

ELEMENTARY
COMMUNITY
CIVICS

HUGHES



ONTARIO
EDITION —

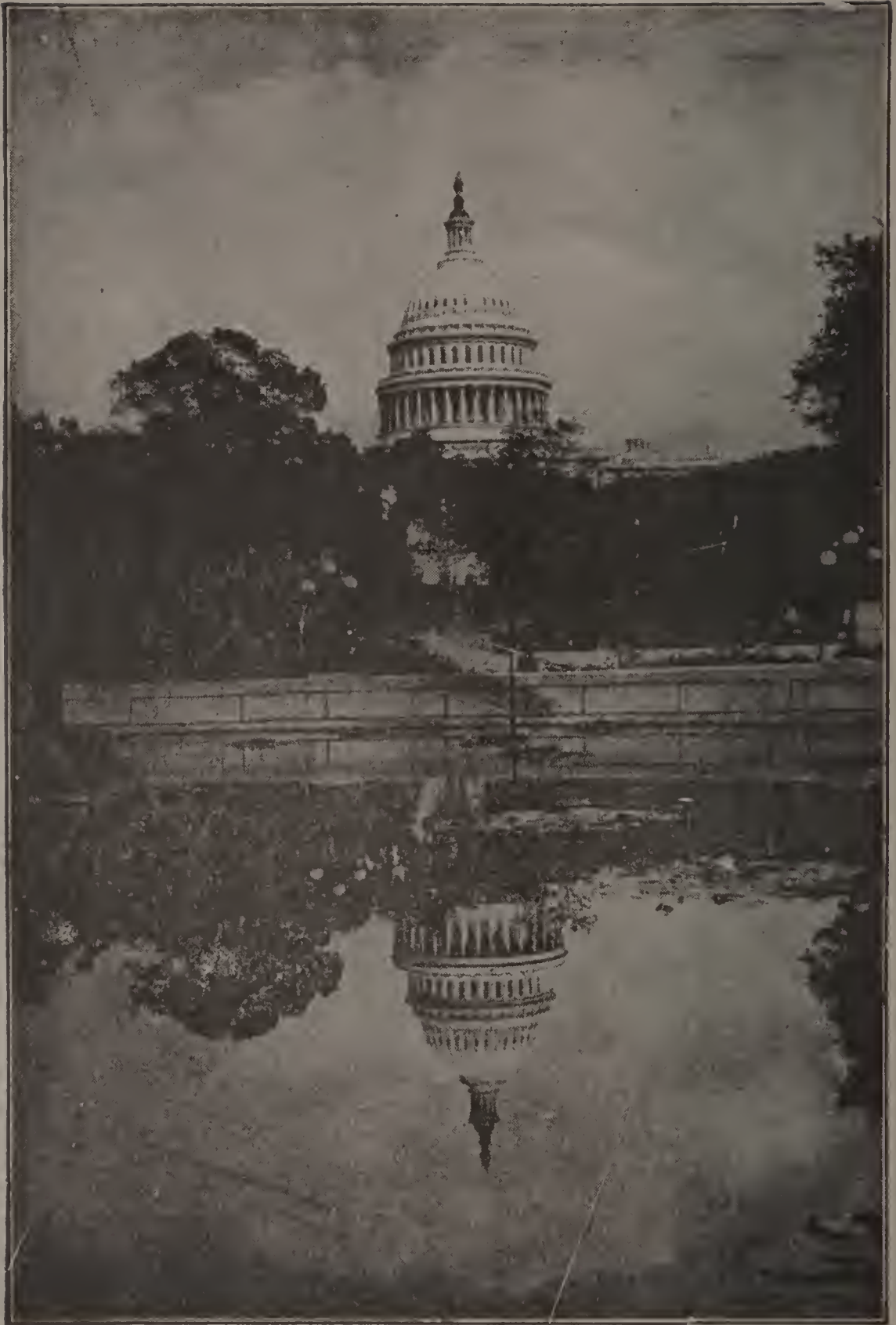


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THE NATIONAL CAPITOL, WASHINGTON

ELEMENTARY COMMUNITY CIVICS

Oklahoma Edition

BY

R. O. HUGHES

PEABODY HIGH SCHOOL, PITTSBURGH



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PREFACE

It is generally agreed to-day that the main reason for the existence of schools is to help our pupils to become good citizens. Our schools teach the three R's because everybody needs these tools in order to act intelligently in his relations with his fellow men. It is no less important for the pupil to learn that his life *must* be lived in close association with his fellow men and to profit by the experience of human beings in regard to these relations.

