Religion can flourish without state support. When people support it, the congregation usually takes more share in worship. It wants to spread the gospel; it takes to heart the general welfare of the community.

Americans separated the church and the state early in our history and the American idea has been spreading rapidly over the Christian world for the last half century. In order to promote religious peace the individual must not dwell on religious differences, but rather on what religion there is in common.

The twenty-fifth chapter is a brief discussion of the promotion of peace among nationalities. In seventy years, more than thirty millions from overseas have cast in their lot with us. The reasons seem to have been that of toleration and individualism permitted by America, the worship of progress, and the fact of easy naturalization. We should foster the greatest possible good will among the many diverse elements of those people in order to bring about Americanization as quickly as possible.

The twenty-sixth chapter discusses the labor and capital struggle in our democracy. Industrial conflict is increasing, but there is ground for hoping that means may be found for making the struggle less bitter. Nobody is to blame for the rise of the problem. It is a by-product of the development of industry and it has been inevitable. The labor-capital issue is a challenge to wisdom and good will. When there
is an extension of social control over industry, a growing share of workers in political power, and there is a movement away from autocracy in industry, then will there be some hope for a peaceful solution of the labor-capital controversy.

Ross says in the twenty-seventh chapter, that there are two contrasting aspects to government: namely compulsion and service. The government has been growing rapidly along the line of service rather than along the line of compulsion. The government spends our money for schools, highways, parks and playgrounds, disease fighting, fire fighting, forestry, postal system and many other things, but it never squanders our money for luxuries and extravagances. Its expenditures are for the good of all the people rather than a chosen few; therefore, the support of the government is a concern of all and no class which has any margin above the current standard of living should be tax-exempt. The public burden should be distributed according to the ability to pay.

The twenty-eighth chapter discusses political parties, their services, their perversions, and the important steps in the war on corruption. When our government was formed, no one foresaw that it would be worked by parties. No one dreamed of organizations of voters so comprehensive, powerful, and durable as parties have become. Out of the development of these parties there has come party hostility which is due to a great extent to excessive partisanship. Political parties are necessary and they render essential services to the government. The party nominates candidates for office, conducts campaigns to get these candidates elected, and formulates platforms or programs.
To accomplish the purposes mentioned, certain instruments of political machinery have been developed. Nominating conventions, direct primaries, party committees, and bosses have come into being. The ordinary citizen will find his most effective civic activities in party membership. He will seek at all times to accept the responsibility that goes with it and to help perfect the ideals of party service.

The twenty-ninth chapter deals with public opinion. Unenlightened public opinion is a poor guardian of social welfare. Public opinion is continuous, and men of brains and vision are able to guide it. More citizens are now taking notice of matters that really count. Each generation gossips less and reads more. Newspapers, public speeches, open forums, interscholastic debates, civic sermons, and propaganda literature are busy forming public opinion. If such opinion is to give intelligent orders to the men in public office, it must be guided by trained intelligence. Among those who are rarely disloyal to the interests of the people, and who are qualified to direct opinion are the clergy, the learned professions, and the various permanent organizations of public spirited persons.

Chapter thirty deals with the citizen as a voter. Voting is not just the expression of a private preference. A vote should register an act of judgment. The voter should not vote for his friends solely because they are his friends, but for the public's friends. The good citizen puts public above party when he sees that the interests of the two conflict. When he goes to the polls he should not go as a Republican or a Democrat but as an American, and he should vote for the party or candidate that in his best judgment will give the better service to the
The thirty-first chapter defines democracy. Early in the last century, thoughtful Americans generally held an individualistic social philosophy. Government was considered a necessary evil. Aside from security and order there was no concern for social welfare, save the protection of personal freedom and the rights of property. No one fore-saw the economic development that was to follow.

Chapter thirty-two is a parting look at the problem of the citizen's duty. Some of the general truths that are stressed deal with interests. Wide interests should not be sacrificed to narrow interests. Permanent interests should not be sacrificed to temporary interests, neither should deep interests be sacrificed to the shallow. America deserves its citi-zens to be chivalrous toward her institutions and to be ready to spring to her defense when she is attacked from base motives. An intelligent love of country is necessary to the welfare of all that live within our boundaries.

This book is intelligent and should prove enlightening. Its style is scholarly and lucid; its diction is good. Study helps such as outlines, questions, classroom discussions, debate subjects and references are in-cluded with each chapter. The illustrative materials are charts and graphs. It is noticeable, even to the casual observer, the lack of pictures in the volume. However, the author makes full use of his ability to insert humorous examples in the body of the text. According to this writer, Civic Sociology is an interesting, well-written book, but hardly suitable for a textbook for high school pupils.

The textbook, Social Problems, was written by Ezra Thayer Towne, Ph.D., Professor of Economics and Political Science, and Dean of the
School of Commerce in the University of North Dakota. The present revised edition was copyrighted in 1931, and was published by the Macmillan Company of New York in 1933. There are 400 pages in the volume, and the book sells for $1.75 the copy.

The book is small in size, and has a dark blue durable binding with simple gold lettering. The paper is of excellent quality, and the type is large, clear, and readable.

The aims of the work are clearly stated in the preface, as being a work intended primarily for beginners in the field of social studies. The author does not seek to make any original contributions to the subjects discussed, but rather to collect available material on these subjects, and arrange it in such form that it may be used advantageously as a basis for study in the classroom. The specific aims of the book are to bring before the students of social problems these facts regarding present-day conditions; to indicate certain weaknesses in our social order; to show what has already been done and is being done toward the elimination of these weaknesses; and to impress upon these students, through the presentation of such facts, the possibilities of wise, sane, constructive social action.

The subject matter of this book is organized into seventeen chapters. Each chapter is divided into several topics which will be discussed as this analysis progresses.

The title of the first chapter is "The Influence of Natural Conditions on Economic and Social Development." Back of all social problems are two elements, man and nature. Man is the living, growing, conscious element, ever struggling for ascendancy. Nature is the inert, passive,
but persistent element, which has profoundly influenced man at every stage of his development. Man's progress is largely measured by his increasing control over natural conditions and natural forces. These geographic conditions which are influencing man in his economic, social, and political life are evidently configuration, climate, and natural resources.

Towne emphasizes the ways that man has become less directly dependent upon nature, and what man can contribute to human welfare through the conscious directing of natural forces.

