

A Curriculum Study
Demonstrating the Use of the Contrast Method in
American History for Eleventh Grade Pupils
of Exceptional Ability

A Thesis

Submitted to the Department of
Education and the Graduate Council of the Kansas State
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the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science

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INTRODUCTION

The Nature of the Study

The purpose of this study--a problem in curriculum construction--is to demonstrate the use of the "contrast method" in eleventh grade American history, using for special treatment the outstanding social, economic, and political problems that confront society.

The Plan of Treatment

The procedure used in construction involves the following points:

1. The selection of socially significant problems.

This selection is determined by the opinions of outstanding leaders in thought, of leading educators, and by the reports of special commissions for the study of crucial problems--such as those called by governmental leaders and by legislative bodies. The preferential ballot of the National Economic League is believed to be an excellent barometer of American opinion in regard to the paramount problems of the nation.¹

2. The determination of the history of these problems within the national period.

3. A tentative survey, naturally a very incomplete treatment of the present, is all-important in the arrangement of material for the pupil's initial attack on a particular problem.

1. See Appendix III.

4. A contrast of the status of the problem when it first appeared on the historical horizon with the situation as it stands today.

5. The determination of the recurrence of the problem in the intervening time between its first appearance and the present. Should the problem recur during this interval, note the apparent progression or regression with respect to the present status.

6. Special attention is given to the part played by inherited prejudices, customs, and folkways, which may have had a proper role in an earlier society, as for instance in the individualistic and pre-industrial period, in the days when the theocracy flourished, in the patriarchal or the monarchical times. The material has been so arranged that one may, by cautious, conscious contrast, see for himself the possible inconsistencies of the times and gauge his judgments accordingly.

THE CLASSROOM USE OF THE STUDY

The course is planned in line with the modern notion of curriculum enrichment and is intended only for the use of outstanding pupils in unselected groups as their special individual contribution to the regular history class work of the year.

The gifted pupil should be given an opportunity to select, to pursue, and to present to his group his findings on some particular problem such as "immigration", "child labor", etc. He should report on his findings from time to time. These reports should stimulate class discussion and thinking on the important questions of the day.

These studies are intended to supplement, rather than to supplant, the regular chronological course in the history of the national period. They deal more specifically with the crucial problems of the present in their perspective, rather than with a haphazard, incidental chronological treatment. The understanding of the present difficulties of the intricate industrial and social order, and not the memorization of dates and other gewgaws, is the goal.¹ The plan is built on the assumption that there is something of value in the remote events of history, which may be of use to the pupil in interpreting the present complex industrial society of which he should feel

1. Rather than the mere learning of traditional things for tradition's sake, the tradition must serve in helping the child to interpret for himself the present and to assist him in solving the problems that lie just ahead. See E. P. Cubberley, Public School Administration, p. 412.

himself a part, and that there is a relationship of the past to the present. And that relationship should have a much closer temporal presentation, in order to function properly in the interpretation of the present, than is usually the case in conventional chronological treatment of events. This, of course, is assuming that the curve of forgetting applies to the retention of remote historic material. If the pupil is to be allowed to put his own interpretation on the always complex situations of history, the relative situations must be brought close together in time of attack and presentation, in order to avoid serious error due to the normal rate of forgetting.

It is a well established fact that old attitudes, prejudices and customs, persist in coloring judgments and reactions to situations, even long after legislative and judicial action have been taken to correct a social ill. Is it unreasonable to suppose that these same prejudices, inherited attitudes, and customs affect in an adverse way the solution of difficult social questions?

These contrasts are intended to give the pupil an opportunity to note the setting in which his own particular prejudices, attitudes, and dominating customs in regard to a given problem originated, and to better condition him to determine for himself the advisability of any specific course of action or position dependent upon these inherited tendencies.

CONTRAST STUDIES IN AMERICAN HISTORY

Part I.

IMMIGRATION

The pupil who takes upon himself the study of contrasts in immigration, past and present, as a special year's problem and who presents it in such a vital way that his group may appreciate it, will have performed a service that cannot be measured by marks on grade cards. Probably no greater service in national citizenship could be rendered than to bring to one's fellow Americans a better understanding of themselves by showing the part immigrants have played and are continuing to play in our intricate social and economic life.

Only a few lines of the study are here suggested and any live young American will quickly see the possibilities of enriching his knowledge and appreciation of the present by other contrasts and comparisons encountered in these readings. He should begin at once to see the advantages and difficulties of making these contrasts and comparisons, and should ever be on guard against avoidable error.

Before attempting the study he should fully realize that the problem of immigration, at least so far as Europe and the mainland of Asia are concerned, is no longer one of "shall we restrict the tide or shall we open wide the door?" The door is now virtually closed. In January, 1931, immigration reached the "vanishing point", for during that month more people left

our ports than entered; 12,815 foreigners came to us while 21,566 left the United States.¹ In May, 1931, but 3,799 were admitted. It seems that from now on those within our borders will either learn to carry on amicably together with mutual sympathy and understanding as a united people with the ideal of "Liberty and Justice for All", or they will tend to stratify into permanent classes and cults, factions and gangs; and thus the lessons of European and colonial social, religious and economic strife will have gone by unheeded.

The method of attack, whenever possible, should be one of conscious contrast and comparison of the past and present with the emphasis on the "now". This conscious contrast method will permit one to take the precautions most necessary in making long-range comparisons.

In order to better understand our heterogeneous, immigrant society, we must first review the important movements and the nationality of the peoples which have contributed to our social complexity. These should be fixed well in mind. The pupil making the study should, with the assistance of the instructor, have the responsibility and privilege of testing the group at intervals to find out the needs of the class, in order to determine whether he is putting across the essential facts. These tests never should be made a drudgery. They should be

1. See THE WEEKLY NEWS REVIEW, April 20, 1931, for an international aspect of immigration.

in the nature of pre-tests and follow-up tests to be used as a basis of discussion and stimulation.

Let it be repeated for emphasis that the vital concern is with the present and the future.² This complex life of which each should feel himself a part, and especially that of the teeming industrial centers, needs interpretation; no apology need be made for the interpretative nature of the comparisons and contrasts consciously attempted. One is far less likely to go wrong in interpretation, if conscious of the likelihood of errors, than is he who "grasps" the interpretation "from the facts" as he reads along. The pupil should be on the alert for new facts which may alter his thinking and affect his attitude as time goes on. In no sense is this study to be considered complete.

The instructions and suggestions, which will aid the pupil in carrying on his study, will be found in the context following the objectives. All references are listed in the footnotes to which the pupil should refer.

2. E. F. Cubberley, Public School Administration, p. 420.

IMMIGRATION

Section 1

Introductory Review Unit³

Objectives: (1) To review the great waves of the five large groups of immigrant peoples, and to note the reasons for their migration. (2) To note the growth in complexity of population.

Whether one likes it or not America is a nation of immigrants and to them she owes much, be it strength or weakness.

"Soon after the close of the war of 1812, began that immigration from Europe, that poured in increasing stream upon our shores for a hundred years. Then also began that era of prosperity which has swept down through the century like a tidal wave and which has no parallel in the history of civilization."⁴

Examine the stormy crests and peaceful moments of this great wave as it welled along through our national history. Where was it highest and why? Where and when did this wave start and what caused it? Where were the lowest tides and why? If there were stormy times, what caused the agitation? Is there peace and good will in its wake?

1. By a sketch similar to Figure I, page 10, point out some of the contrasts and similarities in the various movements of peoples. Note the comparative numbers, the nationalities and the causes for the crests and troughs and the final subsidence. Use a rough sketch on the board or large sheet

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3. Review Harold Rugg, America and Her Immigrants, pp. 42-79.
 4. Henry William Hison, History of the United States, p. 436 (1927 Edition)

of paper for class illustration.⁵

This sketch should be added to as parallels and noteworthy contrasts appear.

2. So vast and so complex has our cosmopolitan population become that most native-born Americans of the older stock probably do not know or never have considered the number of the racial groups found in the United States. One cannot truthfully say that he knows America, if ignorant of these people. Test the class to see how many are familiar with the foreign-born groups. List them in the order of the most numerous first.

5. See Harold Ruge, America and Her Immigrants, p. 45.

Fig. I.

Waves of Immigration 1820-1920

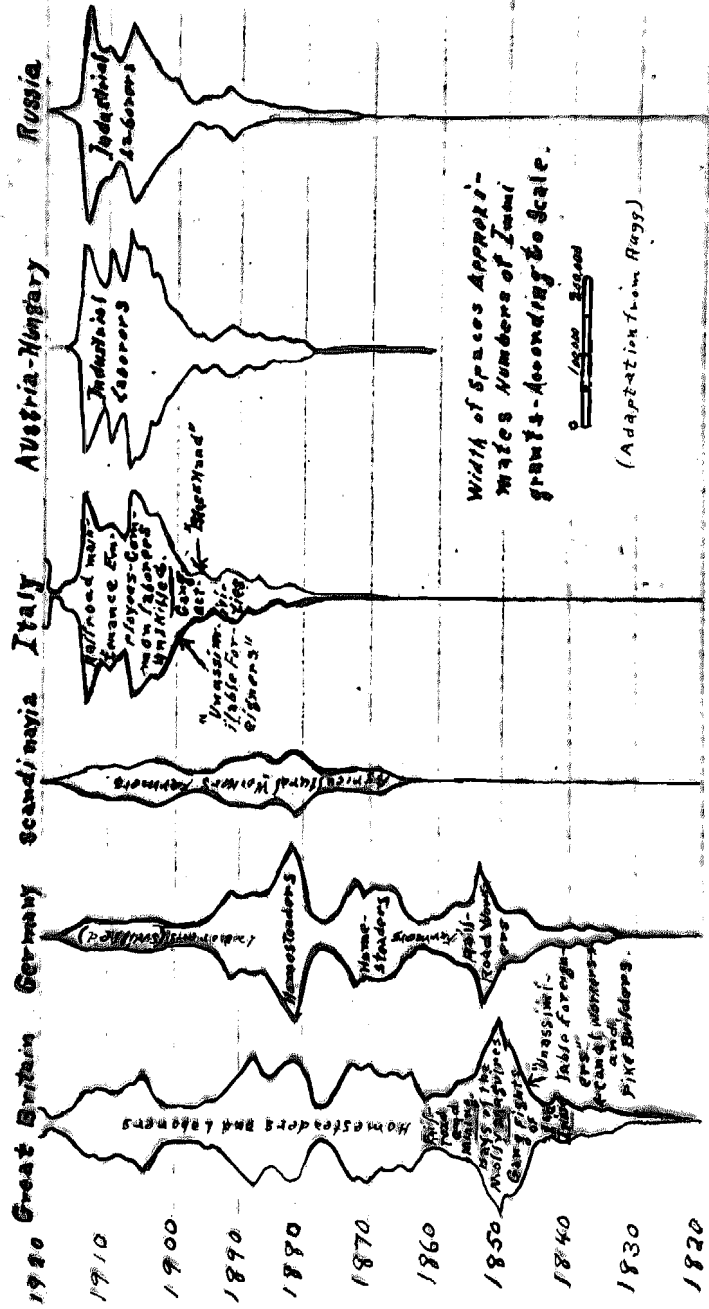


Table 1

The 1920 census shows the foreign-born population in the following order:⁶

Germany	1,683,298	Hungary	397,081
Italy	1,607,458	Norway	363,599
Russia	1,398,999	Denmark	189,051
Poland	1,139,578	Greece	175,701
Great Britain	1,133,967	France	151,792
Canada	1,117,136	Finland	149,671
Ireland	1,035,680	Holland	131,262
Sweden	624,759	Switzerland	118,647
Austria	574,959	Asia	110,586
Mexico	476,676	Roumania	103,007

6. See LITERARY DIGEST, May 7, 1921, on America and Her Immigrants, p. 11. Compare this with the recent census findings.

3. Much interesting information may be secured to show the make-up of the population. The Statistical Atlas of the Bureau of the Census gives many graphical representations.

The graphic representation on the following page seems to indicate that the "native" American population since 1880 has more nearly kept pace with the foreign-born than it did thirty years earlier.⁷ But this graph does not show the whole change in the make-up of the population. The native Americans of today include vast numbers of the children of Italian, Slavic and other foreign-born parents; this has been accumulative through the years. The percentage distribution of foreign white stock is indicated on a later chart.

One should try seriously to answer the question: "Who is an American?"

4. Prepare for a class report a vivid description of the changes that have taken place in the characteristics of the population since 1790. Some striking contrasts will be encountered in the reference cited below.⁸

The population make-up ranges from almost purely white Protestant homogeneity in the seventeenth century to the most complex cosmopolitan medley of the twentieth. Cubberley portrays the condition graphically and indulges in many of the critical stock arguments, which will be dealt with in a later unit.

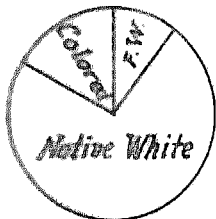
7. Statistical Atlas, Bureau of the Census, 1924, p. 225.
8. E. F. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, pp. 332 ff. See especially pages 340 to 343.

Fig. II.