President Wilson, in sounding the slogan, "The world must be made safe for democracy," set people to thinking deeply about the elements which make the world unsafe.

In spite of the wonderful and gratifying increase in the number of pupils who go on to our high schools, it is unfortunately true that the great majority of school children never get beyond the grammar grades. If an intense civic consciousness is to be developed in our children, we must be sure that those below high school age have a chance to think and study about their social relationships. And, if they do go into the high school or beyond, these early lessons will serve them well as a foundation for further study.

So this book has been written with the hope of appealing particularly to our pupils of junior high school age—the years just below the high school. Extensive use has been made of outlines and courses of study prepared by experts in this field throughout the United States. To the makers of these outlines, the author is indebted for countless helpful suggestions.

Some teachers may find it convenient or desirable to take up the topics in an order differing from that followed in the book. The arrangement of topics allows ready adjustment to any desirable changes. If the community civics course is to be followed by a course in vocational or economic civics, teachers will doubtless prefer to omit some of the topics of Chapters VII and VIII of this book.

The author hopes that this work will help our younger pupils to get started along lines of sound thinking and effective action in all the matters that concern our common life. Teachers who are engaged day by day in inspiring high ideals and lofty impulses in the hearts of the young folk whom they meet will feel that they have a task calling for the best that is in them and promising results of infinite worth. Theodore Roosevelt said: "We, here in America, hold in our hands the fate of the world, the hope of coming years. And shame and disgrace will be ours if in our eyes the light of high resolve is dimmed, if we trail in the dust the golden hopes of men."

R. O. H.

Pittsburgh, 1923.

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ELEMENTARY COMMUNITY CIVICS

THE COMMUNITY IDEA

CHAPTER I

THE CITIZEN IN THE COMMUNITY

*All are needed by each one,
Nothing is fair or good alone.—Emerson.*

1. **Ourselves and Other People.**— We come into a room, some one presses a button in the wall, and light gleams forth from the globes above our heads. Did we make the light? No, the current which furnishes the light comes from the community power-plant, where many people are employed whom we have never seen. In order to produce the current, they must have coal. The mining and transportation of the coal employ many more men whom we have never met.

Or, if we are not so situated as to have electricity, we may notice the same thing in using the kerosene lamp. The match we strike to light it was manufactured in a distant town; the oil was taken from a well, perhaps six or seven hundred miles away, and the lamp itself produced by workers who never know the men and women who use it. Although we seldom stop to think of it, there is scarcely anything we do, even the most common-place, every-day act, which does not show our dependence upon other people.

How did you spend last Saturday and Sunday? Did you do anything which you could have done if there had been nobody else within a hundred miles? How many things can you think of which a person can do without making use of what some one else has done? Is there such a thing as a self-made man?

Since we depend so greatly upon other people and the products of their labor, how necessary it is that everyone should realize the responsibility he bears for the welfare of others! Suppose all the coal miners should go on a strike.



Courtesy Duquesne Light Co.

THE POWER PLANT.

Several hundred thousand people living miles away are wholly or partly dependent on this plant, at Cheswick, Pa., for their light and power.

The power-plant would soon run out of coal and could not generate the current to supply the people with light. If people did not coöperate—did not work together—we should have to go back to the old way of rubbing two sticks together to make a fire, and, because we should have no ax, we should have to break branches with our hands in order

to get the sticks. If even one person stops doing his part, many others may be affected.

It is really a question of team-work. The left half-back may be the best player in four counties, but if he refuses to back up the left tackle when that player can not stop the other team's rushes, victory for his team is going to be very unlikely. And what would you think of the short-stop who expected the pitcher to strike out all the other team, and would not chase any balls which were hit? The principle is just the same in all our relations with other people.

Will it make any difference to other people if a postman is sick? if a minister goes on a vacation? if an engineer fails to report for duty? if you are not at school next Tuesday? Can you give examples of enterprises that failed for lack of team-work?