The second chapter directs its attention to the way population problems affect practically every economic and social question. In considering the population of the United States, it is important to know the number of people living in the United States, the density of the population, the age and sex composition, the birth rate and the death rate, the ratio of foreign-born to native-born, and other factors.

The third chapter deals with immigration and more particularly with that large element which has come from other countries; the numbers who have come at successive periods, the countries from which they have come, the causes that induced them to leave their homes, their influence upon social and economic conditions, and finally, the more complete control of immigration.

In chapter five, the author centers his attention on child labor. The immature wage earner first came into being in the cotton factories of England. These children were generally taken from orphan asylums and "bound out" to employers for a period of years. Wretched conditions prevailed until a number of humanitarian leaders became aroused, and as a result of their disclosures, certain prohibitive legislation was
passed. In the United States, child labor did not become an acute problem until some years later.

The causes listed and discussed for the child laborer are poverty, the policies of the employer, the conditions in our schools, and public indifference. The price of child labor is high, to the child, to industry, and to society. It affects the members of society as to health, literacy, wages, efficiency, home and morals, and citizenship.

The fifth chapter is largely an economic discussion of the problem of women in industry. Many of the conditions affecting the employment of women are similar to those affecting the employment of children. Long hours of toil under unhealthful conditions are not only a menace to the health of the woman as they are to the child, but they have quite as serious an effect on all society. Not only from the standpoint of the physical, mental, and moral welfare of the wage earners, but from the standpoint of the welfare of society of the present and of the future, it is necessary that women be protected from the long working day, and from conditions which are a menace to health and morals. Considerable progress has been made toward beneficial legislation since women have become a factor in industry.

The sixth chapter deals with the sweating system. It adequately defines the system, the conditions leading to it, and its operation. Two principal causes are given for the sweating system. One is the nature of the industry and the other, the nature of the available labor supply.

The sweating system has a variety of evils. It is difficult to control the working hours in the home. Wages in the sweated industries are
extremely low, sanitary conditions are wretched, and as may be expected, such places are breeding places for disease. Anything that weakens the physical and moral status of a large number of workers is a serious menace to society.

For the seventh chapter the author inserted a sixteen-page discussion of labor organizations in the United States. From an economic standpoint the material is excellent, but in the eyes of this writer this particular chapter is highly irrelevant in a sociology text. Labor organizations do have a social significance, but in this particular discourse the social factors have become enmeshed in a maze of methods and policies of organized labor and never touched upon.

The eighth chapter discusses the problem of unemployment. This problem not only affects the welfare of society from an economic and social point of view, but it also exerts a most unwholesome influence upon the individual. Nothing is more demoralizing to an individual than idleness, and "an idle nation like an idle man inevitably drifts toward degredation". Idleness leads to shiftlessness, poverty, and often crime.

To remedy the unemployment situation Towne suggests that it can be accomplished by lessening the number of the unemployable, lessening the number who are unemployed because of personal causes, and by lessening the number of persons unemployed because of industrial causes. The establishment of public employment exchanges, the systematic distribution of public work, the regularization of industry and unemployment insurance are discussed and recommended in the closing pages of this chapter.

The ninth chapter deals with the study of the physically handicapped, the blind, and the deaf. The blind were formerly looked upon as a
socially distinct class. Their affliction was regarded as a visitation of the wrath of God, and it was considered that it was not only unnecessary, but also impossible to help them.

In 1771 the French philanthropist, Valentin Haüy, attempted the training and education of a blind boy, and being successful in his attempt, he opened the first school for the blind in 1784. The realization of the duty of society toward her weaker members has grown since that time, and now such schools are scattered throughout the world.

With the gradual development of public care in regard to the blind has come a desire to prevent blindness. This has been the subject of much medical research, and more lately of social investigation and legislation. Industrial training has become a most important phase of the education of the blind. In fact, in educating the blind it is important that everything shall be done to make them as much like the rest of the community as possible.

The deaf are not handicapped to the same extent as are the blind in the industrial world, and they are able to compete on a nearly equal basis with the normal man. In the ancient world they were looked upon as being without the possibility of help, but in the past century great advances have been made in the methods of teaching the deaf and in the opportunities afforded them for an education. It is essential that special schools be provided for the deaf because of the special methods which must be employed in teaching them. This prescribed training, that of training more fully the active senses, is not only important as better fitting them for their place in society, but is also of material assistance to them in opening up various opportunities for gaining a living.
The tenth chapter of this text discusses in some detail the mental defective. Particular emphasis is placed on the feeble-minded and the insane, as to the causes, the care, and the prevention of these conditions.

It is impossible to set up any absolute standard in the mental world, as in the physical, and in any society are found all manner of variations from what might be called the normal type. It is only when the individual is unable to care for himself, or possibly becomes dangerous to himself or others, either because of the non-development of his mental powers, or because of the derangement of his mind, that he is classed among the mentally defective.

In no field of social activity is there greater need of intelligent, effective work than in the care of the mentally deficient. Adequate provision must be made for the large number of feeble-minded who are now mingling in society under no supervision or restraint, unable to compete on equal terms with their normal fellows, or to manage themselves and their affairs with ordinary prudence.

Social service is now considered an adjunct to the proper treatment of the insane. The social worker, through intelligent advice and friendship, may not only prevent persons from becoming insane, but may also be of great assistance in recognizing symptoms, and in securing early treatment for those needing institutional care.

From a social and moral point of view, the cost of mental diseases to society cannot even be measured, as this must take into consideration not only the mental and physical suffering of the individual, but also the part that this class plays in increasing pauperism, intemperance,
immorality, and crime, and finally the affliction that is visited upon the future generation through the inheritance of these mental deficiencies.

In chapter eleven, the author discusses crime and punishment. Some attention is given to the extent and causes of crime, but the subject matter in the main is given over to the elaboration of certain features of the modern treatment of criminals, and the various types of prison labor.

Crime is defined as any act, or omission to act, punished by society as a wrong against itself. Statistics show that the United States has an unenviable pre-eminence in the matter of criminality.

The social environment of an individual, particularly during the period of growth and development, largely determines his line of conduct. When economic conditions are favorable there is apt to be less crime than in periods of economic depression.

When the many and varied causes of crime are considered, it is evident that we cannot rely on any one remedy to eliminate crime. Everything which better the conditions surrounding the life of the individual will make him morally stronger, and thus less prone to commit acts of lawlessness and dishonesty.