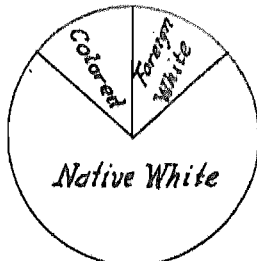
POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS in the UNITED STATES

From Bureau of Census Statistical Atlas 1924 1925

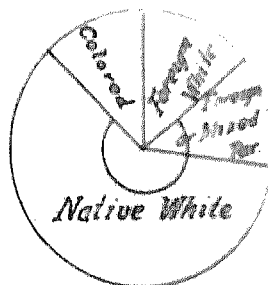
1850



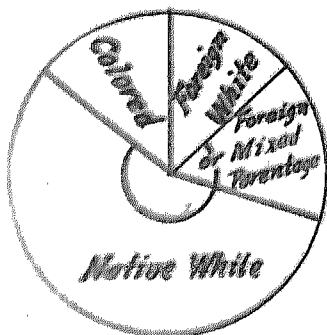
1860



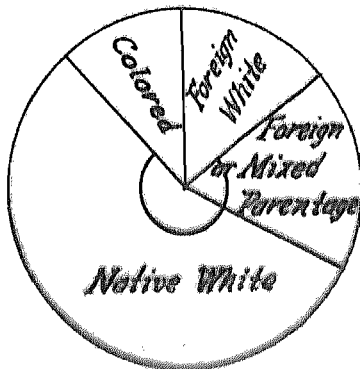
1870



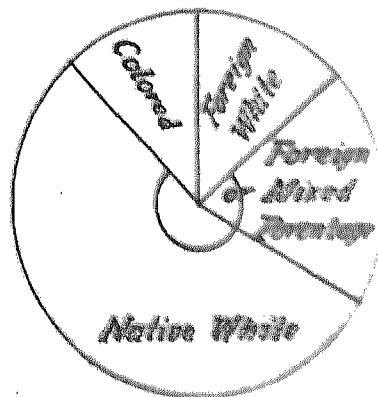
1880



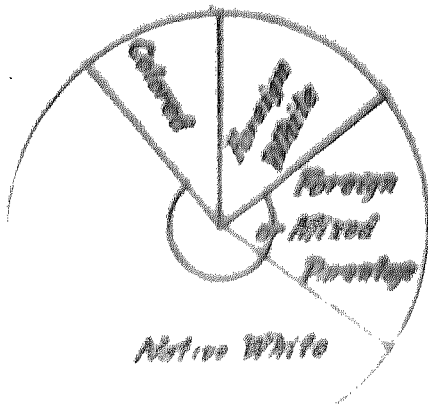
1890



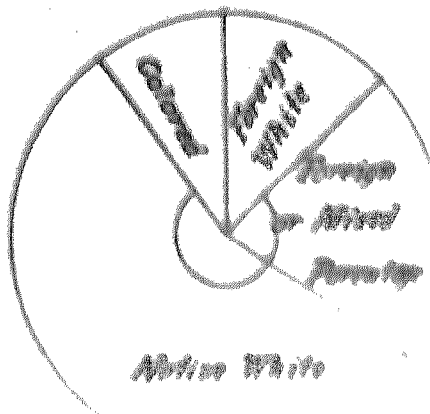
1900



1910



1920



With this wide range of population in mind, open a discussion of the "melting pot" as a success or a failure. With immigration cut off, may these people be blended into a single racial group or will they continue to exist as a "medley" of foreigners in a strange land? What forces and institutions may be brought into play to help in uniting them into a family of people?

Discuss the school as a factor. How about coercion? Discuss the part of the press, pro and con; the radio and talking pictures; labor unions.

Discuss factors of retardation in the process of amalgamation. Include in the discussion the part of attitudes and prejudices in slowing up the processes of Americanization.

IMMIGRATION

Section 2.

Typical Attitudes and Prejudices of the Present and Past.

Objective: To identify typical attitudes and prejudices by noting the "likeness of the arguments of one generation to the contentions of another."

It is assumed that by an identification and clearing up of inherited prejudices and biases one can see more clearly the real issues involved in our intricate social life. Ability to recognize these inherited attitudes and prejudices should give one a greater measure of stability in doing his own thinking in regard to questions dealing with immigration.

1. By way of introduction investigate the need for a recognition of biases and prejudices when attempting to think for oneself in matters pertaining to the immigration question. Garis states this need clearly.¹

2. Draw a contrast from your own experience of the recent opposition to the "new" immigrants of southern and southeastern Europe with the feeling of opposition toward the "old" immigration, that is, toward the peoples of northern and western Europe--the English, Irish, Welsh, Scandinavians, Germans, etc. This may well be done by a short conference with the pupil following the reading of the reference (1) cited in the footnote. (See also appendix IV.)

1. Roy L. Garis, Immigration Restriction, preface IX - X - XI. See also Ross L. Finney, A Sociological Philosophy of Education, pp. 122-137.

The idea is to bring out the attitudes and prejudices which may be stumbling blocks of the pupil. He should know those of his immediate community above all others.

3. Add to the following stock arguments which show something of the recent attitudes for and against the "new" immigration.

That this study should be handled as objectively as possible goes without saying. Whether pupils are for or against arguments advanced makes no difference. They should understand fully that this is a study of "attitudes" and not merely an opportunity to feed prejudices and to indulge in rationalizations.

- a. "America has always been the asylum for the oppressed and so it should continue to be."
- b. "The South Italian is virtually an illiterate peasant with standards so low that Northern Europeans and Americans cannot compete with him."
- c. "Coming in millions it has been impossible to begin to assimilate and Americanize them."
- d. "Foreign colonies and great numbers of unassimilated aliens are in our midst."
- e. "Outbreaks of anarchism and socialism in this country are due to unassimilated foreigners."
- f. "They have never lived under a republic, and it is the history of most Latin countries that a republic cannot prevail."
- g. "One of the greatest menaces is the large number of newspapers published in this country in foreign languages."
- h. "Dangerous and deadly doctrines have been spread through this country to a great extent by foreign propaganda and foreigners."

- i. "While the new immigrant, with his willingness to work in the dirt and filth and the dangers that are concomitant, has made possible much of America's splendid industrial development, the very fact of his willingness to brave these things at scant wages, has made him a liability to the nation."
- j. "Our nation is and has been predominantly Protestant from the beginning and such it should remain."
- k. "On the whole the Italians and Slavs are lower in intelligence than the older Nordic stock."
- l. "They are quick tempered, and more given to personal violence, they prefer to settle their differences even in case of murder, by taking personal revenge."
- m. "They are a great strain upon our political institutions."²
- n. "The immigrant is responsible for much of the 'pauperism' and crime, and is less able to support himself than the native American."³
4. Compare the attitude of the earlier "native Americans" toward the "new" immigrants of that time (1751) with the recent feeling toward them.
- a. Study Benjamin Franklin's tirade against the "new" immigrants.⁴ It should be remembered that the descendants of the people of whom he speaks are now considered the more desirable type and that these "native" Americans are today using the same stock arguments against the new immigrants as were used against their own ancestors.

2. E. A. Steiner, The Immigrant Tide, p. 341.

3. See Immigration Restriction, p. 14 for origin of these stock arguments.

4. Ibid., p. 10; also Isaac Hourwich, Immigration and Labor, p. 76; and Madison Grant, Founders of the Republic, pp. 28-30.

The following contains part of Franklin's attack on the Pennsylvania Germans (1751 and 1753):

"Why should the Palatine Boors be suffered to swarm into our settlements and by herding together establish their customs and manners to the exclusion of ours? Why should Pennsylvania, founded by England, become a colony of aliens, who will shortly be so numerous as to Germanize us instead of our Anglifying them? . . . The Germans who come hither are generally the most stupid of their own nation, and as ignorance is often attended by credulity when knavery would mislead it . . . it is almost impossible to remove any prejudices they may entertain; not being used to liberty they know not how to make the most of it."⁵

"I remember when they (the immigrants) modestly declined intermeddling in our elections, but now they come in droves and carry all before them . . . Few of their children know English. They import many books from Germany; and of the six printing-houses in the province, two are entirely German, two half German and half English, and but two entirely English. They have one German newspaper, and one half-German. Advertisements, intended to be general, are now printed in Dutch and English. The signs in our streets have inscriptions in both languages, and in some places only German."⁶

b. In carrying out the comparison, substitute "Italian," "Slav," or any of the "new" immigrants for "Palatine Boors" and note the effect. The substitution in part follows:

Why should the Italians and Slavs be suffered to swarm into our cities and by herding together establish their own customs and manners to the exclusion of ours? Why should Pennsylvania (or any other state) founded by our Nordic ancestors become a colony of aliens, who will shortly be so numerous as to Romanize us instead of our Americanizing them? The Italians and Slavs who come hither are generally the most stupid of their own nation, and as ignorance is often attended by credulity when knavery would mislead it . . . it is almost impossible to remove any prejudices that they may entertain . . . Not being used to liberty they know not how to make the most of it.

5. Old South Leaflets, No. 163, Vol. VII, pp. 255-256.

6. Ibid., p. 29.

A modern version of the Franklin argument as to the ignorance and undesirability, pauperism, etc., etc., of the "new" immigrants is quoted by Garis. It proposes to use the "intelligence test", the Army Alpha, as a basis of determining the undesirability; for:

"We are being swamped with the off-scourings of Europe. Those at the lower end of the scale have brought to us their social customs, their language, their political ideals. They cannot assimilate our ideals. Their adaptability to their new surroundings is limited. They cannot become citizens in the highest meanings of the word. They cannot enter into the spirit of American life. They add little except numbers to the body politic . . ."⁷

"We do not need the ignorant, the mentally feeble, the moron. We already suffer too much from the presence of too many whose low mentality leads them into pauperism, crime, . . . and delinquency. We must forget these sentimental words, like, 'a refuge for the oppressed of other nations' unless we want to be oppressed by the burden of ignorance and degeneracy which such a catch word invites."⁸

5. Compare the change which occurred in Franklin's attitude toward the immigrant between 1753 and 1781, with the change of a similar nature which showed up in the Republican platform of 1864.⁹ Franklin's fears of being overwhelmed by the immigrants seem to have ceased by 1781. See reference (5) "Old South Leaflets" on page 18. (Explain this change of attitude.)

In reference (9) below may be found material pertaining to the changed Republican Attitude of 1864. The Union party of 1864

7. Garis Immigration Restriction, pp. 235-236.

8. Ibid., p. 336.

9. Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard, History of the United States, p. 406.

used as a guide in their platform this statement: "That foreign immigration which has in the past added so much to the wealth, the development of resources, and the increase of power to this nation--the asylum of the oppressed of all nations--should be fostered and encouraged by a liberal and just policy."

This change of attitude of the dominant political group of America was brought about by a demand for cheap laborers in the rapidly developing industries and because of the wholesale colonization which was encouraged on the prairies of the middle west, while Franklin's change of heart may have been due to the settlement of the Ohio valley.

6. Investigate the "mythical" notions about the "good old days."

A peculiar thing about many who rail most violently against the "new immigrants" whether in 1751, 1835, 1896 or in 1931, is that reference to the "good old golden age" when the immigrants were "thrifty, hardy, more desirable," "more easily assimilated," "an accession of strength," etc., etc. Franklin held that the older English were much superior and more desirable than the "Palatine Boors, the ignorant and most stupid of their own nation."

Follow this attitude on down through the years¹⁰ and then check up on the situation to see if the ideas of these men correspond with yours in regard to the "good old days."

10. S. F. B. Morse (1835) recalls the day when immigrants "were accessions of strength from the ranks of learned and good." See Immigration and Labor, p. 64, second revised edition footnote. After reading what the inventor of the telegraph had to say about the "old" and the "new" immigration, turn to page 61 of the same reference for the speech of the 90's from the speech of General Walker. Also Senate Document (Report of Immigrant

7. Note the real question to which the attention of the unprejudiced student should address itself,^{be directed} 11

In this chapter the pupil may see the possible ill effects of some of the fallacious reasoning and loose talk about the pauperism, criminality, illiteracy, ignorance, and general undesirability of the people who go to make up the nation. Since immigration has practically ceased from European countries and from Asia, except from insular possessions, the question now becomes, "What shall be our attitude toward the immigrant within our borders?" Shall prejudices and bias guide that attitude or shall it be guided by facts and sound reason?

Typical Attitudes

8. Contrast the religious opposition of the present with that of earlier times.

This seems to be one of the oldest and most persistent attitudes against which the immigrant has had to struggle. It is well known that one of the common arguments for the undesirability of the southern and eastern European is his difference in religion.¹² The first amendment to the National Constitution was intended to do away with religious intolerance and to settle for all time this nightmare of prejudices

11. The probable answer to this question is hinted at in "Immigration and Labor", pp. 61-80.

12. Steiner, The Immigrant Tide, Its Hbb and Flow, pp. 322 ff.

and fears which plagued Europe and the colonial people for hundreds of years. But the troublous attitude still persists. Its bitterest aspects probably date from the time of the Protestant Revolt, better known as the "Reformation", in the sixteenth century; it was persistent and dominating in Colonial times especially among the Puritans, in fact everywhere except in Rhode Island¹³ and for a time in Maryland. Pennsylvania also started with a tolerant attitude.¹⁴

a. Pay particular attention to the manner in which the colonial people showed their opposition to those of a different religion; contrast this with the way in which the present day attitude manifests itself.

In footnote (13) the pupil will find a summary of the stringent colonial legislation against the "religious sects, who were not regarded with favor." The general feeling of the time against the "immigrants of the wrong religion," may be sensed from the reference given in "Immigration Restriction", pp. 16-17. An idea of the content is given below:

In New England religious exclusiveness, put into force by law, eliminated the necessity of passing other restrictive measures against the immigrant.

13. Immigration Restriction, pp. 16-17.

14. Beard and Beard, History of the United States, p. 34.

A Massachusetts law of 1637 stated that "No town or person in the colony should receive or entertain any new-comer longer than three weeks without permission of the authorities." This bit of legislation was directed against the Dutch, Scandinavians, Swiss, Germans and French. The opposition to them was primarily because of their religious views.

This law should provide an interesting contrast and comparison with the present regulation of the time limits allowed students and other visiting foreigners. The feeling against these early undesirables might be compared with the attitude of the native sons on the Pacific coast toward the Hindu and other present day "Undesirables" of the West.

Severe laws passed after 1656 were designed to prevent the coming of the Quakers; these laws and others excluding the French Jesuits, not only kept out many Quakers but many other Protestants from Great Britain, and western Europe, and Catholic laymen from Ireland and the continent of Europe. The class discriminated against most for religious reasons was the Roman Catholic.

b. Note the contrast in the opposition to the Catholics¹⁵ of this period with that of the recent propaganda against the southern Europeans. Of course no legislation against Catholics as such appears today, but the attitude and intent persist.

The restrictions in the colonies varied from absolute prohibition among the Puritans, to petty regulations and annoyances in the middle colonies. Sometimes it was a tax or duty placed upon Irish Catholic servants, sometimes a double tax on their land, or an exclusion of the members of the faith, unless they took an oath renouncing their vows to the church; again, they would be forbidden to assemble for worship.

Dominated by these early laws, which were but crystallized attitudes and outward manifestations of ingrained fears and prejudices, the people have been slow to change. Though by

15. Henry Pratt Fairchild, Immigration, pp. 74-75.

intellectual agreement, the framers of the National Constitution put these early colonial laws into the discard, the old attitudes which created them die hard; sometimes they take root, grow and bear evil fruit in the hotbeds of professional politics.¹⁶

In this reference the pupil will be able to see for himself how serious and persistent was this religious opposition. He should be helped to see the need for cool heads and clear thinking rather than blind following of inherited biases and prejudices.