There is a selfish side, too, to this matter of coöperation. The more we do for other people, the more they are willing to do for us. Besides, our own lives are made pleasanter and more comfortable by reason of our being with others. For a little while we may like to get out into the heart of the woods and live as people had to live before civilization came. But a few weeks of this kind of life is all that most of us care for, and we are then ready enough to come back where there are people, and all the things that exist just because there are people to use them. And when we go out on a camping trip, we usually want to take some one else along. Few people care to be hermits.

Make a list of ten things in common use which would be of no value to a hermit. Make a list of ten articles made by others which even a hermit would find useful. Are farmers to-day more or less dependent upon others than they were a hundred years ago? Which is more dependent upon others, a farm family or a town family?

In order that people may get the benefit of one another's services, they live in communities. By a *community* we mean any group of people living together in a given locality, bound to one another by common interests, and

subject to common laws. The "locality" may be a neighborhood, or a town, or a city, or a state, or even a continent, but wherever the people have interests and laws in common, there is a community. And by *laws* we mean here any customs or practices which people regularly observe, as well as the formal documents, drawn up in writing or print, which tell people what to do and what not to do.

2. The First Community We Know. — Into one com-



A COUNTRY HOME IN WINTER.

There may be snow on the outside, but this need not interfere with the warm and happy life within.

munity most of us come before we realize it. The home is a real community. All its members have many interests in common, and are subject to common rules or laws. Sometimes these rules are made by custom, and sometimes by reason of the desires and wishes of the father or the mother or of all the members alike.

What are some of the things in which everyone in your home is interested? Should a child be afraid of his parents, or think of them as he thinks of his playmates? To what extent does the place where a person lives determine the kind of home life he will have?

The home gives its members protection and shelter. It teaches them to live and work with other people. We find here our tenderest affections, and obtain some of our noblest ideals. In return, the members of the home surely owe it their truest loyalty and help. They must uphold the family honor, and each member must do his part to make the home happy and prosperous.

Mention some things that you observe in a happy home; some things that cause homes to be unhappy. Do you think the character of many people is changed after they leave home? In what direction? What does a person usually learn at home that he would not learn in any other place?

3. Other Communities Closely Related to Us. — As we grow in years, we come in touch with other communities, such as the school, the church, the neighborhood, industry, and the state. These are wider than the home but closely related to it.

Show that each one of these is a community in the sense of our definition of a community.

The school gives us education and fits us to meet life. It teaches us to respect and obey authority. While we cannot possibly remember everything we learn in school, the



THE KENMORE.

A fashionable apartment building on Beacon Street, Boston. Would you care to live here?

training we get helps us afterward in whatever work we do. We should be loyal and obedient to our school, and support it in what it does, and do nothing ourselves to lower the regard of people for it.

From our early years most of us become acquainted with the church, the Sunday-school, or some similar organization. Few people would care to live in a neighborhood without



WHAT PASSES FOR A HOME IN A LUMBER CAMP.

churches. In such a place the morals of the people are likely to be low. The church teaches us how to live rightly. It helps us to understand the moral and social needs of people, and how they can be promoted.

A less organized but still very important community is our neighborhood. There may be no one person or body of people in charge of it, but it certainly has common interests for its members. Of course we are concerned about the attractiveness of our own street or block. We want the street kept clean, and the lawns and trees kept in order, and the good name of the neighborhood preserved. The

neighborhood teaches us to live with others, and to respect their wishes and desires.

Industry forms another kind of community. Almost every grown person must earn a living, and industry gives him the opportunity to do so. It also produces all the necessities of life, as well as the comforts and luxuries we enjoy. In industry there is special need of coöperation and working together. The strikes and dissatisfaction of which we hear and read, show that there is not enough of this. Each worker in an industry, whether he is an employer, a manager, or a day-laborer, should do all he can to promote the interest of his fellow-workers. He ought to realize, too, that the comfort and happiness of thousands of people may depend upon his faithfulness and honesty, and he should not for any trifling reason disturb the orderly life of those who depend upon him.

The State makes it possible for all these other communities to exist in safety. By this term we do not mean a part of our Union, like New York or Pennsylvania or Indiana, but the whole people acting together for the purpose of government. By *government* we mean the carrying out of the will of the people as a whole and the enforcement of obedience to the will of the community. Often when we say "the government" we mean the combination of laws and persons which we have set up as an agency to do this work.

This agency serves us in a variety of ways.