It is now recognized that there is no reason why one who has committed an offense against society should be taken from the ranks of producers and be supported by what others have produced. Idleness is demoralizing to an individual, and therefore the prisoner should be regularly employed at some useful work.

The twelfth chapter treats of the social aspects of marriage and
divorce. It is evident that the whole trend of social evolution has been away from the easily broken marriage tie toward the strictly monogamous marriage. The permanent marriage bond between the one husband and the one wife has been characteristic of all our most advanced civilizations. The permanency of the marriage bond is not only in accord with social evolution, but is also in accord with our highest social, ethical, and religious ideals. The welfare of the child, as well as the moral character of the adults, is bound up with the stability of the family, which is the fundamental unit of society.

Due to changing economic and social conditions, and the adjustments growing out of these, there has been an increasing number of divorces.

The best remedy for the present high divorce rate is to concentrate on the underlying causes for the dissatisfaction with marriage. There must be the closest cooperation between the church and the school, and between each of these and the home, in training the child for his place in society. A part of any training for home-making should include the building up of a sane and wholesome attitude toward marriage. An unsuccessful marriage is a tragedy no matter what the solution.

The thirteenth chapter calls attention to the extent of the liquor traffic and its cost to the individual and to society. Intemperance destroys health, reduces mental and physical efficiency, and impairs the life of future generations. From a social standpoint, it is an important factor in crime and insanity; it tends to social disorder and low standards of morality, and causes pauperism and disease. Many investigations have been made in all phases of the liquor traffic in
relation to its various social problems, and a realization was brought to the people of the actual conditions by these agencies. At the same time, there was a growth of social consciousness and a recognition of the necessity for social action.

The problem of poverty is surveyed in the fourteenth chapter. Poverty has existed from the earliest times, and is found in all countries. It is a relative term because it may refer to the large class who are just unable to obtain such necessaries as will permit them to maintain a state of physical efficiency, down to those living in utter destitution. For centuries, poverty was regarded as a natural condition, but now it is looked upon as a disease that can be eradicated.

To consider the number and complexity of the causes of poverty, it is evident there is no one cure-all, or no one line of attack by which we may hope to eliminate this widespread disease from the social body. The attack must be along the whole line of social weaknesses. The mere enumeration of the causes suggests the needed remedies. Problems are never solved until the causes are removed.

The fifteenth chapter discusses conservation in agriculture. It is conceded that the agricultural population should not be sacrificed to the industrial, and that the industrial population will not long remain prosperous if the farmer is not. The real problem in conservation in agriculture is the problem of efficient development and wise utilization of the land.

We are not practicing conservation in regard to our land when we permit millions of acres to be destroyed through erosion, or when we permit land primarily suitable for forests to be used for farming, or when
we allow millions of acres of cut-over land to remain idle when it should be reforested. Our animal life should be conserved also, because anything which affects the health of our domestic animals will seriously affect the economic life of the whole country.

In chapter sixteen, Towne makes a comprehensive survey of the conservation of our natural resources. He discussed at some length how we have wasted our forests, our wild game, and our minerals, and he offers numerous conservative measures to curb this waste. The conclusions that he reaches are more economic and social. This writer feels that this chapter is vital to every person, but in its present form it is tiresome and pedantic in so far as it is directly related to social problems.

The final chapter of this text deals with the conservation of human life. Every six minutes during the year one human being is killed, and every minute eighteen are injured. Such figures make it plain that the question of safety is an important one when dealing with the greatest of our resources, human life. We do not realize what a tremendous offering of lives is taken every day, the tolls that a country pays for its hurry, its greed, and its indifference.

A nation is as great as its people. The four phases of the conservation of its people are ably discussed under the heading of safety, industrial diseases, infant mortality, and general health and sanitation.

Towne concludes this text with the reminder that no remedies for anything can be found which will be satisfactory for all time. Changing conditions bring different problems and different remedies.

Following the last chapter, the author gives some eleven pages of
supplementary questions for each chapter in the texts. References for further reading as well as foot-note references are given at the ends of the chapters. There is an adequate index of five pages.

*Social Problems* has very little logical organization. Now and then the style is interesting and challenging, but for the greater part, the subject matter is a jumbled mass of dates, percentages, and "tall" figures. The books lack unity.

The maps, charts, graphs, and pictures are accurate and interesting. With the exception of the supplementary questions and references, there are no teaching or learning aids.

Apparently the text is not on the high-school level. It might have been recommended on college reading lists several years ago, but even the present revision has not produced a book for the modern secondary schools. Its content is designed to promote the objectives of the course despite the fact that the subject matter fails to follow through. The subject matter is sound in scholarship from the viewpoint of an economist, but not from a sociologist. Only a few chapters of the entire book will challenge the interest of the pupils. If the book is to be continued on the recommended list for secondary schools of Texas, it needs complete revision.

The textbook, *Social Living*, was written by Paul H. Landis, Associate Professor of Sociology, in the State College of Washington, and Judson T. Landis, Instructor in the Ross High School in Fremont, Ohio. The book is sometimes referred to under the title of *Principles and Problems in Introductory Sociology*. According to these authors, a mimeographed edition of this book was used in teaching sociology in
classrooms, for three years. The book was found to be satisfactory, and after a three-year test was printed and released for general use. Social Living was copyrighted in 1938, and published by Ginn and Company in the same year. It contains 572 pages and retails for $1.50.

This book aims at a normal view of society. The youth should not be faced with a transitory, fleeting, and disorganized world that is so hopelessly filled with problems that he cannot solve. It can indeed face him with the challenge of a permanent, wholesome social order characterized by certain deep-moving currents of change. Schools giving only a one-semester course are urged to concentrate on Part Three. Since only one-semester courses are offered in Texas High Schools, this writer will summarize and evaluate only the final section.

Unit III treats of the problems of divorce, women and children who work, and juvenile delinquency in the primary group. Man experiences his utmost intimate relationships in the primary group; yet even here the place and security of the social unit are often challenged.

The eighteenth chapter deals with the problem of the undermining of the home. Divorce, the legal sanction of an already broken home, is rapidly increasing in America. It is estimated that approximately one in six marriages ends in the morass of the divorce court, leaving behind blasted hopes, disorganized lives, and occasionally neglected children. The material culture developed by our industrial society has weakened economic, recreational, religious, educational bonds, so that the family must be held together primarily by affection.