9. Carrying on the study of the fears and attitudes expressed by Franklin in the middle of the eighteenth century, report on foot reference (16) below. This deals with the findings of the Industrial Commission a century later. Note also the New York and Kansas City situations which are brought down to date. From this one should be led to see the hopefulness of the difficult situation. For as Hourwich points out "It took three generations for the 'Celts and Teutons' to take their place among the 'more desirable immigrants from northern and western Europe'", and from this study in Kansas City there seems to be hope for the later arrivals from the south and east of Europe.

16. After group discussion contrasting these early colonial attitudes with that expressed in the First amendment to our National Constitution the pupil (or his group if class is large) should proceed with a study of various "Native American" movements, noting the use made of the old religious prejudices. See Immigration Restriction, pp. 45-50; Immigration and Labor, pp. 77-79, inclusive.

10. Attitudes of leading Americans and of outstanding groups.

a. Note the expression of the American Federation of Labor through Samuel Gompers.¹⁷

Attitude of American Federation of Labor, Toronto, Ontario, 1909: submitted by Samuel Gompers.

"That . . . the advocacy of immigration restriction-- is not prompted by any assumption of superior virtue over our foreign brothers. We disavow for American organized labor the holding of any vulgar or unworthy prejudices against foreigners. We recognize the noble possibilities in the poorest of the immigrants who come to us from European lands. We know that their civilization is sufficiently near to our own to bring their descendants in one generation up to the general level of the best American citizenship. It is not on account of their assumed inferiority, or through any contempt for their poverty, that, most reluctantly, the lines have been drawn by American workmen against the indiscriminate admission of aliens to this country. It is simply a case of the self preservation of the American working classes."

- b. Compare this recent objection: "They do more work for less money than the American workman and live on a lower standard thereby decreasing the wages", with a similar objection to the wild Irish of the 40's, who have the honor of first drawing forth this criticism.¹⁸
- c. Check up on recent findings as to the facts sustaining this contention.¹⁹
- d. Contrast the intolerant attitudes of the past with

17. From Senate Documents, Vol. 23, 61st Congress, 3rd session, 1910-1911, p. 369.

18. H. P. Fairchild, Immigration, pp. 73-74.

19. Immigration and Labor, pp. 284-310, especially pages 300 to 306. See also Immigration Restriction, p. 45.

that of Theodore Roosevelt in his message of December 3, 1906.

"Not only must we treat all nations fairly, but we must treat with justice and good will all immigrants who come here under law. Whether they are Catholics or Protestants, Jew or Gentile; whether they come from England or Germany, Russia or Japan or Italy matters nothing. All we have a right to question is a man's conduct . . . Especially do we need to remember our duty to the stranger within our gates. It is a sure mark of a low civilization, a low morality, to abuse or discriminate against or in any way humiliate such stranger who has come here lawfully and who is conducting himself properly. To remember this is incumbent on every American citizen . . . and every Government official whether of the Nation or of the several 'states'."

e. See Appendix I for an interpretation of inherited prejudices in democratic legislation.

f. Odds and ends for class discussion.

(1) Seriously attempt to assign a reason for the use of the following terms:

"Dutch beer", "Mick", "Dago", "Wop", "Hunkey",
"Greaser", "Speck", "Sheeney", "Chink", etc.

(2) Can their use be justified? What possible harm may result from the use of such terms?

(3) Who would feel most keenly the stigma of such words, children or adults?

(4) What has become of the "Micks", the "Fardowns" and the "Corkians" of yesterday?

(5) What has become of the descendants of the "Dutch boors" of the days of Benjamin Franklin?

(6) If one-half of the Early Pennsylvania population--which became Americanized--were German, and had

German newspapers and German schools, what hope do you see for the present-day Italians and Slavs becoming good American citizens?

(7) What forces and institutions now play a part in

fusing the immigrants that were not operative during the first hundred years of our national existence? This should include the discussion of such forces as the movie, the telephone, the compulsory school laws, advertising, styles and the radio as against the forces which made for unification in the earlier time.

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IMMIGRATION

Section 3.

Pauperism and Crime Among Immigrants

Objective: To investigate, compare and contrast data on crime and pauperism among immigrants of the present with that of earlier times.

It is assumed that the study will provide a basis for judgment in regard to the desirability of the new immigrants.

It is hoped that the perspective provided will not come amiss in fathoming the enigma of the social life of the populous industrial centers.

One of the most serious charges against the recent immigrant is that of responsibility for the greater criminal activity of recent years. He is accused of having greater "criminal tendencies" than his native American neighbor. Sometimes this is an intimation that the immigrant stock of an earlier period was not so criminally inclined. There is also a feeling that the older immigrants were thriftier, more pacific, in their habits and on the whole more desirable.

What ground is there for such beliefs? Does or does not the immigrant, and his immediate descendants, have a greater part in crime than our older stock of "native Americans"? How does the number of serious crimes committed in the immigrant areas compare with the number of those committed in the older areas settled by the Nordic people and other stocks

that date back to colonial times? Some of these--among them the mountain people of the South--maintain to this day many of the customs and folkways, indeed the very expressions of Elizabethan England.¹ Are the "new" immigrants the only people of the land that have insisted upon settling their difficulties--even those which involve the taking of human life--out of court? These are difficult questions to answer because of the scarcity of accurate and convincing information.

However, there is enough reliable data to show the folly and the injustice of some of the current notions about the conditions of pauperism and crime of both the present and past. Caution and critical analysis should be the watch words, with stress on suspended judgments, where there seems to be room for doubt.

Many obstacles may be expected when long-range comparisons are attempted. Quantitative comparisons are impossible. There is, to be sure, a lack of uniformity of laws and of law enforcement at the present and too little is known about the present. That this is equally true of the past goes without saying. What was considered as a serious crime of yesterday may not be considered as such today.

For instance, in the old Puritan days, a man as tolerant and forward looking as was Roger Williams was considered as a

1. See the article by Charles Morrow Wilson, "Elizabethan America", in the ATLANTIC MONTHLY, Aug., 1929. pp. 238-244.

criminal and a menace to society. He was banished from Massachusetts as a measure of safety.² Settlement of personal quarrels outside of court was the rule in earlier times. During the early national period and even in recent years, defense of "personal and family honor" was quite proper throughout the South. This, by the way, is one of the serious charges against the South Italian and should receive the special attention of the pupil later in the study. Again, the use of strong liquor was not counted among the serious crimes of an earlier day. Today the opposite is true--in some sections. The people of the isolated mountainous regions of the South, it is maintained, provide an old-time measuring stick to set alongside of the "new" immigrants.³

The feuds and personal honor affairs of the mountain people should be weighed against the similar lawlessness of the new immigration and the conduct of each should be understood in the light of inherited social traditions.⁴ Only by sympathetic insight can one hope to understand the mob lynchings and feuds chalked against the mountain hill folk or the killings among the Italians from southern Italy.

One should be mindful of the fact that debt was once a

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2. Beard and Beard, History of the United States, p. 29.
 3. Read the chapter on "Moonshine" in Quare Women, by Lucy Furman, Chapter VIII, pp. 155-175. (This reference gives an excellent picture of these old time people, old customs and manners which still survive our modern industrial civilization in the remote mountain regions of the Ozarks and other hills of the South.)
 4. See E. A. Steiner, The Immigrant Tide, Its Ebb and Flow, pp. 46-50, for the Italian's background.

crime punishable by imprisonment; no one knows just how many of the criminals who landed on our shores at an earlier time were in this class or how many were sent here in preference to execution for some one of the tens of scores of crimes once punishable by death.

However elusive the factors which one must use in these long-range comparisons, they are worthy of careful consideration as a means of stimulating the use of precaution. For always as one reads of the past, he unconsciously interprets. In this he may become careless. Hence, it is maintained that less error will creep in if the pupil makes conscious comparisons and contrasts rather than unconscious ones where precaution plays no part.

Review the statistical information dealing with recent tendencies toward pauperism and crime among immigrants, then note the historical accounts of the earlier colonial and national period.

1. Study the homicides of the United States by states.

Note which states of the great immigrant industrial section have the greatest number of homicides per hundred thousand population.⁵

a. By aid of figure 51, page 109, America and Her Immigrants, mark off on an outline map of the United States

5. This information will be found in Government Document of the United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census Mortality Statistics, Part II, for 1925 and 1927.

that portion of the 48 states in which live 82 per cent of the ^{new} immigrants.⁶

- b. Next, place on the map the number of homicides per hundred thousand population by states for any given year.
- c. Compare the homicides within the immigrant area with those of the states outside. Data for the solution of the problem will be found in Table 2 on page 33. For the benefit of the reading committee the results of the problems suggested above will be found in Figures III and IV, pages 34 and 35.

6. H. G. Rugg, America and Her Immigrants, p. 109.

Table 2

Death Rate from Homicide per 100,000 Estimated Population¹

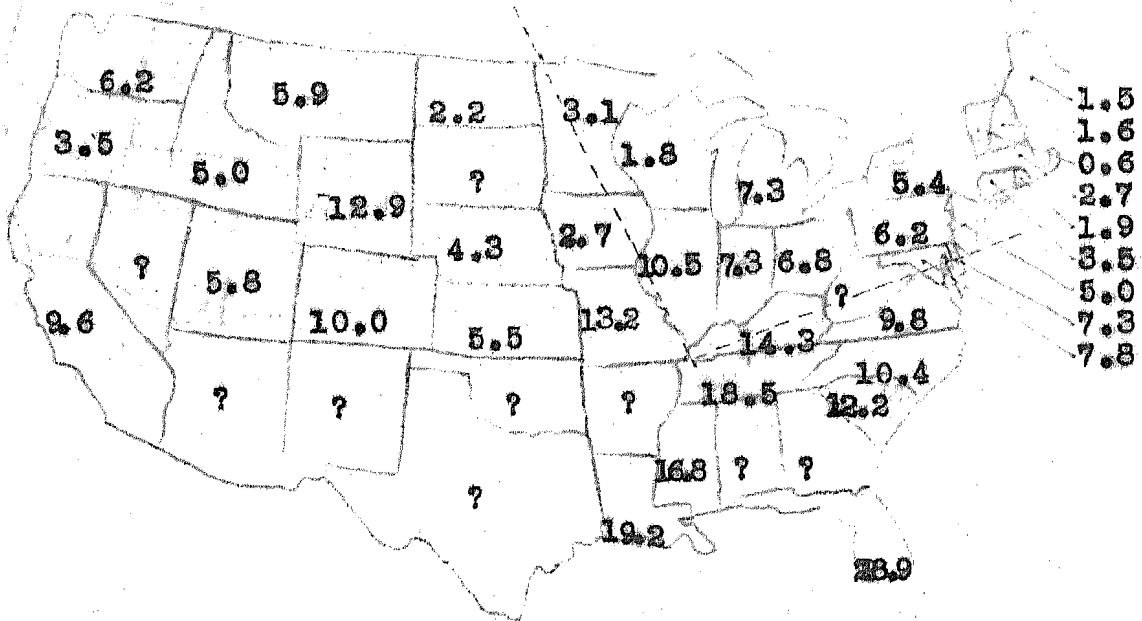
State	1927	1926	1925	1924	1920	Average
New Hampshire	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.3
Vermont	0.9	2.3	0.6	0.6	2.3	1.3
Maine	1.9	1.1	2.9	1.5	1.4	1.8
North Dakota	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.2	(x)	2.0
Wisconsin	2.5	2.5	2.2	1.8	1.7	2.1
Rhode Island	2.6	2.0	1.5	1.0	1.8	2.2
Massachusetts	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.1	2.5
Iowa	2.4	2.4	2.7	2.7	(x)	2.6
Minnesota	2.4	2.1	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.2
Connecticut	2.1	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.9	2.5
Idaho	2.2	2.9	2.9	2.0	(x)	2.7
Nebraska	2.4	2.0	2.9	4.3	4.1	2.7
Oregon	2.2	4.3	4.1	2.5	4.1	4.0
New Jersey	4.2	4.5	5.1	5.0	4.2	4.6
Utah	2.2	2.9	2.3	2.2	2.1	2.6
Washington	4.2	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.9
Kansas	4.4	2.7	2.2	2.2	2.7	2.5
New York	5.6	4.3	5.1	5.4	4.6	5.1
Pennsylvania	2.7	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.6
Indiana	6.3	2.3	2.6	7.5	4.7	4.1
Delaware	9.9	2.3	2.2	7.2	4.0	4.7
Montana	2.2	2.3	7.6	2.9	2.2	4.7
Maryland	7.1	2.3	7.5	7.2	4.2	5.3
Ohio	2.2	2.3	7.2	2.2	2.9	7.2
Michigan	2.2	10.2	7.2	7.2	2.2	7.2
Colorado	2.2	2.6	2.1	10.0	9.2	7.9
California	2.2	2.6	7.9	9.2	2.2	2.6
Wyoming	9.1	12.6	10.2	12.9	(x)	9.2
North Carolina	9.7	10.0	9.2	10.4	9.2	9.2
Illinois	10.4	10.4	10.9	10.2	7.4	9.9
Virginia	10.2	2.7	10.0	9.2	11.2	10.1
Missouri	10.7	11.6	12.2	12.2	7.2	11.1
Arizona	10.2	14.2	(x)	(x)	(x)	12.4
South Carolina	11.1	12.4	12.0	12.2	12.2	12.6
West Virginia	12.2	12.2	12.1	(x)	(x)	12.6
Kentucky	12.2	14.2	12.7	14.2	9.0	14.1
Arkansas	12.4	(x)	(x)	(x)	(x)	
Alabama	20.2	20.1	17.2	(x)	(x)	19.2
Louisiana	21.2	21.0	22.2	19.2	14.1	19.2
Tennessee	17.4	17.2	17.2	16.2	12.2	16.9
Mississippi	24.2	22.0	21.7	16.2	12.2	21.0
Florida	22.2	20.0	22.9	22.2	20.2	24.1

1. Adaptation from Mortality Statistics, 1927, Part II, p. 120 and 1928, Part II, p. 141.

(x) Not in registration area until a later date.

