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JUSTICE

By Edward Simmons

This frontispiece is a reproduction of a famous mural decoration in the New York Criminal Court House.

The background is the doorway of the criminal court room. Justice stands before the entrance holding in one hand the conventional scales as a token of impartiality, and in the other hand a globe to symbolize the world. Over her left shoulder is draped the national flag. Condemnation and Acquittal are typified by the two children, one of whom holds a sword, the other the dove of peace.

It has been usual to prefigure the Goddess of Justice with her eyes bandaged, in token of her immunity from outside influence. Mr. Simmons, however, has here portrayed Justice with her eyes uncovered, because he believed that "Justice should have her eyes wide open—particularly in New York City".

The artist's wife and two children were the models for this painting.



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SOCIAL CIVICS

BY

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AND

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Many excellent textbooks are already available for the teaching of civics. Why should another be added to the number? Wherein does this book differ from the rest? What are its outstanding features?

The Plan. This book covers a wider range than most texts. It includes not only a survey of governmental framework and functions, but many topics which are ordinarily spoken of as questions in economics, sociology, and international relations. The propriety of including such topics scarcely requires a defensive argument nowadays, for the old lines of demarcation in the social sciences are rapidly breaking down. The problems of our complex modern civilization pay no heed to technical boundaries. They are the joint product of political, social, and economic forces. No one can get a grasp of them if he lets, his mind run on a single track. A well-organized course in civics, or in the problems of democracy, should acquaint the student with the great institutions, relations, and principles which dominate the life of the community. To accomplish this end it should carry him as far afield as need be.

The Method. Nevertheless, the main theme of this book is American government. No matter what the topic under discussion, the authors have tried to link it up with the drift and purposes of governmental action and policy. This intimate and continuous connection between public problems and public policy is the central concept of the book; it is the thread which holds the various chapters

together. There are many winding roads in the broad domain of the social sciences, but sooner or later they all lead through the realm of government.

The authors have not tried to discuss every possible phase of their subject. Questions of outstanding importance have been given the right of way; minor matters have been relegated to the footnotes or omitted altogether. Those who desire enlightenment upon the odds and ends of government or economics can get it from an encyclopedia. The primary aim has been to get the facts hitched up to principles, and to set the principles in their right perspective. For this reason considerable space has been given to problems which, although international in their scope, are of profound importance to the people of the United States.

The Arrangement. No two textbook writers seem able to agree as to the proper order in which material should be arranged. But the sequence of the chapters is not, after all, a matter of much importance. No one feels under any obligation to finish the Book of Deuteronomy before beginning to read the Acts of the Apostles. The teacher who prefers to start with the civic activities rather than with the organization of government should have no hesitation in doing so. In this book, at any rate, each of the larger divisions of the subject is treated independently, and does not depend upon the others. Some schools devote a half year to civics, and a half year to economics. Material adapted to such an arrangement can be obtained by a slight transposition of the chapters.¹

The Supplementary Material. More than a hundred pages are devoted to lists of general references, group problems, short studies, questions, and topics for debate. It is not anticipated, of course, that any teacher can find

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¹ For example, by covering Chapters i, ii, iv-xvi, xxviii-xxix, in the first term and Chapters iii, xvii-xxvii, xxx-xxxii in the second.

time to use them all; but the endeavor has been made to afford ample variety for selection. Among the general references are included not only a few of the most authoritative and most recent publications. but also some elementary books which can ordinarily be found in the smaller school and public libraries. The group problems are intended to be of special service to those teachers who use the "project method" of instruction: but in any event the practice of setting groups of pupils to work upon problems of a comprehensive character is a good one for every teacher to pursue at times. Some of these group problems are "projects" in the strict sense of the term; others are merely research topics of an elementary sort. Some involve field work: some do not. The questions are not designed to be tests of memory, but to provide a basis for socialized recitations, to provoke discussion, and to encourage among the pupils the habit of forming their own opinions. The numerous and varied topics for debate have been inserted with the idea of lending encouragement to one of the most effective methods of promoting interest in public problems.