The hazards of modern marriage call for the training of youth for family responsibilities.
The nineteenth chapter seeks to compare the vocational outlook of the modern girl with that of her grandmother, and also try to understand the problems that women and children face as wage earners. The employment of women in modern industry differs from their work in previous periods in history in that it takes them from the home. Social legislation has gradually laid down minimum requirements for safe working conditions, but women are still discriminated against in the matter of remuneration.

Child labor in early factories was detrimental to life and health. At present, the number of child workers has been declining because of legislation and compulsory school laws. There are still many children who, by being employed in industry, are deprived of schooling and of an opportunity for a normal childhood.

In the twentieth chapter, juvenile delinquency is traced not to the youth, but to a disorganized neighborhood, a disrupted home, or an antisocial play group. A recognition of the fact that delinquency is deeply rooted in the social group has led society to substitute training for punishment in dealing with the delinquent child. Juvenile courts, probation, and training schools are the devices employed in dealing with the wayward youth. The theory underlying this treatment is that if the child can be led to understand society and find a normal place in it, he will become normal in his behavior. However, it is recognized that these remedial measures can never be as effective as prevention, which must aim at improving the home and community environment of America's youth.

The twenty-first chapter considers both heredity and environmental
factors as causes of crime, and emphasizes the belief that hope lies in prevention rather than in cure. According to the sociologist, a crime is an act which is harmful to society, and which therefore, society has the right to punish. It is pointed out that what is harmful in one society may be beneficial to another. Therefore, what is a crime in one society may not be a crime in another.

There have been many theories about crime. In all probability the criminal is a result of a combination of poor heredity and environment. A few of the chief conditions in our civilization that cause crime are unemployment, broken homes, slow court methods, and intemperance. It is noticeable that many of them are among the young people of the immigrant families in our population and among those who are mentally below normal. Annually crimes cost more than public education, and the only way to reduce this burdensome expenditure is to reduce crime by improving environmental conditions so that citizens will not turn against society.

In the twenty-second chapter, modern methods of taming the criminal and helping him to become useful to society are discussed. Galleries, dungeons, and stuffy jails are being replaced in the more enlightened communities, by modern institutions whose primary aim is to help prisoners to live a normal social existence.

Chapter twenty-three attempts to place the responsibility for poverty more upon uncorrected weaknesses of our social system than upon the poor themselves. Standards of living differ greatly. Those living below the level where minimum provisions to sustain life are available are said to be in poverty. In early times, those in poverty received
aid through private charity. Today the care of the poor has become a state responsibility and is recognized as such. We have achieved a higher standard of living than any other country on earth, but until we have organized our economic system so that every man may have work and earn for himself the things he needs to maintain life and health, we are short of our social goal.

The twenty-fourth chapter explains how our government is developing a program of social security for the welfare of its citizens so that the socially inadequate groups may have certain minimum requirements for their maintenance. Social insecurity must not be traced to individual laziness or neglect, but primarily, to impersonal factors in our social civilization. The government has stepped in to set up some minimum standards for guaranteeing the laborer his daily bread.

The twenty-fifth problem changes from the rehabilitative measure of the preceding chapter to the study of rural people and their institutions in an attempt to understand the rural problem. Those reared in rural communities have developed behavior traits considerably different from those brought up under the influence of the urban culture pattern. The farm has many natural advantages as a place to live. However, the farm has felt the influence of mechanization. Rural institutions have decreased in importance with the coming of the automobile and good roads.

The lure of city positions, combined with farm machinery, which has reduced the number of workers on the farm, has led to a heavy migration of rural youth to cities. The national government has realized that the cities are draining the best blood of the rural areas, and they
are making an effort to develop a pride in agriculture that it justly merits by encouraging home ownership through farm loans, regulating tenancy, and sponsoring organizations for the youth.

The small town is the half-way station between the country and the city. In the twenty-sixth chapter the authors give us a picture of its people, its work, its institutions, and its problems. The American small town is to a considerable extent the farmer's town. It provides him with a shopping center, a market, professional services, and a recreational center. When the rural route was established, many small towns disappeared. Highways have made it impossible for small towns to compete with cities and its great enterprises, but most small towns still exist to meet the daily needs of the farmer. For his more special needs, however, he goes to the city. The wise town will capitalize on the mobility of the farm group, and draw people to trade in its areas by appealing to them.

The city has its problems too. The twenty-seventh chapter takes the reader through the colorful areas of a great city, which shows very aptly civilization at its best and at its worst. On this trip through the city we see a strange world of peoples, customs, mores, and institutions. The great city has challenged the ingenuity of the social engineer and the scientist as well. It still remains smoky, noisy, and lacking in many comforts. In spite of its weaknesses, the city is still the seat of refinement, invention, finance, and power. It is a peculiar blending of the best and the worst in human behavior.

The twenty-eighth chapter deals with population problems. All creatures have a tendency to multiply to capacity, but of those born, a
relatively small proportion reach maturity and reproduce. Nature provides checks and balances to keep the numbers of different species in control. Man in the modern Western world has done better than at any previous time in building a culture that protects life and always allows a considerable proportion of the offspring to reach maturity.

The twenty-ninth chapter emphasizes that the problem of keeping the bloodstream pure is very important for the race of tomorrow. Our humanitarian sentiments should not jeopardize the welfare and happiness of the coming generations.

In the thirtieth chapter these authors stress good health as a social responsibility. The sick are a burden to themselves and to society, for they often become dependent, and in cases where they carry communicable diseases, they infect the healthy. Under existing conditions it is impossible for the poor and the lower middle classes to have adequate medical care. It seems logical that medical care will have to be made available to all through the field of socialized medicine. There is no reason to believe that a system as effective as the public schools could not be worked out over a period of years. Experiment in school health service, public clinics, and rural aid have already been remarkably successful.

The mentally defective are discussed in the thirty-first chapter of this text. The mentally defective include the insane and the feebleminded. The insane are those who have become mentally disorganized by experience, although in many cases there were predisposing hereditary weaknesses. The feebleminded are born without the mental capacity to make social adjustments. The cure of insanity lies in early treatment.
Feeblemindedness has no cure, although the training of those of higher mentality is important in helping them to become socially useful.

The prevention of feeblemindedness lies chiefly in eugenics. The treatment of insanity lies in proper habit formation and guidance. Unstable and problem children should be guided by parents and teachers so that they will learn to make social adjustments and also to face their problems frankly. Living in a complex world where the stress and strain of social adjustment taxes us to the utmost, we need to practice sound principles of mental hygiene. We need to face life squarely and courageously.