Fig. III

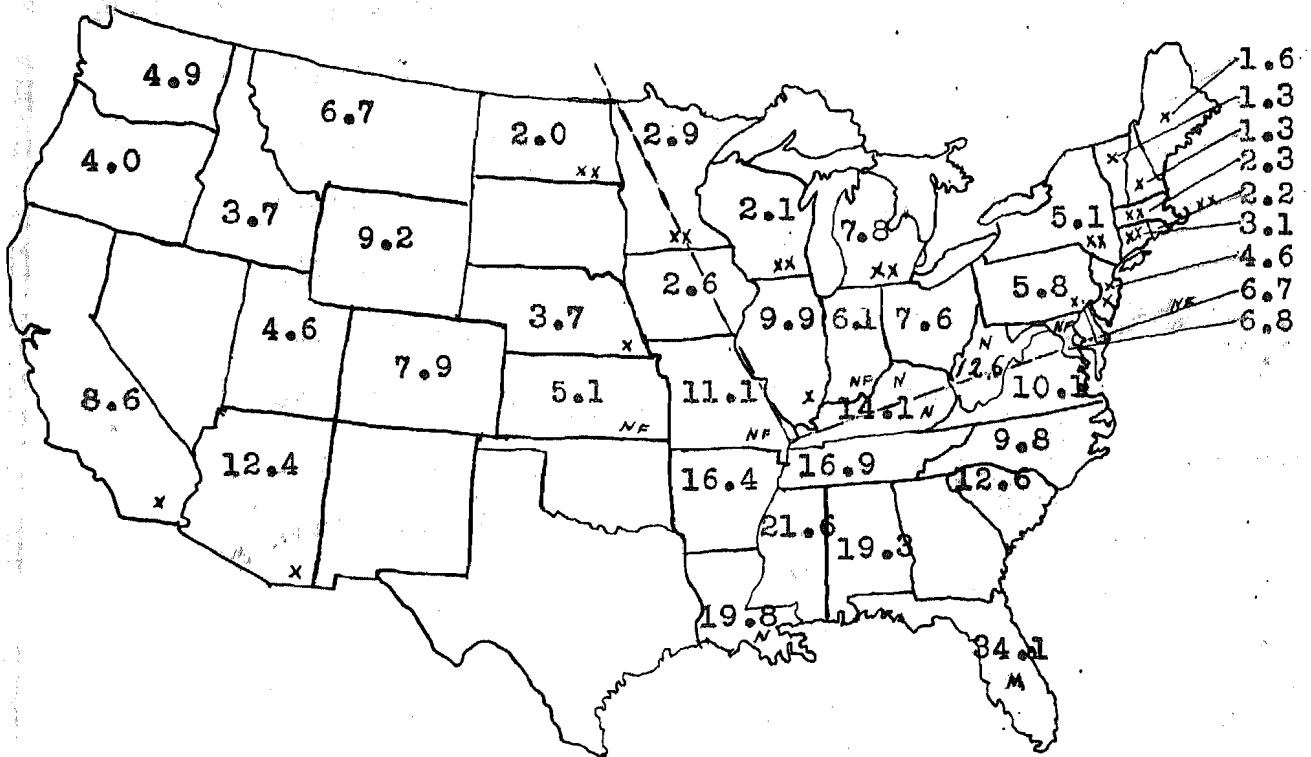
Death Rate from Homicide per 100,000 Estimated Population
1924



This adaptation is made from the United States Bureau of the Census, Mortality Statistics. (See table 2.) The area marked off by the dotted lines (See America and Her Immigrants, by H.C. Rugg, p. 109) in which 82 per cent of the "new" immigrants live includes only 18 per cent of the land area of the 48 States. States marked, "?", are outside the registration area.

Fig. IV

Death Rate from Homicide per 100,000 Estimated Population
Based on an Average for the Years 1920 and
1924 to 1927 Inclusive



an adaptation

This estimate is taken from the United States Bureau of the Census, Mortality Statistics. (See table 2. preceding page) The area marked off by the dotted line (See America and Her Immigrants, by H.G. Rugg, p. 109) in which approximately 82 per cent of the "new" immigrants live includes only 18 per cent of the land area of the 48 States!

States having in 1920 50 per cent or over of foreign-born white of foreign or mixed parentage are indicated by XX; those with 35 to 50 percent are marked X; 15 to 25 percent, NF; 10 to 15 per cent, M; 5 to 10 per cent, N.

The map on the preceding page seems to show evidence that the states in which live the hosts of the new immigrants are not the ones suffering more from homicides than are those outside the area.

2. Investigate the homicides in the cities having a population of 100,000 or more using the same land areas for comparative purposes.⁸

a. Using the figures for any one year, or if desired, all years combined, find the average number of homicides per 100,000 population for the area within and without the immigrant section.

For convenience, the data, given in the documents, cited on the following page is tabulated and the average figured for the homicides within and without the areas indicated.

8. These figures will be found in Government Documents of the United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census Mortality Statistics, Part II, for the years 1925 and 1927.

Table 3

Homicide per Hundred-thousand Inhabitants in Cities of One-hundred-thousand Population or Over in the Immigrant Area within which live 82 per cent of the New Immigrants: ¹

This area includes but 18 per cent of the total land area of the 48 states. ²

	1927	1926	1925	1920	Four Year Average
Albany.....	3.5	3.4	1.7	0.9	4.1
Baltimore.....	7.6	7.7	3.7	6.4	3.1
Boston.....	3.9	3.9	3.2	4.5	3.0
Cambridge.....	1.6	2.5	3.3	2.7	2.5
Camden.....	3.0	3.4	10.9	6.0	7.1
Chicago.....	14.3	15.6	15.4	9.7	14.0
Buffalo.....	7.1	5.9	6.7	4.9	6.2
Cincinnati.....	21.9	13.3	22.5	6.0	17.2
Cleveland.....	11.2	12.5	13.8	15.0	12.6
Columbus.....	9.3	7.4	7.1	6.7	7.6
Dayton.....	3.3	6.2	5.2	5.2	6.2
Denver.....	6.2	4.6	6.8	12.0	7.4
Grand Rapids....	2.2	1.3	0.6	2.2	1.6
Hartford.....	5.0	4.9	1.9	5.0	4.2
Newark.....	7.9	3.1	6.4	4.1	6.6
New Bedford.....	0.2	1.7	0.8	0.8	1.0
New Haven.....	2.2	1.1	3.9	2.4	2.2
New York.....	7.2	6.5	6.7	6.2	6.7
Bronx Borough....	4.5	3.2	3.2	1.9	4.3
Brooklyn "....	4.5	4.4	4.4	5.2	4.6
Manhattan "....	12.9	12.0	12.2	3.8	11.7
Queens "....	5.1	3.4	3.2	5.9	4.4
Richmond "....	4.9	3.5	4.3	3.4	4.0
Worcester.....	5.1	1.0	4.7	2.2	3.3
Youngstown.....	21.3	15.4	11.9	13.6	17.1
Philadelphia....	3.4	6.0	9.3	6.4	3.0
Pittsburgh.....	13.8	10.4	10.4	10.3	11.3
Paterson.....	3.5	4.2	3.5	2.9	3.5
Providence.....	3.9	3.6	2.6	2.9	4.3
Reading.....	6.1	5.3	5.3	2.2	4.9
Rochester.....	5.2	3.1	4.4	1.7	3.6
St. Paul.....	6.4	3.2	5.3	5.5	3.6
Scranton.....	4.2	2.1	4.2	5.1	3.9
Springfield, Mass.	1.4	2.1	2.3	6.8	3.2
Syracuse.....	2.0	3.8	5.5	4.0	4.8
Toledo.....	3.2	11.2	10.8	11.3	10.5
Trenton.....	5.1	6.7	10.6	2.5	6.2
Wilmington.....	10.3	9.7	3.3	4.5	7.0

1. Adaptation from the Bureau of Census Mortality Statistics, Part II, 1925 and Part II, 1927.

2. America and Her Immigrants, p. 109.

Table 4

Homicides per hundred-thousand Inhabitants in Cities of One-hundred-thousand Population or Over outside the 18 per cent land Area in which live approximately 82 per cent of the Immigrants;¹

	1927	1926	1925	1920	Four Year Average
Atlanta.....	40.2	30.7	----	39.9	
Birmingham.....	63.9	59.8	55.8	46.9	56.6
Dallas.....	15.1	31.5	27.8	21.1	25.9
Nashville.....	30.5	29.9	28.7	13.5	26.7
New Orleans.....	32.3	32.9	39.1	16.2	30.1
Norfolk.....	9.5	11.5	10.1	37.4	17.1
Oakland.....	6.7	4.6	3.9	2.7	4.5
Omaha.....	11.4	7.4	16.0	11.4	11.6
Richmond.....	15.1	10.0	17.2	7.5	12.5
St. Louis.....	16.3	18.7	19.8	12.6	16.85
Salt Lake.....	4.4	5.2	7.6	4.2	5.35
San Antonio.....	17.5	15.6	21.2	9.7	16.0
San Francisco.....	7.6	8.1	6.5	7.6	7.45
Spokane.....	4.6	1.8	9.2	2.9	4.62
Washington, D. C....	10.4	9.8	11.9	10.4	10.62

1. Adaptation from the Bureau of the Census, Mortality Statistics, Part II, 1925, and Part II, 1927.

A comparison of the homicides of these two areas seems to indicate that the new immigrants have a record of which they need not be ashamed. The homicide rate within the immigration area is 5.3 per 100,000 population as compared to 17.4 per 100,000 population outside of the area. Certainly the results do not indicate that our immigrants are unduly given to these most serious crimes which are listed as homicides. It should be noted that the tables deal with tens of millions of people in the most congested districts where criminals are supposed to be rampant and with other millions in the wide open spaces where the good old Nordic stock holds supreme sway.

If objection is made that the Negro is responsible for the greater number of homicides of the South, let it be remembered that he, beyond all shadow of doubt, is one of the old immigrants who was dragged in along with the sorry lot of indentured servants, "paupers" and "criminals" of an earlier time. As to his actual responsibility for the homicides among his race, everyone knows that the good old American white, and not he, is in charge of the machinery of law enforcement as well as the ballot. They, and not the Negro, are also in control of the economic forces that affect his well-being.

The mortality statistics from which the preceding tables were obtained will give information for further study of the Negro situation. Since these people handle much of the food of the nation their welfare, especially their health, should

be of vital importance to all, whether he be prejudiced against them or not. The race question in itself should make an interesting study.

B. Compare the homicides in the areas having the greatest number of native born whites. This may be done by a grouping according to percentage of native born population within the states and by comparing the averages of homicides per 100,000 population of the states within each grouping. See Table 5,

Florida
page 41.
Missouri
Indiana
Kansas

Colorado
Ohio
Oregon
Tennessee
Wisconsin

California
New York
Pennsylvania
Virginia
Washington
Illinois
New Hampshire

Michigan
Ohio
New Jersey
New York

North Carolina
South Carolina
Texas
West Virginia

Alabama
Georgia

Table 5

Pauperism and Crime Among Immigrants
 Homicides Per 100,000 Population by States within the Regis-
 tration Area (1920)¹

	Homicides Per 100,000	Percentage Native born whites (entire population)	Average num- ber of homicides per 100,000 population.
Mississippi	19.8		
S. Carolina	15.2		
Tennessee	13.8	87½ and over	13.1
Virginia	11.2		
N. Carolina	9.8		
Kentucky	9.0		
Florida	20.2		
Louisiana	14.1		
Missouri	7.9	75 to 87½	10.3
Indiana			
Kansas			
Colorado	9.2		
Ohio	6.9		
Oregon	4.1	62½ to 75	4.8
Vermont	2.3		
Maine	1.4		
California	8.2		
Montana	8.2		
Pennsylvania	5.6	50 to 62½	5.6
Utah	5.1		
Washington	5.1		
Nebraska	4.1		
New Hampshire	1.8		
Illinois	7.4		
Michigan	5.5		
New Jersey	4.2	37½ to 50	3.9
Wisconsin	1.7		
New York	4.6		
Connecticut	3.9		
Minnesota	3.1	25 to 37	3.1
Massachusetts	2.1		
Rhode Island	1.8		

I. Adaptation from the Statistical Atlas, Department of
 Commerce, (1924) and from the Bureau of Census Mortality
 Statistics, Part II (1924).

4. Note the comparisons of homicides in the largest cities. See Table 6.

These figures seem to tell much the same story as do the studies in problems (1), (2) and (3) of this section. From them one should be able to see the ridiculousness of the unjust charges that our cities and industrial areas are filled with murderous foreigners. It would seem that homicide is one type of crime about which there can be little doubt; until systematic records of minor crimes are kept more scrupulously than at present the homicides probably are the safer for comparisons. It will be seen too from Tables that of the states having a native born population of 50 per cent or over, only three, Vermont, Maine and New Hampshire, reach as low a point in homicides as the average of the five states, New York, Connecticut, Minnesota, Massachusetts and Rhode Island, whose average is 3.1 homicides per hundred thousand population and whose native born population is but 37½ per cent or less.

Table 6

Homicides In Cities Of The United States Of 100,000 Population Which Had, In 1920, More Than 30 Per Cent And Less Than 10 Per Cent Foreign Born.¹

Less than 10 per cent Foreign Born (1920)	Homicides per 100,000 Population (1927)	
Washville	13.5	
Richmond	7.5	
New Orleans	16.2	
Louisville	12.3	
Atlanta	39.9	
Columbus	13.0	
Birmingham	46.9	
Dayton	5.2	
Indianapolis	5.7	
Dallas	21.1	
Fort Worth		
Des Moines		
Norfolk	37.4	
Memphis	63.0	
Kansas City, Mo.	21.1	
Washington	10.4	
More than 30 per cent Foreign Born (1920)		(Two of these cities, New York and Chicago, having a foreign population of 30 per cent or more, also rank among the five highest in Negro population.) ²
Worcester	2.2	
Cambridge	2.7	
Boston	4.5	
Paterson	3.5	
Lowell	1.8	
New York	6.2	
Cleveland	13.0	
Chicago	9.7	
Hartford	5.0	
New Bedford	0.8	
Bridgeport		
San Francisco	7.6	

1. From Statistical Atlas of the United States, Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1924, p. 220, and Bureau of Census Mortality Statistics, 1927.

2. New York City, Philadelphia, Chicago, and Baltimore, should be considered carefully before charging too much of the homicide of the South to the inherent lawlessness of the Negro. See Statistical Atlas, 1924, p. 205.