- (1) It furnishes protection and establishes peace and order.
- (2) It does many things by which the people are benefited and which they either can not do at all by private means or can not do as well; such as furnishing education, protection, health, constructing and repairing highways, and the like.
- (3) It organizes for us what we may call political communities, such as counties, cities, and states in the sense in which we more often use the word.

- (4) It teaches us to recognize authority and obey the laws made for our own good. When people disagree about their duties toward one another, or when one person wrongs another, it undertakes to see that justice is done.

The least we can do in return for these services is to render our allegiance and service. We should try to become intelligent citizens, for only that kind of citizen can understand what our communities need. Then, when we are allowed to vote, we should do our best to put good men in office. And we should be faithful to those who are in authority, so long as they are honestly doing the best they can, even though we might have preferred to see some other persons in their places.

All these communities are closely related. They owe something to one another, and each affects the others. The homes from which the children come may make or mar the school to which they are sent. The school, in turn, may influence greatly the life of the home. It fits the children to be intelligent workers in industry later and to become citizens who can think clearly and act wisely in dealing with the affairs of the town, the city, the state, and the country. The church sets up high standards for people to live by, and thus helps to make the school, the home, industry, and the government better. Over them all, the state extends its protecting arm, and one of them—the school—it actually supplies.

Fill out a table like the following:

How this helps	Home	School	Church	Industry	State
Home					
School					
Church					
Industry					
State					

4. **The Beginnings of a Pioneer Settlement.** — No city or other big community came into being all at once. Its

history is the story of small beginnings which developed, usually slowly, into greater things. To get a glimpse of the way this process often took place, look back to the time, a century or more ago, when our great central valleys were occupied only by widely scattered forts or trading posts at places which had some importance for geographical reasons, such as Pittsburgh, Detroit, or St. Louis. The same kind of thing which we will describe was going on at



School-House.

Emigrants to the West.

THE "PRAIRIE SCHOONER."

At least part of the family travelled on foot, while their goods were carried in the wagon. This picture is copied from an old school geography.

the same time, too, in many parts of older states such as Pennsylvania, New York, or Virginia.

Suppose a family conclude that they can better themselves by going into the West to build a home. They load upon a "prairie schooner" all their possessions which they can carry, and start out, some of them walking a good deal of the way. At length they find a place which seems suitable. They cut down some of the trees and brush, and begin the building of their log-cabin home, and the cultivation of the soil. Of course they have to do everything

themselves. They grow their own food, except the wild game and fish which they can capture and kill. They weave cloth and make their own clothes. The parents themselves have to give the children whatever education they get, and if they have formal worship, it must be in their own home.

The father makes annual or semi-annual trips to the nearest settlement to get some of the things that he cannot possibly make. On these trips he may try to interest other people in coming out to settle near him, and perhaps he finally brings a man or two back with him. At length other families come, until there may be a dozen or more families within a few miles of each other. These form a neighborhood group or community.

Now they begin to coöperate in doing the work of the community, and no longer does each family have to do everything for itself. Perhaps one man is a common carrier for everybody, and goes to and from the nearest settlement, either with his horse or mule team, or by flat-boat or some other crude river-craft. Some one else opens a general store. Another starts a blacksmith shop. If traders or travellers begin to come rather frequently, somebody will open a tavern where men and horses can be cared for over night.

By this time probably a rude school-house has been built. Instead of receiving occasional visits from the sometimes coarse and loud-talking, but courageous, travelling preachers, a church is erected and a minister settled. A real village community has at last been established, and the government at Washington sees to it that mail is regularly carried to and from it at least once a week.

Sometimes, however, a whole group of people would come at the beginning. Perhaps they would organize a company and send out agents to look over the new land in advance. These men would try to find a healthful spot, where there was good water, where the soil was fertile, and the land

not too hilly, and where perhaps there were mineral deposits, or a stream that could be used for water-power or for navigation. The agents might send their report to the people back home, and while waiting for them to come, might roughly plan out the town.

Here is the interesting story of New Sweden, Maine. As you read it you will notice that it is much the same as the accounts of many settlements made along the Atlantic



A NEW FRONTIER TOWN.

This is Calexico, California, on the Mexican boundary. The town was started in the midst of a desert on land irrigated from the Colorado River, but though only a few years old enjoys almost every modern convenience.

coast in our early colonial days, except that this time a man from America went over to get them. A somewhat similar history could be told of many another place.