Chapter thirty-two stresses recreation and the need of it. Recreation is not a waste and a sin, but a road to health, efficiency, and morality. The Machine Age has liberated man from grilling toil and created leisure for the favored few. To others, the Machine Age has brought enforced leisure through unemployment and reduced working hours. Idleness tortures the mind with worry, anxiety, and fears; it provides time also for scheming and mischief-making. It is a social waste and a liability, for which the only substitute is work and recreation. If in this era of joblessness we cannot provide work, we must, as a matter of social policy, for the protection of the individual against himself and of society against his degeneration, provide healthful, stimulating recreation. It is not a question of making people happy; it is a question of making them good and mentally sound as well.

The thirty-third chapter indicates the race and nationality problems confronting us at the present time. The chief American race problem is the Negro problem, which involves almost a tenth of the American
population. The Negro was brought to America without any choice in the matter, and was maintained in a slave status until the Civil War, when he was suddenly made a freeman without having been given time to acquire the attitudes and a sense of responsibility essential to the freeman. His problem has been one of becoming accommodated to a new status.

Behind all prejudice are economic competition, a clash of culture patterns, and an assumption of race superiority and inferiority. Cut-and-dried suggestions cannot be given as a solution for American race problems. A parallel system of institutions and activities, though it tends to perpetuate race differences, does prevent conflict and lessens the most active forms of prejudice. It is still possible for racial groups to live side by side acquiring the best of the other's culture, yet remaining an isolated group in the white man's world.

The thirty-fourth chapter offers suggestions as to the maintenance of world peace. People should be educated to the horrors of war. We must never forget that war undermines a nation socially, mentally, physically, and financially.

Landis and Landis close their book with a chapter on progress. The sociologists believe that civilization is of man's making, and that man might have done a better job if he had worked more thoughtfully. By a thorough and careful study of society each individual may come to play a more intelligent part in the building of his community and in the adjusting of human relations.

This book is quite superior in the special teaching devices that the authors have provided. The textbook is just one of the several tools that the teacher has at his disposal. The subject matter is
divided into units, and each unit is subdivided into chapters. At the beginning of each chapter is a statement of the substance to be found in that chapter, together with a full-page illustration suggesting the theme. At the close of each chapter is a combined summary and conclusion.

Each chapter presents review questions, problems, projects, and activities, and a list of reading appear at the end of each chapter. A glossary, bibliography, and index conclude this book. There are many challenging pictures, charts, and graphs throughout the book.

The writer finds that this book has all the earmarks of an excellent text. It is well written, thought provoking, and logically organized. In the textbook set-up of Texas, the teacher would have a difficulty in beginning with Unit III. It is to be hoped that the authors will make a revision for the states teaching half-year courses.

After making a critical analysis of the preceding six books recommended by the State Department of Education, as to content, this writer assumes that recommendations as to the best book of the series should be withheld until there has been made a comparative listing of the objectives in each of the books. Following a summation of objectives there will be a mechanical comparison of the textbooks and a recommendation as to this writer's opinion of the choicest book on the list.
CHAPTER V

SOME CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This investigation has undertaken to determine the provisions
made for sociology in Texas high schools at the present time in order
to see whether these provisions represent any significant trend or
privileges in the secondary education of Texas. Trends do not neces-
sarily indicate ultimate goals, but they do indicate the direction in
which certain practices are moving and the rate of such movement. It
is obvious that an accurate picture of present practices would provide
a better basis for any recommendation than would be possible without
a knowledge of these trends.

The senior high school is for a large part of American youth their
last contact with formal education. It is assumed that when a student
has completed the course of the secondary school that he will have a
somewhat comprehensive and coherent overview of the great institutions
of life. He should have made personality adjustments that will assure
he will take his place wisely in the institutions that make up our com-
mon culture.

From the observation of high school students made by this writer
over a period of years, it is her contention that the modern high school
student is not ready to assume the responsibilities that are confronting
them without further training in social living. On the surface the
1. To understand the nature of society, the characteristics of social life, and the influence of social life upon the individual.

2. To appreciate the meaning of civilization, its material and non-material aspects; and to point out the changing, continuous, and cumulative character of civilization.

3. To grasp the basic causal significance of heredity and environment, and to distinguish between biological and social heredity and between geographical and cultural environment.

4. To visualize the growth of our American civilization from a transplanted European culture and to appreciate some of the chief features of our American democracy.

5. To discover how geographical features have influenced the course of history and the character of civilization.

6. To survey the biological limitations to social progress.

7. To show the changes that have taken place in the population of the United States, and to point out the significance of these changes.

8. To analyze our basic institutions and to understand their significance in the social life of today.

9. To point out some of the problems that confront the consumer in our modern economic system.

10. To indicate the significance and extent of child labor in the United States, as well as some attempts to regulate their working conditions.

11. To show the evils of sweatshop labor and the efforts that are being made to eliminate it.

12. To point out the extent and causes of unemployment.

13. To show some of the efforts that are being made to provide security for the workers in the United States.

14. To point out the meaning, extent, and causes of poverty.

15. To point out the extent, cost, nature, and causes of crime.

16. To show the methods used in the treatment of criminals and to evaluate some reforms that have been suggested.

17. To indicate the social significance of the problem of the physically and mentally handicapped.

18. To point out the social significance of health.

19. To show some of the measures that have been adopted to protect and improve the public health.

20. To show the increase and importance of leisure in our modern economic system.

21. To show the social importance of housing.

22. To stress the significance of government in a study of social problems.

23. To trace the process by which public opinion becomes legislation.

24. To appreciate the rights and privileges of citizenship, as well as its corresponding duties and obligations.

25. To understand some of the chief problems of the modern city and to evaluate various remedial measures.

26. To show the importance, the organization, and the functions
of political parties.
27. To explain the nature and significance of pressure groups and propaganda.
28. To show the functions and social significance of education.
29. To show the functions and social significance of the family.
30. To examine the reasons for the present instability of family life and to discover how a wholesome home life can be maintained.
31. To understand the nature and social significance of morality.
32. To understand the nature and social significance of religion.
33. To understand the nature and importance of social control.
34. To indicate the nature and significance of social ideals and social progress.
35. To point out some of the maladjustments that retard progress and to emphasize the importance of promoting progress through orderly adjustment.