5. Make an investigation of the characteristics of the Colonial immigration in regard to "criminals" and "paupers".⁹

Though accurate figures are not available for quantitative contrasts, one should try to get an idea of the changed conditions. If ideas of crime have changed to such an extent that the contrasts of the colonial and the recent are incomparable, that information is valuable. If there were scores of different capital offenses possible among the ranks of the early immigrants and but three at the present time, one should know this before passing judgment. One value that might come from the study is the inclination to suspend judgment of the present until many facts concerning the condition of the new immigrants are obtained and carefully weighed.

6. Study the striking contrasts and similarities in "pauperism" and "crime" of the Irish of the first half of the nineteenth century---the descendants of these people are, strangely enough, numbered among our most respected citizens--and the Italians who succeeded them are, in turn, the much despised menial laborers.

a. Note the "waves" in which they came and the reasons for their coming.¹⁰

-
9. The following references cover the ground quite thoroughly:
 Beard and Beard, History of the United States, pp. 36-40.
 Roy L. Garis, Immigration Restriction, pp. 12-18.
 B. B. Green, Provincial America, p. 237.
 Isaac Hourwich, Immigration and Labor, footnote p. 357.
10. America and Her Immigrants, pp. 45-55.

b. Note the similarity of their work.¹¹

c. Contrast the recent outrages of the "Italian" gangs, of which the press makes so much, with the Molly Maguires of the Anthracite coal fields.^{12*}

d. Look into the report of the immigrant commissioner to obtain a contrast in the crimes of personal violence of the North and the South Italian. The latter is said to commit more crimes of personal violence than his northern relative. This data is given in Table 7.

7. Study the report of the Industrial Commission of Boston on the condition of the Irish immigrants, 1830 and 1880.¹³

8. Note the tendency toward pauperism among immigrants as indicated by inmates in almshouses, 1850 and 1903.

11. See H. P. Fairchild, Immigration, pp. 64-65, for the work of the Irish; p. 272 for the work of the Italian.

12. See H. G. Rugg, America and Her Immigrants, p. 64.

13. See Isaac Hourwich, Immigration and Labor, p. 356, Tables 107 and 108. The cause for the condition is given on page 357 of the same reference.

14. See Table 8.

* See Appendix II for comparison of Italian gang methods and the feudal practices of the native mountaineers.

Table 7

Alien Prisoners In United States 1908.¹

(Per Cent Of All Offenses)

Total %	Gainful Offenses	Personal violence	Offenses against public policy	Offenses against chastity
N. Italian	30.6	50.8	14.5	2.2
S. Italian	29.2	46.5	18.0	3.8
Mexican	42.5	43.2	11.5	1.7
Chinese	18.4	59.2	20.4	1.9
Croatian	40.0	33.1	22.8	0.0

If statistical "proof" would always tell the whole story, one might conclude that the northern and southern Italian compare favorably in the matter of personal violence and gainful offenses with the odds in favor of the southern Italian.

1. Report of Immigrant Commissioner, "Immigration and Crime", Senate Document, Vol. 18, p. 182, 3rd Session, 61st. Congress. 1910-1911.

Table 8

Inmates in Public Alms-Houses on the Date of the Census by
Nativity for Periods from 1850 to 1903.¹

	1903	1890	1880	1870	1860	1850
Native born	49473	44626	43236	53939	50483	36916
Foreign born	32291	28419	22967	22798	52459	13437

Ratios of Paupers to 100,000,000 Population²

	1903	1890	1880	1870	1860	1850
Native born	745	836	994	1635	1849	1765
Foreign born	3123	3072	3438	4095	7843	5926

So far as the inmates of public alms-houses are concerned one would be led to believe that the tendency to pauperism among the more recent immigrants was about half as great in 1903 as in 1850. However the case may be, this does not tell the whole story, for all dependents of this sort do not reach alms-houses. Many are taken care of by "outside" charity.

1. Report of the Immigrant Commission, 61st Congress, 3rd Session, Senate Documents, Vol. 10, p. 260.
2. Ibid. These data obtained from same Table.

9. Inquire into the findings of the Immigrant Commission of the 61st Congress in the matter of crime among immigrants.¹⁵

This report states that between the years 1890 and 1904 the survey of prison population of the United States in the five districts, North Atlantic, South Atlantic, North Central, South Central, and Western, not only showed the immigrant prisoners in penal institutions in smaller percentages than the native whites in each and every division but also that the immigrant crime was relatively less important than native crime and that in the fourteen years lying between the enumerations of 1890 and 1904 immigrant crime had decreased in relative amounts while native crime had correspondingly increased. In all sections of the country major offenses were more numerous among the native white prisoners than were minor offenses.

Arson, burglary, counterfeiting, forgery, embezzlement, and attacks against person are included in the list of major crimes. The generalization, it should be stated, holds good for each state of the North Atlantic states where it found the heaviest immigrant population.

10. After a perusal of the chapter on "Pauperism and Crime among Immigrants" in Immigration and Labor,¹⁶ and the reference to the present situation among immigrants in Criminology,¹⁷ by Sutherland, be prepared to discuss the probable superiority of the earlier immigrants.

15. Report of the Immigrant Commissioner, Immigration and Crime, Senate Document, Vol. 18, 3rd Session, 61st Congress, p. 214.

16. Immigration and Labor, pp. 253-261.

17. See Criminology by E. H. Sutherland, pp. 97-102, for general review of crime among immigrants.

then the Pauperism and Crime Among Immigrants

the Conclusions.

1. Contrasting the relative amount of pauperism among the immigrants of the present and past there is reason to believe that it has gradually decreased, if we are to judge by reports based on inmates of institutions such as almshouses. Evidence seems to indicate that the most poverty stricken Sicilians or Slavs among the new immigrants are in no worse conditions than were the Irish of the first half of the nineteenth century.

2. In contrasting the crime among immigrants specific sets of facts and conditions are hard to match up. Statistically they are quite incomparable. This, however, does not destroy the value of the contrast. It serves to bring out the very pertinent contrast in the conception of crime then and now. For instance, among the earlier colonial immigrants criminality was judged on the basis of three hundred possible capital offenses as against two or three of the present.

3. It seems as if immigrants of today are on the whole less prone to kill their fellow humans than are the native Americans who are descendants of the "good old immigrants."

4. Based on inmates of jails and prisons, the northern Italian, rather than the southern Italian, is incarcerated more often for crimes of personal violence.

5. There is reason to believe that even the "hotblooded Italian" has been unjustly accused of being less law abiding

than the native American stock; this assumption is based upon the similarity of methods and general aversion for the settlement of feuds by process of law.

6. Pauperism and crime do not come with periods of immigration, but are in inverse proportion to waves of immigration; this should show that crime and pauperism are symptoms, not of bad qualities of immigrants, but of economic disorder. At one time it was thought that both crime and pauper troubles could be solved if the groups of immigrants causing it could be identified, so that they might be excluded at the gates. But when the figures are in, it is seen that the source of the trouble is not the immigrant but a condition of our economic machinery.

IMMIGRATION

Section 4

The Contribution of the Immigrants

Objective: To find out what the immigrant has contributed to American industrial life.

The rapid development of America as a mighty industrial nation was due in a large measure to the stream of incoming immigrants; they have contributed to her increase in population, and also to her spiritual and material wealth in far greater proportion than is usually conceded.

How often have the stories been told of the harsh frontiers pushed westward without praise for the part played by the foreigner. How often have the boasts been made of the miles of shining steel rails, the sign of America's greatest financial successes, without mention of the resounding whacks of the pick and shovel brigade. Writers often have told of the marvelous canal systems, and highways and steel ribbons that bind together the peoples of the continent without so much as a "Top O' the Morning" to the Fardown and Corkian, who made possible these thousands of miles of steel and water routes and roadbeds beneath which lay the equally important, if less spectacular, cuts, grades, and embankments.

Monumental exhibits, pictorial and actual, crowd the magazines, textbooks and landscapes with little mention of the human effort, the monotonous hours, the dark shaft, and the catastrophe that have made possible a glorious industrial development.

In the course of industrial progress the Slav and the Italian have displaced the "low and undesirable" Irishman, who has been pushed upward to his present pinnacle of political, economic, and social advantage.

A. Investigate the industrial contributions of the immigrant both past and present.

1. Note how the immigrant may contribute the best years of his life to American industry without the expense to American society of his childhood rearing.¹

In telling of this contribution Mr. Commons says: "If we consider alone what produces the wealth of the country and not that which consumes it, the immigrant adds more to the country than does the same number of natives of equal ability. Their home countries have born the expense of rearing them up to the industrial period of their lives, and then America without that heavy expense, reaps whatever profits there are on the investment."

2. Find out to what extent America has depended on the immigrant for manufactured goods.²

In the reference "2" cited in the footnote, the pupil will find an interesting treatment of industrial contributions of immigrants.

The incomplete list of activities that follows, page 55, gives a hint of the importance of the contribution of immigrants in the field of manufacturing. During the rushing days of their industrial development, they supplied most of the labor for many of the vital industries of the nation. Much of this work

1. John R. Commons, Races and Immigration, p. 121.
 2. THE SURVEY, New York, Vol. 40, May 15, 1918, and America and Her Immigrants, p. 116.

was dangerous, monotonous, fatiguing, and sometimes very disagreeable. Though native Americans are crying loudly for these jobs (and for the scalps) of the foreigners during the present depression, they shunned this hard manual labor in the days of prosperity.

Immigrants are credited with having contributed the following to American industry:

- 85 per cent of the labor in the slaughtering of meat and packing,
- 70 per cent of the bituminous coal mining,
- 87 per cent of all work in the woolen mills,
- 90 per cent of the labor in the cotton mills,
- 95 per cent of all clothing,
- 50 per cent or more of the shoes,
- 80 per cent of all furniture,
- 50 per cent of the collars, cuffs, and shirts,
- 80 per cent of all the leather,
- 50 per cent of the gloves,
- 95 per cent of the sugar refining, and so on.

3. Note the part the early immigrants played in the commercial and especially the planter's scheme in the colonies.³

In this and in the following references an attempt is made to help the pupil see for himself the part the immigrant played in the development of American life in the many great undertakings where his name is not specifically mentioned.

4. From the standpoint of immigrant contribution, consider the labor necessary for the building of the Erie and other canals; the "pick and shovel" labor fell to the lot of the Irish and Germans.⁴

3. H. B. Green, Provincial America, (Edited by A. B. Hart) pp. 236-7. See also R. L. Garis, Immigration Restriction, pp. 12 and 229, and John R. Commons, Races and Immigrants, pp. 129-34

4. Beard and Beard, History of the United States, p. 270.

5. Read the account of the settlement of the states, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota.⁵

6. Skim through the pages of your text,⁶ and note the marvelous industrial development, for instance, pages 326-337. Next turn to the chart of the waves of immigration and see who was on hand to supply the labor. Check up with the text to see if they agree. Be sure to touch on the contribution of the factory workers, pages 446 to 448. Note the coming of the homesteaders after the Civil War, and also the trans-continental railroad builders, pages 461 to 465.

While pursuing a study of these widely varying services of foreign peoples through the pages of national history, a certain desirable continuity is secured, for it is literally the story of America's continuous industrial progress.

7. One of the wreckers of American home life is seasonal labor; another is the depression. Much of the seasonal labor, though of the utmost importance to the national welfare, has been very poorly paid. Find out to what extent the people commonly classed as "Mexicans" perform the important service of taking up this seasonal work. When the depression hits hard, the "native" Americans clamor loudly for these poorly paid seasonal, and indeed as a rule "undesirable", jobs. It is then that these once necessary seasonal laborers with

5. Ibid., pp. 301-303.

6. Beard, C. A. and Beard, Mary R., History of the United States, MacMillan Company (Revised Edition) 1929.

their children are turned out in the cold or are ordered "back across the line", virtually paupers from a land glutted with the necessities of life, to subsist sometimes upon prickly pears and sagebrush.⁷

This interesting group of people, who once played a part in the great drama of the cattle days as herders and later as sheep and goat herders and raisers, farmers and gardeners, has recently--and especially when man power was low on account of the World War, brought in new waves of immigration.

According to THE SURVEY GRAPHIC⁸ Mexicans furnish the most mobile element in our population, and move in seasonal cycles covering thousands of square miles. Picture twenty-six of these struggling humans aboard one model-T Ford truck, men, women, children, washtubs and goat, headed for the sunny cotton fields of Texas. Contrast this with their grandsires, who followed the longhorns from the Rio Grande to Abilene.

THE SURVEY GRAPHIC gives both pictorial and story information on the specific work of the Mexicans which ranged from cotton picking on the Rio Grande to the basic industries of the North and East.

Under seasonal work to their credit are listed the following:

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7. By all means look carefully through THE SURVEY GRAPHIC, May 1, 1931, especially pp. 135-140. According to the Kansas City Star, during the last year, no less than 50,000 of these people, who once rendered such valuable service in the cotton field, truck patch, orchard and right of way, have been loaded on the train by the Californians and shipped over the border. See Kansas City Times, p. 1, August 18, 1931.
 8. THE SURVEY GRAPHIC, May 1, 1931, p. 136.

Cotton picking,
 Vegetable gardening of the South and West,
 Manufacture of by-products of cotton seed,
 Fruit harvest of the West from California to Washington,
 Handling of the beets of Colorado,
 Track work from Nevada to Pennsylvania.

8. An interesting contrast of the present day "Mexicans" with the older Spanish-speaking colonists, who are of different, though in many cases of similar, stock, may be obtained from the same number of THE SURVEY GRAPHIC. The author, Superintendent Adelina Altero of Santa Fe, points out the distinctive contribution of the Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest and makes an urgent plea (which might be heeded elsewhere throughout the country) for the preservation of the best of their customs, traditions, arts and crafts.¹

Summary of the Contributions of Immigrants

Going far back into national history one finds the luckless children, "the sweepings of the streets and alleys" the beggars, criminals and paupers from the great cities of England transformed into immigrants, herded like animals on board ship and often forced into indentured servitude against their will to be used in clearing the land, planting and caring for the crops of the early American planters; later the immigrants who contributed this menial labor were the Negroes who were also forced against their will to carry on the "degrading" work. Today one sees in the same land the Mexican immigrant, "free" but still inheriting the social stigma of the old days when it was a sign of servitude to do honest toil.

1. THE SURVEY GRAPHIC, May 1, 1931, pp. 135-140.

Again one sees the rough and sometimes bloody contribution of the frontier immigrants, even in that "benevolent" penal colony of early Georgians and of the Scotch-Irish, who in both cases took the brunt of the Indian warfare and served as buffers for the peace-loving Quakers and for the benevolent planters against the "wild savages", who dared to defend their homeland.