“Fifty years ago, in 1870, New Sweden—a township six miles square, of high hills and correspondingly deep valleys dotted with white farmhouses and red barns, each on a hundred or more acres, with amber fields of grain and with verdant plots of potatoes, with newly mown hay fields, and with groves of spruce and tamarack, beech and birch,

maple and pine, a happy, prosperous community—was one unbroken wilderness. A dense forest covered all the land.

“During our Civil War, W. W. Thomas, of Portland, Maine, was sent by President Lincoln to Gothenburg, Sweden, as a ‘War consul.’ Mr. Thomas became convinced that Swedish immigration would be good for his state. He went over to Sweden, secured a picked company of colonists from nearly every province, held a farewell meeting in a Baptist Hall at Gothenburg, and set sail for the New World.

“The colonists were eighteen days on the stormy Atlantic. They disembarked at St. John, New Brunswick, passed up the St. John River, drove across country to Fort Fairfield, thence to Caribou, and at twelve o’clock noon, on July 23, 1870, the first Swedish colony, consisting of twenty-two men, eleven women, eighteen children, in all, fifty-one souls, arrived at its new home in the wilds of Maine.

“As the wagon train stopped in the woods a little south of where the town of Stockholm now stands, the Swedes instinctively drew together in a little group around Mr. Thomas. Here in the shadows of the forest, thanks were given to God for his safe leading. There and then the name ‘New Sweden’ was given.

“The next day, the Lord’s Day, was given to worship. Monday the colonists drew lots for their forest farms, one hundred acres to each family. Tuesday morning the cutting down of the trees, the clearing of the land, the building of log-cabins, the transforming of a wilderness into a garden of the Lord, was begun. It has gone on without haste, without rest, to this day, when one half of the six miles square is under cultivation. Homes have been established, churches erected, school-houses built, stores introduced.

“From extreme poverty has come marked prosperity.

Hardships have given way to ease. One thousand persons live in New Sweden—not a pauper among them. Three hundred automobiles are owned by the well-to-do farmers, some families having two or three, or even five. There are nine school buildings, nine teachers, and two hundred grade- and thirty high-school pupils. There are three churches—Baptist, Congregational, and Lutheran.”

Suppose a company of thirty or forty people were shipwrecked on a desert island. Trace out the course of action which you think they would be likely to follow.

If you have read the story of Robinson Crusoe, does it seem to you that it could be true? What do you think would have become of Crusoe if he had not found his man Friday?

5. **How Communities Grow.** — As you think about the towns and cities that you know or have heard of, you notice that one differs from another in a great many ways. If you try to classify such communities into groups, you will find at least four varieties:

(1) Communities of *general industry*, such as Boston, Worcester, New York, Cleveland, Chicago, and the like. Here almost every occupation that is concerned with manufacturing or trade is either carried on or represented.

(2) Communities of *one industry*, where one particular occupation stands out so much more prominently than any other that this community really depends upon it for its existence. The life of Gloucester, Mass., depends upon its fisheries. Shamokin, Pa., and Butte, Mont., would amount to little if it were not for their mines. Altoona, Pa., might not exist if the Pennsylvania Railroad had not made it an important division point. Gary, Ind., is a “steel” town.

(3) *Agricultural* communities, where the people live on farms, or, if there are villages, they are simply centers of trade for the farming country around.

(4) *Residential* communities, which are composed chiefly of the families of people who are engaged in business in near-by cities, or who have retired from active business.

East Orange and Montclair, N. J., Oak Park, Ill., and Long Beach, Calif., are examples of this kind of place.

Add as many other examples as you can to each of these kinds of communities. If you are acquainted with any of these which are mentioned here or other places like them, be prepared to tell the class what life in such a place is like.



THE HARBOR AT
One of the finest

Our national Census Bureau calls all places with less than 2,500 people, *rural* communities. Larger places it calls *urban* communities. When our first census was taken in 1790, only 3.4 per cent of the people lived in urban communities, and there was no place in the country with as many people as Fitchburg, Mass., McKeesport, Pa., or Oshkosh, Wis., has to-day. Now over half of our people live in urban communities.

Some communities grow to a certain point and then stay at about that figure for years and years. Others are losing slowly but steadily, and some even have fewer people to-day than they did a hundred years ago. Others grow gradually but surely into strong centers of business and life. Still others jump into prominence almost over night.