In the Gavian, Gray, and Groves text, Our Changing Social Order, the objectives are not so clearly stated as in the preceding book. Despite the lack of a clear-cut list, this writer will compile a list based on the previous summation.

1. To help pupils improve their social environment.
2. To show the student how to use in his daily life the basic principles of sociology, psychology, and mental hygiene.
3. To prepare the student for well-informed participation in public affairs.
4. To teach pupils to think objectively about the existing social arrangements and others that might be adopted.
5. To develop an understanding that human nature even in difficulty is sound and that our institutions should be altered to fit whenever necessary.
6. To stimulate a keen interest in people and in society.
7. To show what is meant by social heritage.
8. To describe the ways that men invented to make their
relations with each other more orderly and satisfying.

9. To inquire into the differences between people, and the importance of inheritance, race, and sex in determining ability.

10. To explain what environment does to the growing personality.

11. To show why maladjusted people turn to alcohol.

12. To show what makes the criminal.

13. To discuss how leisure may be used for true recreation.

14. To analyze some of the characteristics most to be desired in a marriage partner.

15. To show how modern developments are affecting the family, and to suggest reasons for the alarming increase of divorce.

16. To consider how education is the chief means by which individuals may improve their adjustments.

17. To show how housing is closely connected with mental and physical health.

18. To show how community planning can give us garden cities, and what can be achieved by good planning.

19. To consider the party system in the United States.

20. To deal with the problem of public opinion in a democracy.

21. To consider whether agriculture can be saved as a way of life.

22. To make proposals for increasing farm security.

23. To inquire into whether the national income can be made adequate.

24. To indicate some signs and instruments of social progress.
Quinn states in the preface of his book, The Social World, the objectives of his work.

1. To indicate the extreme importance of social relations in human behavior.
2. To describe and interpret the basic characteristics of the social world.
3. To give a balanced, well-rounded view of social life.
4. To indicate the importance of culture in analyzing human social relations.
5. To furnish a perspective of cultural evolution.
6. To develop an objective but sympathetic attitude toward social life and its problems.
7. To introduce the student to the study of sociology.
8. To familiarize the student with some of the concepts of sociology such as folkways, mores, primary group, out-group, community, institution, interaction, conflict, subordination, person, and role.
9. To stimulate appreciation of the need for trained social workers and social reformers.
10. To analyze the normal rather than the abnormal aspects of social life.
11. To discuss only the social aspects of reality.
12. To substitute concrete analyzing to formal, abstract discussion.
13. To attempt to form an adequate picture of the modern social world.
14. To introduce contrasting forms of social life.
15. To approach every phase of discussion through questions.
16. To keep in mind the personal interests of the students.
17. To introduce a certain degree of repetition so that the student may learn the points thoroughly.
18. To indicate the importance of group life to the person.
19. To afford an approach to the study of institutions.

Ross seeks to offer the American high school student the following objectives in his latest book entitled Civic Sociology.

1. To acquaint the student with the master trends in American society.
2. To introduce the youth to such issues as personal liberty, commercialism, sectionalism, sectarianism, and class struggle.
3. To give the youth an impetus which in due time will develop
him into an intelligent and public-spirited citizen.

5. To discuss the trend of population with its increasing pressure upon our natural resources.

6. To show how the modern family is changing and to suggest some of the remedies that will stabilize family relations.

7. To modify our attitude toward the child as a vital community concern.

8. To enumerate ways for socializing health.

9. To discover the causes for the amazing progress of education, and the motives that have prompted society to promote it.

10. To explain the social defense against crime.

11. To discuss poverty and its prevention.

12. To explain the fields of government regulation of business.

13. To determine the best methods of speeding up social progress.

14. To consider why laws should command willing obedience.

15. To discuss freedom of speech and personal competition as a social concern.

16. To stimulate social interest in government.

17. To indicate the duties of a citizen in a democracy.

In Social Problems by Towne, there is no effort made to clarify objectives either in the preface or in the textual material. These objectives will be formulated from the textbook summation of the previous chapter and credited to this volume.

1. To bring before the students of social problems and facts regarding present-day conditions.

2. To indicate certain weaknesses in our social order.
3. To impress on students the possibilities of wise, sane, and constructive social action.

4. To discuss the influence of natural conditions on economic and social development.

5. To discover the general nature of population.

6. To analyze the effect of immigration on society.

7. To show the effects of child labor and women in industry.

8. To expose some of the evils of the sweating system.

9. To acquaint the student with the problem of unemployment and its social effects.

10. To indicate the social significance of the physically and mentally handicapped.

11. To point the social significance of crime and punishment.

12. To survey the family and its problems.

13. To acquaint the student with the liquor problem.

14. To discuss the social effects of poverty.

15. To create an interest in the conservation of natural resources, in agriculture, and those of human life.

The final book for which objectives will be listed is Social Living by Landis and Landis. Since only the last third of the book is being evaluated, only those objectives applying to that portion will be enumerated.

1. To discover how the foundations of the American family are being undermined by social change.

2. To compare the vocational outlook of the modern girl with that of her grandmother, and also to try to understand the problems women and
children face as wage earners.

3. To trace the roots of juvenile delinquency.

4. To consider how both heredity and environmental factors can be the major causes of crime.

5. To show how severely past societies treated their offenders, and to discuss modern methods of helping the criminal to become a useful member of society.

6. To determine the causes of poverty.

7. To attempt to understand the problems of the rural communities, the small towns, and the cities.

8. To describe the tendency of all creatures to multiply to capacity, and thereby creating population problems.

9. To call attention to the prevention of disease, and to show that good health can be realized most fully through the development of socialized medicine.

10. To try to understand the nature of the mentally sick and the mentally incompetent.

11. To study the race and nationality problem as they relate to our groups.

12. To discuss a means for establishing world peace.

13. To point out the parts that individuals may play in making a better society.

After enumerating the objectives of the six books under discussion, it is more than evident that there are objectives that are common to all of them. Some are more detailed than others, but the primary objectives are still paramount. There is no generally accepted list of objectives
for a course in sociology, and there probably never will be, but in the
eyes of this writer, the following ten seem to be uppermost in the minds
of those concerned in the writing of textbooks for the secondary schools
that have served as the basis for this inquiry. These objectives are:

1. To develop an inquiring attitude as to the nature and causes
   of social problems.

2. To understand the nature of group life and why it is necessary.

3. To understand the influence of heredity and environment on the
   individual.

4. To identify our major social problems and to understand their
   underlying causes.

5. To understand the nature of our basic institutions of our
   society and how they function.

6. To see how the government contributes to public welfare, and
   to recognize the duties of a citizen.

7. To develop a toleration for other race and nationality groups
   in our society.

8. To gain an insight into the nature of social cooperation.

9. To prepare high school students for future participation in
   our social institutions.

10. To develop a faith in group life.

In the final evaluation of the textbook to be recommended for state
adoption, there are certain general criteria that govern textbook select-
on and must be taken into consideration.