The more recent Irish made their rough and necessary addition to the great developments in the early anthracite mines, on the canals, pikes and railroads. They were in turn succeeded by the "new immigrants", the Italians and Slavs, who carry on in their footsteps. These new people find here no frontiers to push back, no "murderous savages" to conquer; instead they and their children brave the belching furnace, the stifling heat, the sulphurous and acid fumes and the deadly mine gases that a civilization may go forward.

So crude have ^{been} the Nordics in the orgy of individualism that they have allowed such names as Clinton, Hill, Carnegie and Rockefeller, with all due respect for their accomplishments, to crowd from the pages of history the mighty tides of peoples who collectively furnished the brawn, the life and human energy that helped to make the machine age an actuality.

Today mill wheels stand idle with manufactured goods piled high in the warehouse; surplus coal stands slacking in the colliery yards, while cotton, bale upon bale, lies waiting for the spindle. And today many of these immigrants, along

with their native American brothers, are idle and hungry.

The immigrants' part in the drama of a great industrial development seems finished; they have helped to accomplish an industrial revolution. What then should be democracy's attitude toward them?

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Part II

CHILD LABOR

Objective: To see "child labor" as one of the crucial problems peculiar to modern industrial society; to note its origin, and the persistence and conflict of colonial and early national tradition with democratic tendencies in the new order of things.¹

In this study it is assumed that "the introduction of children into the early factories was a natural consequence of the colonial attitude toward child labor, of the provisions of the early poor laws and the philanthropic effort to prevent children from becoming a public charge and, above all, of the Puritan belief in the virtue of industry and the sin of idleness."²

"Looked at through historical perspective", says Dr. Abbott, "our modern child labor problem seems to have been inherited from the industrial and social life of the colonies, as well as from the industrial revolution and the establishment of the factory system. The having 'all hands employed' was a part of the Puritan idea of virtue. . . the employment of children tended to become more and more for commercial purposes rather than for moral righteousness, the old moral arguments were used and are still used to support the commercialized system".³

I. In order to gain some idea of the present confusion of ideas in regard to child labor in the United States note the wide range in regulation as provided by state laws in 1929.

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1. See Edith Abbott's, Women in Industry, pp. 327-351.
 2. Ibid., p. 327.
 3. Ibid., p. 350.

1. States are more nearly agreed on a minimum age than on many other regulations of child labor. Yet in this respect the laws vary from minimum ages of 14 to 16 years with no regulation whatsoever in two states.⁴

2. Educational minimum age at which a child may leave school, varies throughout the states ranging from 14 to 18 years.⁵

3. Maximum daily and weekly hours which children are allowed to work varies from no regulation at all in some states to eight and eleven hours in others, with many irregularities in regard to educational attainment of the child and a variety of other exemptions.⁶

4. Prohibition of night work varies from no prohibition at all to prohibition of certain types of work for various ages.⁷

5. Employment certificates - work permits - specified by law lack uniformity. They are issued by a great variety of individuals remote and near to the child, while in a few instances certification is provided by the state. This great variance is aggravated by the falsification of certificates and by the failure of parents to give the correct age.⁸

6. Regulation of child labor in street trades varies from none at all to the issuance of permits by the state. In some, badges are issued for the individual.⁹

4. Child Labor, Facts and Figures, United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Publication No. 197, 1930.

5. Ibid., p. 49.

6. Ibid., p. 61.

7. Ibid., p. 65.

8. Ibid., p. 67.

9. Ibid., p. 74.

7. Special provisions of the workman's compensation laws having reference to injured minors vary from none whatever for illegally employed minors to additional compensation in the case of such illegal employment.¹⁰

8. Minimum wage laws vary from total laxity in enforcement to a protection of all in other states.¹¹

9. Notable, also, are the provisions of the National Child Labor Act which would make for uniformity in many respects.¹²

This legislation was a progressive attempt at uniformity. It became law and was later declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court by a four to five decision.

II. Prepare a report contrasting this recent child labor legislation passed by the states, with the protection extended to children of the laissez faire days of industry a century earlier.¹³

In the references cited below will be found information on conditions (1930-1830) ranging from no regulation at all to bold restrictive and compulsion measures on child, parent, and industrialist a century later.

III. Next contrast the apparent evils of child labor prior to the establishment of the factory system with those which sprung up after its inception.

10. Ibid., pp. 77 ff.

11. Ibid., p. 80.

12. Ibid., p. 82.

13. See Child Labor, Facts and Figures, Bulletin, No. 197, pp. 4, 39. The complete outline (1) page (1) of the above Bulletin presents material for many historic contrasts in changed attitudes and conditions since the industrial revolution got under way. Some important English background is also given. See also p. 4. II., A., (1) and (2).

This contrast seems to indicate that "the conditions under which the children worked" prior to the industrial revolution "were not obviously harmful; provision was usually made for a certain amount of education. Since work made children self-supporting and kept them from the temptation of idleness, child labor was regarded by everyone as economically necessary and morally desirable". But "with the coming of the factory system there was a change for the worse in the condition of the child worker." Due to the changed condition there was then an absence of regulation of both the employer and the employee, such as was maintained under the apprentice system with its master-apprentice relationships. No provision was made for technical training for life work extending over a long period of time as was formerly the case. There was an increased demand for child workers and they now became mechanical creatures, who worked at fatiguing, repetitive machine processes of little educational value.

IV. Find out how the training needed by modern child workers in plants compares with the training given children under the old apprentice system.¹⁴

This reference points out the years of training sometimes given the apprentice in preparation for life work as compared to the few days needed to learn the essentials of machine operation.

14. Paul H. Douglas, American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education, pp. 222, 50-52, 96.

V. Note the practice sanctioned by law in Puritan Massachusetts and Connecticut, which forced the children of the poor into employment, and contrast this with the situation in the laissez faire days of the early factory, when children were "free" to work or not as they pleased. Data will be found in III and IV of the preceding page.

In either case the work of children was thought to be the solution of the poverty problem; in the later period the factory owner drew upon the customs and folkways of the Puritans for his arguments pertaining to the employment of children, which obviously were to his advantage. He posed as a benevolent moralist in supplying the "little ones" with a place to work. This kept them out of the ways of sin and removed the burden of responsibility for their support from the shoulders of the wealthier class.¹⁵

"A manufacturer of Troy, Massachusetts, wrote of the industry, (the cotton industry) 'Our factory villages have many widows, who resort there to bring up their families, and are thus enabled to keep them together and to provide for them very comfortably'."¹⁶

He did not fail to mention the moral influence which this gave the widow over her children. During this period the state had stepped out of the picture and the child and widow were left to bargain with the factory owner who would, through their wages, relieve them of their poverty.

15. See Calhoun, A. W. Social History of the American Family, Vol. I., p. 126, for the early period.

16. The factory period is treated adequately in Senate Documents 61st Congress, Vol. VI., "Women and Children Wage Earners" Document No. 645, pp. 67-112.

"In many respects the early cotton industry in the United States, with its native American operator is astonishingly like that of the present time, (1910) not only in actual condition but in general attitude toward the mill as a factor in human progress upward."

"It is only necessary to recall the loopholes in child labor legislation in some of the southern states in favor of the children of widows and disabled fathers to see that the tendency there has been to draw widowed families to the mills. It appears to have been the case for a long time, for as far back as the fifties, the founder of Graniteville, South Carolina, characterized it as truly the home of the poor widow and helpless children, or for a family brought to ruin by a drunken worthless father."

Then as now employers and operatives passed the buck for the responsibility of the employment of children. "The employers represented that the children were unprofitable to them and that they were employed only because parents impertuned, much as did the southern manufactureres before the industrial commission in 1900."

"A New England manufacturer in 1848 ... told Horace Mann that the children under 15 years -- they were about 13 per cent of all the operatives -- were employed simply from motives of charity."¹⁷

VI. Note the condition of the apprenticed children of the poor of New England during the colonial period, which condition lasted until 1820 or 1830 in some localities. Compare the personal contact with the master, their treatment, chances at useful education and preparation for life work with the status of child-laborers in these respects after the coming of the machine.¹⁸

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17. The quotations above are taken from "Women and Child Wage Earners" and are merely cited to show how the old ideas hang over. Even when wages seem insufficient to maintain the family, employers insist that they are doing charity work for the children and widows and at a loss to themselves.
18. See Paul H. Douglas' American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education, pp. 49-52 and 54-61. See also D. S. HILL's Introduction to Vocational Education, pp. 131-133.

(This critical appraisal of the apprentice system which lasted well into the nineteenth century and which presents many contrasts with present conditions is quoted at length for the benefit of the reading committee)

The effect of the industrial revolution upon children should be most carefully noted. It is quite clear that it debased the conditions of children in industry in two ways: (a) 'It divested apprenticeship proper of its educational features both trade and civic, (b) it added children to industry who were not even nominally apprentices at all but merely child laborers. Apprentices and child labor had been synonymous terms; they now became separate and distinct.

"If the ordinary craftsman was deeply affected by the substitution of power driven machinery for his hand tools, much more deeply was the apprentice. For him it meant a revolutionizing not only of his methods of work but of his entire social status as well."

"His home had formerly been at his masters. He had lived and had worked familiarly with him, receiving his board and clothing in return for his services. Now, with the growth of industry, the master could no longer house all of his apprentices. He had to let them find their own shelter and commute their former benefits into a cash amount. The apprentice thus found himself a wage earner, with greater freedom, greater opportunity, and greater danger as his lot."

"Within the shop the change was equally great. The master was no longer literally a 'master workman' in close personal touch with each boy. The very nature of machine production had fixed a gulf between the two. The tasks of the employer were becoming more and more those of the business man, his immediate concern was buying rather than craftsmanship. His contact with his apprentices grew rapidly infrequent and impersonal. In brief, master and apprentice had stood in relation of father and son. They now stood in relation of employer and employee."

"The training the apprentice received changed no less than his station. Machine production does not require the all round skilled workman because it increases the division of labor and splits the trade into many different jobs. There is less opportunity to exercise general skill should it be acquired, and the mastery of the whole gamut of machines within a trade becomes well nigh impossible. One man, one machine is the rule.

"The purely cultural training of the apprentice fared even worse. The master who did not see him from one week-end to another could hardly be expected to teach him his letters or his catechism."

"Accordingly we find the period of the industrial revolution from 1810 to 1830 characterized by rapid rise in day schools. The earliest schools in Pennsylvania were for the pauper children who could no longer get cultural training from their employer."¹⁹

VII. Before attempting even tentative conclusions in regard to the present status of child labor make inquiry into the conditions of children in the agricultural and allied industries of today.

1. Investigate the Government literature of the Department of Labor, Children's Bureau.²⁰

Pay particular attention to the migrant child laborers and those not working under the direct supervision of parents. Note also the opportunities for schooling and a normal home life.

Some idea of the number of children engaged in agriculture may be gained from the table on the following page.

19. Ibid. This would be a very interesting point of departure for a study of the rise and changes that have taken place in the common schools. It is easy to see why the laboring man who was just exercising for the first time in history his right to vote regardless of property as other qualifications, felt a need and demanded schools for his children. Prior to this time the poor child's school if he were fortunate enough to have one, was a matter of charity and often his only hope of free schooling was for his parents to declare themselves paupers and thus gain entrance to a school for such children.

20. See "Children in Agriculture" United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau Publication No. 187., p. 56, for the extended list of publications, a few of which are here given:

"Child Labor and the Work of Mothers in the Beet Fields of Colorado and Michigan," No. 115. (1923)

"Child Labor on Maryland Truck Farms," No. 123. (1923)

"The Welfare of Children in Cottongrowing Areas of Texas," No. 134. (1924)

"Child Labor in Representative Tobacco Growing Areas," No. 155. (1926)

See also Bulletin of National Child Labor Committee, "People Who Go to Tomatoes", Pamphlet No. 215. (1914)

Child Labor

Children of Ten to Fifteen Years of Age Engaged in Agricultural Pursuits, by Sex and State

State	Total Number	Per cent of Population Same Ages	Boys	Girls
United States	647,395	5.2	459,238	188,071
Alabama-----	77,395	22.1	49,021	28,374
Georgia-----	77,105	18.0	51,038	26,067
Texas-----	69,031	10.7	45,862	23,169
Mississippi---	65,863	23.9	41,660	24,203
S. Carolina---	56,920	21.9	33,506	23,414
N. Carolina---	50,582	13.5	34,252	16,330
Arkansas-----	45,686	17.6	30,294	15,392
Tennessee-----	32,326	10.0	25,747	6,579
Louisiana-----	23,718	9.2	16,369	7,349
Kentucky-----	21,036	6.6	18,836	2,200
Oklahoma-----	19,752	6.8	14,584	5,168
Virginia-----	15,501	5.0	13,630	1,871
Missouri-----	9,622	2.4	8,892	730
Florida-----	7,120	5.7	5,271	1,849
Illinois-----	5,801	0.8	5,569	232
Pennsylvania---	5,523	0.6	5,137	386
Wisconsin-----	5,471	1.8	5,187	284
Indiana-----	4,844	1.5	4,702	142
Minnesota-----	4,698	1.7	4,290	408
Iowa-----	4,184	1.5	3,970	214
W. Virginia---	4,112	2.1	3,724	388
Kansas-----	3,755	1.8	3,613	142
Ohio-----	3,721	0.6	3,559	162
Michigan-----	3,588	0.9	3,324	264
Nebraska-----	3,171	2.0	2,959	212
Maryland-----	3,168	1.9	3,002	166

States Having a Total of Less than Three-thousand are Here Omitted. For Complete List See Reference in Footnote.

Arranged from "Children in Agriculture", Children's Bureau, Publication No. 187 United States Department of Labor, 1929. Data from the Census Figures, 1920.

A summary of child labor legislation conditions in the United States, 1930, taken from the survey by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor will be found in "School and Society" August 2, 1930.