The Point of View. In dealing with controverted questions, of which there are a great many in the field of civics, the authors have tried to hold the scales justly, and to give both sides a fair hearing. It may be that they have not in all cases succeeded; if so, they can only plead the unconscious partisanship to which all human flesh is heir. In any event these chapters have been written with a sincere desire to promote a more intelligent citizenship, with an abiding faith in the merits of American government, and with the conviction that the people of the United States will prove abundantly capable of solving their manifold problems by the traditional process of reconciling liberty with law.

The Illustrations. Apart from a number of diagrams,

the illustrative material has been drawn from the masterpieces of American mural art. They symbolize what is best in our civilization; they may serve to give pupils a passing acquaintance with a few creative works of enduring value; and they have some artistic merit, which most textbook illustrations have not. For the selection of these illustrations and for the explanatory legends which accompany them, I am indebted to my wife.

A Word of Acknowledgment. To Mr. Ozanne this book owes a large part of whatever value it may possess. He has had a great deal to do with the arrangement of materials and the methods of presentation. Every page has had his repeated scrutiny. It is to me a great pleasure to have had, in this work, the close co-operation of one who possesses not only a mastery of the subject but a rare proficiency in classroom methods.

WILLIAM BENNETT MUNRO.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, February 22, 1922.

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into terms of money before we buy or sell them. A general rise or fall in prices is quite possible, for this is merely another way of saying that money will buy less or more of all other things. It is immaterial whether we say that prices have gone up or that money has gone down; we mean exactly the same thing.

What determines the level of prices?

Competition and Monopoly.-Exchange is conducted. for the most part, under free competition. Buvers give as little as they can in money for goods: sellers get as much as they can. When goods bring higher prices, more will be produced until prices are forced down again; if prices fall, production will decline until the reduction in supply serves to bring them up again. This is the theory of free competition. In practice, however, it does not always work so automatically. Some things, such as diamonds and platinum, cannot be produced in unlimited quantities no matter how much labor, capital, and organization we may apply. Other things are *legal* monopolies. or patented articles, which can be produced by only one concern and are not subject to the direct influence of competition. Still others are natural monopolies due to the fact that from the nature of things only one concern can produce the goods or render the service. A telephone company, for example, has a natural monopoly. Competition involves a complete duplication of the service. It means that many subscribers have to put two telephones in their stores or homes in order to get into full touch with other users of telephones. The net cost of telephone service to customers cannot be reduced in this way. Finally, some things are the subject of artificial monopoly, that is to say, they are produced or distributed under arrangements which restrict or eliminate competition (see pp. 386-388).

The effects of monopoly. All these forms of monopoly interfere with free competition and they cover a great many of the things which are

CHAPTER IV

THE NATURE AND FORMS OF GOVERNMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to explain what government is, how it originated, why people obey it, and what its functions are.

What is the State?-The word "state" is so short and simple that everybody is assumed to know just what it means. And in a general way everyone does know what it means. But it is used in more than one sense and with a good deal of latitude. When we speak, for example, of the "newly-created states of Europe" we mean Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, and Jugo-Slavia. The term "state". so used, designates a country with an independent political existence. But we also speak of "the states of the Union", by which we mean merely the political divisions of a single country. Then, again, one frequently encounters such expressions as "a statesman who served the state" or "state control of railroads", or "the relations between Church and State". To what does the term in such cases refer? Here the expression is used in a generic sense to include politically organized society, and those who so use it are thinking more particularly of the political agencies through which organized society acts.

A general definition.

A simple definition will cover all these uses of the term. A state is a body of people, possessing a definite territory, and politically organized. Territory is essential. The Jews for many centuries did not constitute a state

Various uses of the word "state". 10. Jeffersonian and Jacksonian democracy. A. C. McLAUGHLIN, Steps in the Development of American Democracy, pp. 78-116.