A textbook reflects and establishes certain standards. It indicates
all too frequently perhaps what the teacher is required to know and what
the pupils are supposed to learn. Textbooks play an important role in American education and it is necessary to secure books of high quality. A textbook should not be recommended because of the occupational status of its author. It is interesting to know who writes the books, but a college professor is not necessarily the logical person to write books for secondary school unless he has the ability to sense and interpret students' reactions.

The size of a textbook depends on its functions. If there are only a limited number of supplementary books available it is doubtlessly desirable to have a larger, less compact book. It is quite noticeable that the newer books tend to be larger, and it may be assumed that it reflects the modern educational trend.

Pictures in a textbook are recommended if they are judiciously selected, properly placed, and skillfully utilized. It is noteworthy that illustrations have increased in recent years despite their cost. Maps, charts, and graphs, are valuable if they are properly captioned, placed, and utilized.

The title of a textbook is supposed to convey some idea of its contents, but it is probably justifiable to assume the modern books are not sufficiently reliable in this respect to warrant the serious consideration of the teacher. The wisest course seems to be to attach no great significance to titles, but to search the books for its merits.

To some book analysts dates determine the desirability. It is unwise to make a fetish of recency. A twenty-year-old book may be

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2E. B. Wesley, p. 285, Teaching the Social Studies.
superior in many respects to the latest one published. A good teacher can use an old book and bring it up to date. The demand should be based on the nature of the material in the book and not the new date line.

The table of contents of a book can be very revealing. It is supposed to indicate the scope and the organization of the book. In fact it is designed to give at a glance the general contents of the book. The teacher assumes that the table of contents actually reveals the logical outline of the subject matter.

The method recommended for checking the adequacy of an index in a given book is to open the book at random, note the first proper name on the page, and see if it appears in the index. There are exceptions to this method because sometimes the word selected was mentioned incidentally and has no place in the index. However, several such tests may discover a deficient index. Accuracy of the index may be checked by turning to the index, choosing a word at random, and then checking its appearance on the page indicated. It is noted that modern books make use of supplementary materials, and it is generally assumed that present indexes are satisfactory.

The value of learning aids in textbooks is widely accepted. Many different types are included in the average book and frequently their utilitarian value is questioned, but there seems to be a justification in including a reasonable number.

Proper names and dates should not burden sociology textbooks. To discover the approximate idea of the number of proper names in a textbook, Wesley suggests "count the number on twenty random pages, finding the average, and multiplying by the number of pages in the book".
The acceptable textbook has vivid diction, picturesque headings, and colorful sentences. The greater the detail of the larger books enables the student to get a better understanding of the facts involved. Clarity is fundamental as well as a natural, unaffected style is fundamental.

It is the opinion of this writer the fundamental questions that should be considered in selecting a textbook are those formulated by E. B. Wesley, in his book, Teaching the Social Studies.

1. Is its content designed to promote the objectives of the course?
2. Is it sound in scholarship?
3. Is it adapted to the maturity and ability of the pupils?
4. Will it challenge the interest of the pupils?
5. Is it clear and simple in organization?
6. Are its teaching and learning aids helpful?

In reaching a conclusion as to the merit of a particular textbook this writer gave careful and unbiased consideration of the above questions with reference to each of the six books. Definite comparisons were made with regard to the objectives, the content, and the mechanical setup of each text. On the basis of the findings this writer presumes to recommend that American Social Problems, by Patterson, Little, and Burch, be adopted as the textbook for sociology by the State of Texas. The choice was difficult to make because this writer recognizes the excellence of the other books, but to serve the best interests of the pupils, this recommendation is submitted.
CHAPTER IV

AN ENUMERATION AND GENERAL SUMMATION OF THE
OBJECTIVES FOUND IN THE RECOMMENDED
TEXTBOOKS

The purpose of this chapter is to list the large number of aims
and objectives gleaned from each of the six books analyzed and evalu-
ated in the preceding chapter. From these aims and objectives this
writer will attempt to formulate a list of objectives that should be
the general basis for a high-school course in sociology. On the basis
of the objectives and the mechanical features of the six books pre-
viously discussed, a recommendation will be made for the adoption of
the book that most nearly fulfills the requirements.

These aims and objectives are to be by no means an exhaustive
list of the proffered aims of the sociologist, and no attempt will be
made to organize or classify them. The objectives are by no means mu-
tually inclusive, and there is tremendous overlapping. Some of them
are trivial, impractical and vague, but they stimulate thoughtful con-
sideration. From them will be evolved a summation of objectives. These
lists will be compiled in the same order as the summations of the pre-
ceding chapter.

In the textbook, American Social Problems, by Patterson, Little,
and Burch, the following objectives are definitely stated by the authors.
To expedite matters only the major objectives will be listed in their entirety.
institutions of the home, the school, and the churches are well ordered, but beneath this apparent orderliness are fears of insecurity, divorce, race antagonisms, and many other minor ills. Modern students sense this undercurrent, and when they ask questions about them, they are left puzzled because of the reluctant answers or the rebukes they have received. They are not satisfied to believe without question the endless maze of textbook wandering. The young live in the present, and they have every right to the best opportunity there is.

We are living in a rapidly changing age. The development of physical science has been so rapid that social science development has not kept pace with it. The actual objectives of much of our education still rests largely on our faiths and beliefs. Education is lagging behind in a rapidly changing civilization. All too commonly are schools following educational plans made years ago, as if the students were to be in the same sort of world that existed when their parents were young. Book knowledge must be put to work soon after it has been acquired or it soon fades beyond recall. It is a question whether any kind of knowledge must be or will be practical in real-life situations.1 We can have no satisfactory set of working principles in the construction of the curricula until we possess fairly acceptable analyses, qualitative and quantitative, of the values of social life.2

The question is frequently asked, "Why give valuable time to this relatively young science, sociology, which has elbowed in among the

2 David Snedden, Educational Sociology, p. 19.
older courses of the high school?" Its very existence in the curriculum suggests there is something worth studying and understanding. Sociology has a definite contribution to make to the field of secondary education. It possesses an intrinsic nature and a body of facts and ideas which provide a definite point of view, and is of fundamental value.  