Summary of Child Labor Legislation 1930

1. Forty-six states now have laws with a minimum age as high as 14 years for factory work and often for other employment.
2. Seven states have a minimum of 15 years or over.
3. Forty-three states prohibit children from working at night.
4. Thirty-six provide an 8 hour day or a 44 or 48 hour week for children under 16 years.
5. Ten states have laws applying to the work of children in agriculture. This is of particular interest because it exemplifies the conservative attitude of rural districts. Contrast this with the regulation of child labor in other industries.
6. Compulsory school attendance laws are necessary under existing conditions to insure children protection against the evils of premature employment. Here again may be seen the effects of the rural conservatism in the short school terms which allow children to participate in the raising of crops. Much has been done to protect the child from participating in industry at too early an age and to provide schools, and vocational training has been provided to some extent. His recreational needs have also received some attention. But that there is much yet to be done is evidenced by the recent interest taken by those in the best position to know the needs of children. Of the need for higher standards of legal protection for children a bulletin

of the United States Department of Labor states:

"That the need for the uniformity in standards is as imperative today as at the time that the Federal law was passed in 1916 is shown by the fact that while many of the states recognize in their laws the desirability of the 14 year age minimum, the 8 hour day and the prohibition of night work for children, only 18 have as high requirements with respect to employment in factories, mills, canneries and work shops as the Federal laws, and only thirteen measure up in all particulars, without exemptions, to the Federal standards."²¹

Present Attitudes as Expressed

by Leaders in Thought

That there is still more to be done in the matter of child protection may be gathered from the statements of such men as President Hoover.²²

Writing in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY he says: "Again there are the problems of child labor. Industry must not rob our children of their rightful heritage. Any labor which stunts growth either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of comradeship, of joy and play, is sapping the next generation."

"These questions of child health and protection", he further states, "are a complicated problem requiring much learning and action. . . let no one believe that these are questions which should not stir a nation."

²³In comparison with the legislation passed by the states note the excerpt from the review on the recommendations for removing the cause of child labor. Most of the legislation heretofore has merely sought to restrain the child from working, regulate his hours, limit his age minimum, or keep him in school. This, according to the review, is not adequate to meet the full need of the situation.

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21. Child Labor in the United States, Ten Questions Answered, by the Bureau of Publications No. 114 (second Edition)
22. Herbert Hoover, in SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, November 29, 1930.
23. See SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, August 2, 1930, p. 148. This seems to be a review of recommendations by Department of Labor, Children's Bureau.

"Adequate child labor laws adequately administered are", the survey states, "under existing conditions, necessary to insure children protection against the evils of premature employment. Without such readjustments as will insure the following conditions, no just and final solution can be found through legislation alone":

1. Wage for father sufficient to maintain decent standard of living.

2. System of state aid for widows and dependent children, sufficient to enable the children to remain in school up to the age of 16 at least.

3. More and better equipped schools and teachers better trained and better paid; curriculum revision, with training for dull pupils.

4. Vocational training and guidance.

In passing, note how this suggested program attempts to supply the needs of the child which were met rather adequately under the apprenticeship system at its best.

5. Provision for part time and evening classes in trade training, trade extension education and general education of workers of all ages.

That the school is playing its part in the problem of child labor is indicated by the increase in high school enrollment, of children between the ages of 15 and 18 years of age; in the United States in 1900 but ^{eight} per cent were in school; in 1920, twenty nine per cent were in school, and in 1925 forty-seven per cent were enrolled in the public high schools.

Summary of Contrasts in the Status of the Child Worker
Under the Apprentices System and the Child Laborer
of Today

(The pupil should be encouraged to make similar lists from which to draw his conclusions.)

Status of Apprenticed Child
in the Simple Earlier Society.

1. Father-son relationship of master to apprentice.

2. Child insured by law his "keep" which included food, clothing, shelter, parental care.

3. Civic, moral, and religious training with more or less careful supervision by the master.

4. General education, such as was customary at the time, required by law.

5. "Mysteries" and secrets of the trade a part of his schooling and capital.

6. Practical knowledge and skill in all the processes of the trade or craft.

7. No wages paid as such; all profits taken by the master to pay for training and raising.

Modern Child Laborer in
Complex Industrial Society.

1. Impersonal relationship to employer because of absentee ownership.

2. Wages totally inadequate to cover "keep" of child in many instances.

3. Responsibility for civic and moral training placed upon parent and school; these controls somewhat remote.

4. Responsibility for education placed upon state.

5. Bound by compulsory education laws which vary widely and which send him to schools which fail often to prepare him for life work.

6. Child a mere automaton to feed the machine; little practical knowledge needed for monotonous processes.

7. Child's parents entitled to collect wages, often to support the rest of the family.

23. See American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education, pp. 49-52, 54-61.

8. Child bound by law to remain with master until of age.

9. Tremendous demands for labor of all kinds to provide for common wants.

8. Child free to leave employer at will; gypsy existence permissible, and often necessary.

9. Seven million idle men with over production of both necessities and luxuries. Child not wanted in industry by laborer yet his cheap labor is utilized for competitive purposes.

Summary of Contrasts in Ideas of Child

Rearing

Earlier Ideas

"Idleness was sin" and long hours of labor were desirable. Recreation was not considered necessary.

Children were by nature bad. They were born in sin and were thought to be depraved.

Children must learn to work at early age and prepare to assume the role of an adult at 14 or 16 years.

Charity was the problem and sacred right of the church. A substitute for out and out charity was the binding out of the child to a master more fortunate than the poor parents.

More Recent

Children need wholesome recreation; play is believed to be necessary to normal development.

Children are much affected by their environment; they are not innately "bad".

Any labor that interferes with the normal development of a child, physical or mental, with his companionship with other children, is detrimental to society.

Dependent parents should have the support of the state in rearing the child properly. Under no consideration should he be forced into labor that would hinder his development.

Part III

EDUCATION

To attempt to cover in a superficial way the complete field of education within the time allotted to the high school pupil would seem ridiculous, to say the least; for in a very true sense a complete account of the education of a people is the story of its civilization. In such an endeavor much will depend upon the ability of the pupil as to how far he may go with his investigation in such a fertile field for inquiry.

The purpose of the study will be to note some of the contrasts and also likenesses which appear in the slow transition from the older society and to see education of today as a living institution of democracy with a slow trend toward the fundamental concept of initiative and sharing, as opposed to the conformity and repression of the earlier theocratic and despotic period.

The pupil should understand that education in the school itself lags far behind social, political and industrial changes which take place outside the school and that much that is traditional in the curriculum is held dear and sacred.

I. In order to appreciate more fully the work and possibilities of the school as a democratic institution, read carefully and prepare for presentation to the group an account of the present condition of education in the United States.¹

1. Edgar W. Knight, Education in the United States, p. 1-34.

IV. Compare the present attitude toward universal education with that prevalent at the time of Henry VIII, (1542). This attitude, it is said, persisted until as late as 1835 in some sections of the United States. It was known as the "pauper-school attitude" and was a very serious obstruction to the advancement of the public school as it is known today.⁹

V. Compare this "pauper-school attitude" which carried over far into the national period with that held by the newly franchised laboring groups.¹⁰

This deals with the demands of the laboring groups of the East who were led in the political fight for schools by DeWitt Clinton and others. It was the period of the rise of the laboring man, commonly spoken of as the period of the rise of "Jacksonian democracy." Before this time the aristocracy, who alone were in position to support the private and parochial schools, had objected strenuously to taxation for the support of schools for the poorer classes. With the rise of factory labor and the settlement of the great West, this condition changed, but not without a tremendous struggle--a struggle which should be well known to every American.

VI. Contrast the present tendency to support the city school by adequate taxation with the tendency to object to taxation which Knight says has come down to us from the days of King George.¹¹

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9. Edward Eggleston, The Transit of Civilization, p. 252.
 10. E. P. Cubberley, History of Education, p. 373; note the account of the "pauper-school attitude"; also E. W. Knight, Education in the United States, pp. 180, 187-188.
 11. Ibid., pp. 242-245.

1. Pay special attention to the paragraph on "Principles of American Education"² as it stands today.

These references provide an excellent review of present conditions including the purpose, the cost, and the extensiveness of our modern education.

2. After an investigation of the present status of education, turn to "Early Practices"³ and note the changes that have occurred since the colonial and national period.⁴

II. A contrast in the purpose of education, mid-eighteenth century and present, is cited in the reference below.⁵

III. In order to see another democratic change wrought in child welfare, note the earlier treatment in general and the discipline of the children in the schoolroom in particular.⁶

Contrast the earlier treatment of children with that advocated by Pestalozzi.⁷

Report also on the changes, if any, which had taken place in the typical school, by 1860.⁸

2. Ibid., p. 3; In this connection, see also E. P. Cubberley, Education in the United States, pp. 28 ff., and The History of Education, pp. 328 ff., by the same author.

3. Edgar W. Knight, Education in the United States, pp. 97 ff.

4. E. P. Cubberley, History of Education, pp. 54-56.

5. Ibid., pp. 437, 439 ff. (Early period) ; p. 739 (recent).

6. Edgar W. Knight, Education in the United States, pp. 126-29.

7. Ibid.; p. 512.

8. Ibid., p. 311. See also E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, pp. 29, 495; and History of Education by the same author for a more complete account.

VII. To see clearly the survivals of the past in our educational system today, turn to the paragraphs dealing with "Charity and the Rate Bill" and "Survival of Charity" in Knight's Education in the United States.¹²

"The classes of people who opposed education at public expense in the early period differed only slightly from those who now oppose extension of public educational effort. The arguments used then are the arguments often used now. Free education in the early days meant only education for the poor. Numerous were the charity schools established by benevolent individuals who meant well but who helped to fasten upon free education an odium which it has been difficult to remove; the pauper-school conception, which came directly from England during the colonial period, persisted far into the nineteenth century."

The statement of the secretary of the state Board of Education of Connecticut, 1868, helps to show the transitional disgraces attendant upon the charity attitude.

"Shall the distinctions of rich and poor be kept up in the classroom?" ... "Shall the sons of penury be sent to a poorer seat in the schoolhouse, with the hard and humiliating taunt, 'your father does not pay anything for you?'"

The reference is to difficulties arising over those whose parents paid and those who did not pay as the usual rate bill provided. Knight further states:

... "Survivals of the old element of charity may be seen today in those states which permit the public purchase of schoolbooks and supplies only for the poor, or of shoes and clothing to enable poor children to comply with the requirements of compulsory attendance laws. Even pensions to widows to enable their children to go to school bear in some places the taint of charity. In some states the child who accepts from the public a warm lunch at school without money and without price must first declare himself in poverty or be so declared, and receive the lunch as a charity which points its scornful finger at his indigence. He must admit the stigma of baser birth. Thus the state by permitting charity

12. Edgar W. Knight, Education in the United States, pp. 264-5.

in any such form is forced first to degrade those of its members whom it seeks to lift up. It is difficult to see how schools can be considered entirely free so long as any element of charity is allowed to survive in them in any form.

VIII. Note the old and the newer attitude toward the question of free tax-supported schools manifest in the fight for the adoption of such schools in the Pennsylvania legislature, 1835.¹³

IX. In order to profit by a review involving a chronological reorientation, read in the order given the following references in your text;¹⁴

Suggestions for Further Contrasts in Education--
Present and Past.

1. The traditional uses of Latin in the curriculum.¹⁵
2. The means of supporting education by charity, lottery, ratebills, etc.¹⁶
3. Conditions in the district schools; early Massachusetts and the present district schools.
4. Types of school buildings and school conditions.
5. The views of noted men, past and present, in regard to the advisability or need for education, its purposes, etc.¹⁷
6. Vocational Education.

13. Ibid., pp. 267-271.

14. Beard and Beard, History of the United States, a Study in American Civilization, Revised Edition, (1929) pp. 70-77, on the Puritan period; pp. 369-374, "Governing Democratic Vistas"; pp. 664-669, on "Recent American Civilization."

15. H. G. Lull, Inherited Tendencies in Secondary Instruction in the United States and Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education.

16. Edgar W. Knight, Education in the United States and Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education.

17. William Herd Kilpatrick, Source Book in the Philosophy of Education.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study has been to demonstrate the use of the contrast method. The problem involved a search for and the presentation of material that would show these contrasts. Special attention was given to those dealing with inherited prejudice and folkways.

One of the difficulties encountered in this task has been to choose from the bewildering mass of material those significant contrasts that might help the pupil in these days of confused society to see for himself both the antiquated traditional and the newer democratic attitudes and prejudices. No claim is made that the materials used for demonstration have been the best possible to bring out these contrasts; however, the method of attack has been indicated. It is hoped that those who may become interested in the study will substitute for any or all of the references cited in the context when materials that will better serve the purpose are found. It is believed that the contrasts here attempted will serve as suggestions for a more resourceful worker who may arrange material for other contrasts more potent for furthering the democratic concept in all things.

Classroom Use

Insofar as the method could be tested with a small group of ^{eleven} A students in the Roosevelt High School of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, it seemed to have certain outstanding merits.

(1) The pupils who actually used the method became active participants in utilizing the traditional in comparison with the present, rather than passive receptors of the traditional.

(2) They were placed continually in situations which required them to scrutinize the present and hence in a position to see more carefully the part that tradition plays in the present situations. The associative functions seemed to be more constantly brought into play than were they when solving the ordinary problems of the history course. The pupils were literally forced to emerge from the chronological woods of any particular period to consider in perspective the progress or regress that had been made.

(3) Even when the contrast of two wholly different situations--which were not comparable because of radically changed conditions--was attempted, the pupil had an excellent opportunity to detect this change. As a case in point consider the change in conception of crime among the immigrants during the last three hundred years; any attempt at statistical comparison was impossible, but the fact that conditions and also the conception of crime had changed does not detract from the value of the attempted comparison. If conditions are so altered by time that they are beyond comparison that fact is surely significant.

The Selection of Material that Actually Portrays Contrast

The summaries at the end of each section of the study will furnish some basis for judging the results obtained in

the problem of selecting references which show the past and the present. For instance, in the case of the study of attitudes and prejudices, there seems to be little doubt that these references give the pupil the opportunity to compare these attitudes of the past and present and to identify his own among them. He is given the opportunity to see the setting in which the opposition to the early immigrants arose. He can then decide better the question, "Is or is not my attitude toward my foreign neighbors and their American children democratic, or is it tinged with the old theocratic prejudice that has persisted from the days of the Colonists or possibly from the Protestant Revolt?"

It is the assumption that the people of a democracy should be aware of truly democratic ideals; since democracy had its roots in the aristocratic theocracy, it is only natural that many of the old theocratic prejudices are a part of the social heritage of today. No one should deny that many of the finest traits, biases, and prejudices of the Puritans or of the early Virginians are still in existence in America. It is good that that these are conserved. But many of the less desirable prejudices and folkways have also persisted as a social heritage. Modern industrial society too is bewildered by the inherited ways of the old individualism, which have clashed with the newer urges and demands for collective accomplishment.