11. The outlook for democracy in America. F. A. CLEVELAND, Organized Democracy, pp. 438-448.

12. The economic functions of government. C. J. BULLOCK, Introduction to the Study of Economics, pp. 478-492.

Questions

1. What is the difference between a state and society? Is India a state? Are the Esquimos a state? Are pirates citizens or subjects of a state? Did the Mayflower Pilgrims constitute a state before they touched land?

2. Has the doctrine of evolution affected our ideas concerning the origin of government? Are there any primitive types of government in the world today?

3. Give some examples of the "constructive work of government" besides those mentioned in the text.

4. Why are ancient classifications of government practically useless today? When you say that the United States is a *federal democratic republic* what ideas do you intend to convey in each of the three italicized words?

5. Do you believe that the plan of government now existing in the United States would be suitable for (a) the British Empire; (b) China; (c) Switzerland; (d) Canada? Tell why or why not in each case.

6. Make up lists of the functions which properly belong to national, state, and local governments respectively. Give your reasons for placing such things as "education", fire-protection", "public health", "criminal law", "conservation of natural resources", and "regulation of commerce" in one or the other list.

7. James Madison once said that the concentration of legislative, executive, and judicial powers in the same hands would be "the very definition of tyranny". What did he mean? Was he right? Does the same danger exist today?

8: Arrange the mandatory functions of government in what you believe to be their order of importance and give reasons for your arrangement.

9. Can you name any characteristics of American government other than those given in the text? Do the following things distinguish American government from other governments: woman is another health measure of great importance. In many of the larger cities this inspection includes all school children, of whatever age, and is made at frequent intervals. It permits the early detection of symptoms and thus allows remedies to be applied promptly. It has done a great deal to protect the schools against the frequent outbreak of epidemics.

How Health Measures are Enforced.-The duty of enforcing measures for the protection of the public health rests first of all upon the local health officers. The laws of most states now require that a board of health or some similar authority shall be maintained in every township, village, town, and city. One of the members of this board of health must usually be a physician. In large towns and cities a qualified health officer, who is always a physician, is employed on part time or full The local boards of health and the health officers time have charge of quarantine and disinfection, the inspection of food and milk, and the enforcement of sanitary regulations. They also grant permits for the maintenance of slaughter-houses and other establishments which have a direct or indirect relation to the public health.

In practically all the states, moreover, there is a State Department of Health. This department is usually under the supervision of a State Board of Health, but in a few states a single health commissioner has been placed in charge. The powers and duties of these state departments vary a good deal throughout the country, but in a general way they assist the local health authorities, especially when an epidemic threatens to spread beyond local control. A good deal of their work is advisory in character.

The United States Public Health Service was established in 1912, although health work had been carried on by the national government through other agencies prior to that

Local boards of health.

State health officers.

The United States Public Health Service date. It is, rather strangely, a bureau of the Treasury The Public Health Service has charge of Department. the port quarantine system; its assistance may be obtained by the states at any time in coping with epidemics; and it maintains well-equipped research laboratories for the study of all questions affecting the public health. It is believed by many physicians that the work of this bureau is so important that it ought to be made a regular department of the national administration with a member of the cabinet at its head.¹

Education and the Public Health.-The basis of successful public health work is the education of people in hygiene and sanitation. If the people can be brought to realize the transcendent importance of the work, their co-operation will be given cheerfully. Where the health regulations are now disobeyed it is largely because their value to the individual, as well as to the community, has not been made clear. An effective method of educating the public is by means of health exhibits which demonstrate, with the aid of pictures, especially motion pictures, the value of proper hygienic conditions in the workshop and the home. But the ultimate education of the whole people in this field, as in all others, must be primarily the work of the schools. It is easier to teach hygiene and sanitation to children than to grown-ups. Adults have acquired habits of life and attitudes of mind which are hard to alter. Hence What the the education of children in all that relates to clean living, wholesome food, modern sanitation, and the avoidance of disease should be part of the regular work in schools throughout the country. Upon this will depend, in no small degree, the future physical well-being of the nation.

schools can do.

¹ At the Peace Conference in 1919 the protection of the public health throughout the world was considered so important that provision for it was included in the Covenant of the League of Nations (see p. 638).