Sociology furnishes in concrete form those materials for developing our fellow man. It does its small share in helping the schools to meet the need of youth in the complicated environment in which he lives. One of the chief justifications for a course in sociology is the advancement of an understanding of the methods of study and the modes of thought of the sociologist in his consideration of the many-sided aspect of group life. We study sociology that we may learn how to improve the social arrangements under which we live. These arrangements that the student has a large share in making are our family, our play groups, the school, the church, and other primary relationships.

To social problems no final answers are known. . . . Each generation has to refine the institutions handed down from the past. If social change is to be orderly, it must come about by general consent. It is therefore necessary that we understand the machinery for changing public opinion.

Sociology illuminates all our experiences with people, and all the

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5R. Gavian, Society Faces the Future, p. VI.
political, economic, and social changes that are going on everywhere.

The secondary schools of Texas have made some little progress in introducing the study of sociology into the curricula. That progress is indicated in the data compiled and shown in the appendix of this study. The results of the study seem to warrant the following conclusions:

1. Of the 1,298 accredited two-year and four-year high schools in the state of Texas, 80 of that number are accredited in sociology. Six out of the 80 are colored high schools.

2. Nineteen of the 74 white schools are Class A schools. (A Class A high school has an enrollment of more than 500.) The remaining 55 schools are Class B.

3. Of the 24 Supervisory Districts, #2 leads the state in having 8 of its schools accredited. This district centers in the Lubbock area. District 13 (Alpine) has 7 schools accredited, while Districts 15 (Waco) and 16 (Palestine) have 6 each. It is significant to note that Districts (5) Denton, 14 (San Angelo), and 18 (San Antonio) have no schools accredited in the field.

4. Of the 244 high schools belonging to the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 22 of the number are accredited in sociology.

5. The State Department of Education sets up no standards for the teaching of sociology. There is no provision made for free textbooks. The six books, summarized in the third chapter of the study, are recommended indiscriminately because there has been no adoption.

6. Sociology cannot be used as a college entrance credit if
there is also a credit in economics, unless it is a Class A high school. Economics is recommended as being a more desirable combination with civics than sociology.

7. There is no unity among the sociology teachers of the state. No guidance is available other than a few generalized aims. The required list of written material that is to be kept on file in sociology applies to history, civics, and economics, also.

8. The following graph indicates that sociology teaching has steadily increased since 1922, but the rate has been relatively slow.
Fig. 2. Distribution of schools included in this study
One who faces the facts cannot escape the conviction that the present status of sociology in Texas has not been considered a very important factor in the educational process. This writer makes no effort to determine why the subject has not taken stronger hold except to make some pertinent generalizations of the present trends. Institutions resist change as long as possible. . . . A new way does not seem essential, even if possibly it is desirable, and to keep on with the old is easier. . . . People revere the past and cherish the cultural patterns that are familiar. From youth generally comes the demand for reform. It is the prediction of this writer that the youth of today will alter the traditional institutions because they are less devoted to symbols and to sentiments, and are more interested in the future.

Whether or not teachers in service can be depended upon to make any worthwhile contributions to the course of study is a matter of opinion. It is a further contention of this writer that if the classroom teachers of our secondary schools were afforded the opportunities to do so, they would contribute ideas that might have a determining influence upon educational progress. The progressive teachers have attempted to teach social understanding of our present-day problems so that there may be social reconstruction through educational reconstruction. The teacher is by all odds, the most influential factor in high school education. Curriculum organization and equipment, important as they are, count for little or nothing except as they are vitalized by the living personality.

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6 R. Gavian, Society Faces the Future, p. 28.
This writer presumes to advocate the need for sociology in all secondary schools. To be effective the study of sociology should enable pupils to see their community in a different light, to penetrate beneath the surface of current situations, in order to see the forces which are operating, the conflict situations which arise, the interplay of folkways and mores in social relations, and the influence of groups and their loyalties.\(^8\)

Finney says: "The school is the steering gear of a democratic society. Education is the chief agency of social control and social progress, and the chief means of social salvation in the present crisis. Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe."\(^9\)

To those who are seeking to improve the services rendered by the state, it is believed that the following recommendations are worthy of consideration:

1. Provide a definite and specific place in the state course of study for sociology.

2. Set up a basis for definite instruction in the certain fundamental social concepts. Provide a program so that there will be definite instruction relating to human relationships in group life, and in the establishment of attitudes and values.

3. Standardize the teaching of sociology, to such an extent that teachers should be adequately prepared to teach the concepts of sociology, and will be encouraged by the colleges and universities in Texas to


become trained in the field.

4. Adopt an appropriate textbook, and make it available on the same basis as the other textbooks used in the secondary schools.

Our civilization faces chaos. Our hope lies in our youth. To that youth this writer recommends a knowledge of specific social relationships.

We moderns are like mariners on a ship sailing an uncharted sea. We cannot lay our course in the light of the experience of our ancestors. None of them ever plowed these waters. . . .

Science and invention have borne us away from the routes followed by any previous society. They have brought us into strange latitudes where we have nothing to go by. They do not allow us to feel our way deliberately, put out scout-boats, take soundings. They hurry us on. So the best we can do is to set watchers to scan the horizon. The sociologist is just a man in a crow's nest who knows no more of this sea than his fellows, but from his position he will catch sight of the coming danger—shoals, sunken rocks, derelicts, cross currents—before they are seen by those on deck.10

10 E. A. Ross, The Social Trend, p. 193
## APPENDIX

**SCHOOLS ACCREDITED IN SOCIOLOGY**

**IN THE STATE OF TEXAS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Supervisory District</th>
<th>Number of Credits</th>
<th>1938-39 Enrollment</th>
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Appendix (continued)

Schools Accredited in Sociology in the State of Texas

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Appendix (Continued)

Schools Accredited in Sociology in the State of Texas

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<th>Number of District Credits</th>
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<td>Star Bailey (Overton) &quot;</td>
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*Indicates Class A Schools (Schools of more than 500 enrollment)
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