So today the youth of the nation is unconsciously surrounded with these conflicting attitudes, prejudices and

customs, some of which are democratic and some of which are not. By a contrast with the past the pupil, if furnished with the proper course material, will have some basis for judging the truly democratic, other than his unconsciously acquired traditional notions.

Both adults and children are confused in their thinking by the baffling aspect of the social-political-economic muddle. At a time when the people of the nation should have been bent on determining the intelligent action that might have prevented the present economic catastrophe, they were allowing their undemocratic inherited prejudices dating even from the sixteenth century to befog the real issues and to block action on urgent economic and political policies.

Dr. H. G. Lull, to whom the writer is indebted for the problem in this thesis, says of the need for contrast:

"Democracy presents a contrast with the past. Teachers and curriculum makers need to know this but so do students. We can't live intelligently in a world so mixed, unless we can tell what is 'democratic' and what is not. It should be the first principle in curriculum making that this contrast should be brought out, so that the student can fully understand it. It should guide our teaching in all subjects."

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1. H. G. Lull, "The Social Orientation of the High School Curriculum," chapter VI, unpublished manuscript.

Paramount Problems of the United States

Suggested for Development and Study¹

1. Agriculture (a) Observe the present plight of the farmer, apparently as an incurable individualist, in competition with the powerful and efficient collective organizations. (b) Contrast the simplicity of the self-sufficient, individualistic rural life of earlier times with the rural life of today. (c) Contrast the apparent causes for the recurring agricultural depressions and note what happened with respect to farm tenantry and ownership each time. (d) Contrast the fluctuations in the buying power of the farmer's dollar, bringing out the apparent causes for the variations.
 2. Crime--The contrasts here should deal largely with the changing conceptions in regard to crime. The child must not be allowed to get the idea that because "crime figures" mount to staggering heights that society is growing worse. For instance: a jug of whiskey behind the door in an earlier time was no crime. Today it most surely is, yet far fewer people may be using liquor than in former times. There may have been a positive gain, although the figures on crime may not indicate the advancement.
 3. Prohibition.
 4. Law Enforcement.
 5. Education, other phases than were treated in this study, and suggested at the end of the section dealing with that problem.
 6. Penology and Prison Reform.
 7. The Administration of Justice.
 8. Lawlessness, Disrespect for Law.
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1. See Appendix III.

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APPENDIX I

After delving into these attitudes toward the immigrant, past and present, the pupil may wonder what it all amounts to. It is the purpose of what follows to clear up this point a bit. It should be the policy of teachers and curriculum makers to refrain from foisting conclusions upon others. But because of the difficulty in seeing the effect of outworn prejudices and folkways a digression is here made. Capable people should learn early to do their own thinking. They should be always alert to learn the cause and effect of the social factors and forces about them.

In the realm of mechanical inventions it is easier to see and deal with the factors than in the case of social attitudes and prejudices. The mechanical phase stands out in relief while the latter are acquired subtly, like an unseen social heritage. Few people are sufficiently intelligent to see the significance and danger of an obsolete attitude. Such attitudes are ingrained in the folkways of a people.

Anyone can plainly see the mechanical contrast presented in the harvesting of a field of grain with the old-fashioned cradle and the modern combine harvester. The cradle farmer of today would hardly be expected to compete economically with the owner of the modern machine. He would be considered foolish to attempt it. The cradle obviously belongs to the era of individualism and small scale production from which society is emerging. Once it served humanity adequately. Society has now laid it aside.

Now turn to an example of outworn attitudes or prejudices. Here the contrast of the old and the new is not so evident. Old attitudes, it must be remembered, which were once useful to society as was the cradle in the earlier days, become obsolete and inadequate in the days of complex interdependent cosmopolitan society, such as that of the United States.

In order to see just how this can be it is merely necessary to recall the setting in which many of the attitudes and prejudices of the present once functioned. It will be remembered that the colonial groups of New England whence came much of the governmental machinery of our democracy were theocratic in nature. Church and state were one. The make-up of the colonial population was homogeneous both in religion and in nationality. They of that day had also inherited fears of their fellow men dating from the experiences of European religious turmoil. Any inroad of European people of another faith would upset, so they thought, the very foundation of their religious life and government. Roger Williams was banished and others were persecuted by imprisonment and by other means. Immigrants such as the Quakers or Friends, and also our French, German and Dutch ancestors, were legislated against. By this means those of another faith were kept out of the colony very successfully.

Perhaps these prejudices and attitudes served well to prevent dissention and to promote order in those isolated, theocratic colonies. Though the theocracy passed, those same

types of attitudes and prejudices of the Puritan days have been handed down from father to son. They are indeed alive today, although not so evident. They play more of a part in the decisions of those who are responsible for the personnel of industry and even political office than many suppose. And this too in spite of the spirit back of the First Amendment to the Constitution. It is not the purpose nor is it the place to go deeply into the ramifications of these prejudices in politics or in community life. That must be left to the clean cut thinking of the pupil as he meets situations of everyday life.

A single instance will be cited to show how even in present day legislation these old attitudes tend to affect the lives of Americans.

The old aristocratic theocracy gave way to democracy, in form at least, with the American Revolution. But the same prejudices have remained. The grain cradle has been relegated to the museum but these obsolete prejudices and attitudes are still slashing away in the fields of human affairs, unseen by the great mass of people.

Consider most carefully this "hangover" of prejudice directed at the foreign-born worker as illustrated by the Compulsory Compensation Act passed by the legislature of a great midwestern state.¹

1. Roberts, Peter, The New Immigration, p. 89, quoted in THE SURVEY, September 23, 1911, p. 860.

This act provided that the dependents of victims of fatal accidents should receive a sum equal to three years wages, not to exceed \$3600, but to non-resident alien dependents the sum should not exceed \$750.

The citation above is intended to show the seriousness of these persistent prejudices. Imagine such discrimination, in a democratic society, against the unfortunate children of "foreigners" killed in industry. The children of these foreigners, if born in the United States, are as truly Americans as was Andrew Jackson or Alexander Hamilton! Or, suppose the children of the deceased foreigner were born abroad; would such discrimination make them better potential American citizens?

APPENDIX II

Native Americans versus Foreigners

Of the Southern highland people, Charles Morrow Wilson,¹ writing in the Atlantic Monthly, says:

"The Southern highlands have between six and seven million people, which is about the population of England during the days of Shakespeare. Nearly eighty-six per cent of the Southern highlanders are rural people . . . Husbandmen and plowmen of Shakespeares England and present day upland farmers could very likely rubbed shoulders and swapped yarns with very few misunderstandings, lingual or otherwise, for Elizabethan English as well as Elizabethan England appears to have survived in the isolated Southern uplands."

Ample evidence is sighted by the author to support his contention.

"Broadly speaking the Southern highlanders are an old English folk, English and Scotch-Irish, whose forebears came from Elizabethan England . . . And the spirit of Elizabethan England has long survived the weathering of time. The first settlers brought with them Elizabethan ways of living, and these ways have lasted in a country of magnificent isolation, one little touched by the ways of the modern world."

If it be true that these people are living the life of the English and Scotch-Irish immigrants, and indeed so it seems, a comparison of the misdeeds of the new immigrants with those of these mountain people should be worthy of consideration. For it is said that these Scotch-Irish ancestors, more than any other stock, have molded our national character.²

In "Elizabethan America" the author states that the ethical stand of the mountain moonshiner is closely akin to the forest poacher "in the days of Queen Bess". And certainly in regard to respect for the law of the land the "new" immigrants compare favorably with these mountain people.

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1. Charles Morrow Wilson, "Elizabethan America" in ATLANTIC MONTHLY- Vol. 144, August, 1929, p. 238.
 2. See "Old World in the New" by E. A. Ross, p. 13.

For neither "foreign gangsters" nor moonshiners, it would seem "have time for mincing and bickering about professional casualties. Should one be killed or lamed by an enforcement officer, well, that is all in a day's labor. And if it appears expedient to plug a 'law' in the back where the suspenders cross, or to shove one over a high wild bluff with only moonlight, and mountain air, and limestone ledges below, then that too, is a part of the game of swap." Blood feuds in these regions, it might be added, are about as readily settled by law as are similar differences among the "Un-American" Italians.

From these comparisons between native Americans and the "new" immigrants, the pupils should see that no particular group, whether immigrant or native, has a clear record of law and order. The instructor should help to make this plain by a review of the findings of Shaw in his study of "Delinquency Areas"! In this study the author points out clearly the environmental influence of certain areas in which crime is heaviest. He shows how the criminal record of the immigrants changes as they enter and pass beyond the limits of certain crime-ridden sections of Chicago.

"A public convention was held near Coatsville, Pennsylvania, soon after that holocaust of a Negro in that town--the man was taken from a bed in the hospital and barbarously burnt under a tree on the public highway; within twenty yards of the scene of their savagery lived some twenty families of foreigners but not one of them had a hand in that shameful act. Many of them witnessed it, they knew what was going on. They saw native-born Americans perpetrating the deed that was common on this continent, among savages of three hundred years ago."²

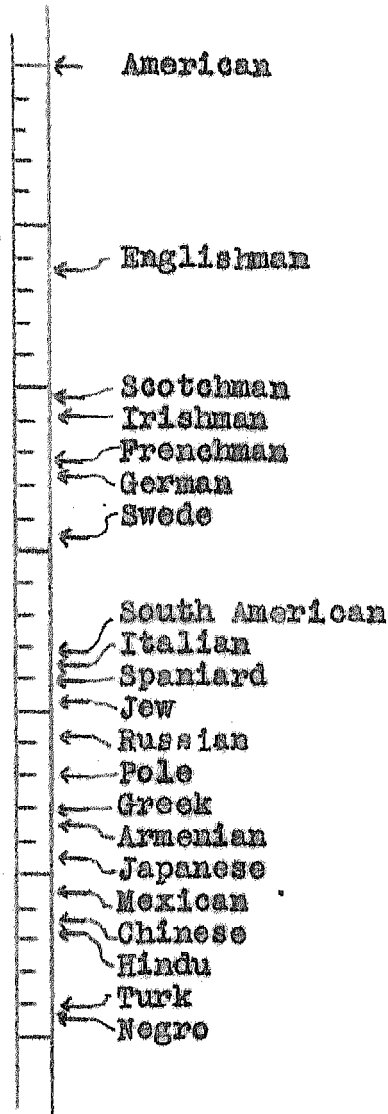
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1. Shaw, Clifford Robe, Delinquency Areas.
 2. The New Immigration, Roberts, Peter, p. 246.

APPENDIX III.

Contributed through the Courtesy of J.W. Beatson, Secretary and Treasurer of the National Economic League.

Year	Amount	Name
1911	100.00	...
1912	150.00	...
1913	200.00	...
1914	250.00	...
1915	300.00	...
1916	350.00	...
1917	400.00	...
1918	450.00	...
1919	500.00	...
1920	550.00	...
1921	600.00	...
1922	650.00	...
1923	700.00	...
1924	750.00	...
1925	800.00	...
1926	850.00	...
1927	900.00	...
1928	950.00	...
1929	1000.00	...
1930	1050.00	...
1931	1100.00	...
1932	1150.00	...
1933	1200.00	...
1934	1250.00	...
1935	1300.00	...
1936	1350.00	...
1937	1400.00	...
1938	1450.00	...
1939	1500.00	...
1940	1550.00	...
1941	1600.00	...
1942	1650.00	...
1943	1700.00	...
1944	1750.00	...
1945	1800.00	...
1946	1850.00	...
1947	1900.00	...
1948	1950.00	...
1949	2000.00	...
1950	2050.00	...
1951	2100.00	...
1952	2150.00	...
1953	2200.00	...
1954	2250.00	...
1955	2300.00	...
1956	2350.00	...
1957	2400.00	...
1958	2450.00	...
1959	2500.00	...
1960	2550.00	...
1961	2600.00	...
1962	2650.00	...
1963	2700.00	...
1964	2750.00	...
1965	2800.00	...
1966	2850.00	...
1967	2900.00	...
1968	2950.00	...
1969	3000.00	...
1970	3050.00	...
1971	3100.00	...
1972	3150.00	...
1973	3200.00	...
1974	3250.00	...
1975	3300.00	...
1976	3350.00	...
1977	3400.00	...
1978	3450.00	...
1979	3500.00	...
1980	3550.00	...
1981	3600.00	...
1982	3650.00	...
1983	3700.00	...
1984	3750.00	...
1985	3800.00	...
1986	3850.00	...
1987	3900.00	...
1988	3950.00	...
1989	4000.00	...
1990	4050.00	...
1991	4100.00	...
1992	4150.00	...
1993	4200.00	...
1994	4250.00	...
1995	4300.00	...
1996	4350.00	...
1997	4400.00	...
1998	4450.00	...
1999	4500.00	...
2000	4550.00	...
2001	4600.00	...
2002	4650.00	...
2003	4700.00	...
2004	4750.00	...
2005	4800.00	...
2006	4850.00	...
2007	4900.00	...
2008	4950.00	...
2009	5000.00	...
2010	5050.00	...
2011	5100.00	...
2012	5150.00	...
2013	5200.00	...
2014	5250.00	...
2015	5300.00	...
2016	5350.00	...
2017	5400.00	...
2018	5450.00	...
2019	5500.00	...
2020	5550.00	...
2021	5600.00	...
2022	5650.00	...
2023	5700.00	...
2024	5750.00	...
2025	5800.00	...
2026	5850.00	...
2027	5900.00	...
2028	5950.00	...
2029	6000.00	...
2030	6050.00	...
2031	6100.00	...
2032	6150.00	...
2033	6200.00	...
2034	6250.00	...
2035	6300.00	...
2036	6350.00	...
2037	6400.00	...
2038	6450.00	...
2039	6500.00	...
2040	6550.00	...
2041	6600.00	...
2042	6650.00	...
2043	6700.00	...
2044	6750.00	...
2045	6800.00	...
2046	6850.00	...
2047	6900.00	...
2048	6950.00	...
2049	7000.00	...
2050	7050.00	...

IV

Scale of Nationality Preferences¹

1. This scale taken from a study by L. L. Thurstone. The Journal of General Psychology, July-October, 1928, p. 417, gives some idea of the prevailing attitudes of Americans toward the peoples that make up our population. The farther up on the scale a nationality appears, the greater the preference for that nationality. This study was made at the University of Chicago using 239 undergraduate students as subjects.

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