SAN FRANCISCO.

harbors in the world.

Now what makes the difference among those places? To answer this question we shall have to ask some more. We must look into the same conditions that the founders of any pioneer town ought to consider. Where is the place situated? Do its climate and other natural conditions make it a pleasant place to live in? Can one earn a living there if he is willing to work? Have its people been enterprising enough to provide things that make life comfortable and

uplifting, or are they satisfied simply with existing? These are some of the questions which we must ask in order to be able to tell why a place is likely to grow or to decline.

New York has a wonderful harbor. It is situated where it can be the center of trade with the great nations of Europe, and lines of trade into the heart of the continent were fairly easy to open up. Pittsburgh is at the point where two large rivers unite and form a great gateway into the West. It is in the midst of bountiful fields of coal. San Francisco is on one of the finest harbors in the world—one of the very few harbors on the western coast of our continent. New Orleans commands the water routes into the entire Mississippi valley, and is in the center of the cotton-growing section of our country. When one understands geography, he is obliged to declare that there could not help being great cities at these points.

None of these four places can boast much about its climate. But let us turn to Los Angeles. Almost no frost; only a few days in the year uncomfortably warm; beautiful palms and orange groves and flowers! Besides it has great oil fields. When people came to that region and needed to have some place as a center of business, Los Angeles was ready for it. And so it became the metropolis of the Far West.

Then there is Detroit. It is located at an important point in the Great Lakes region. It was destined to be a notable city anyway. But along came Henry Ford and other people who made automobiles, and it developed with startling speed. With almost a million people in 1920, it had become the fourth city of North America.

Sometimes it is dangerous to depend upon one industry. When men first struck oil in Pennsylvania, about 1859, a number of towns sprang up like mushrooms. But the oil fields gave out and so did many of the towns. Many places in Texas and Oklahoma can tell the same story, and more will tell it in a few years. Virginia City's silver

mines made it famous in the early days of the history of Nevada, but when the working of the mines slackened, the town became a back number.

But what do communities offer to their people beyond the mere chance to make a living? Here we have the reason why some of them stay small, others become small, and others grow. When there is only one family in a neighborhood, its wants may not be very great, and some of its wants it knows there is no use in trying to gratify. When a dozen families have moved in, they have many more wants, but if they divide up their efforts properly, they can much more easily satisfy the wants of all their members than one family could satisfy its own.

When a community begins to grow, it wants larger and better schools and libraries, paved streets, good and easy means of travel to other places and communication with them, a water supply that is sufficient and safe, gas and electric plants, and dozens of other things. These cost money. One community says, "Never mind—we'll have them anyhow. We'll be enough better off with them to more than make up for the cost." Another town says, "If we do this we shall have to pay more taxes. We will get along the way we are." What is going to happen?

It is the old story. As David Harum said, with bad grammar but with sound truth, "Them that has, gits." Suppose a company wants to establish a new industry in a town. It will always go to the place which is trying to make itself better, to the place with well-kept streets rather than the one with streets that are muddy and full of holes, to the town where people enjoy living, rather than the one which people move away from when they can. If your father is asked to consider a position in another community, he will ask not only what salary he can get, but what the community can offer in the way of schools for you to attend, and churches, and means of enjoyment for all the family.

Railroads have a very great deal to do with the growth of many towns and cities. We depend upon them to bring all kinds of raw material to the factory to be turned into finished products such as clothes, machinery, and furniture. They make it possible for thousands of people to live in a small area, by bringing in food for the workers in factories, stores, and offices, and for their families. The railroad business itself is a big undertaking. Almost 10,000,000 people in this country either work for the railroads or are in the families of such workers. Not many of these could live in rural districts.

Sometimes, of course, it is not the fault of a community that it cannot enjoy all the conveniences and comforts of other places. Windham, Vermont, has little chance of becoming a great center of population. It is in the Green Mountain foothills, twelve miles from a railroad. It has no coal or iron and not much water-power. It cannot afford a large library or expensive public buildings, and could not maintain theatres and baseball parks.

There are thousands of places like Windham in the United States. Their people do not always realize that they have some opportunities and pleasures which the city can never enjoy. Many a city man, going out into the freedom and openness and pure air of the country, remarks to himself, "This is the life."

And the Windhams produce some of the food that Boston, New York, and Philadelphia need to feed their people. If the Windhams are allowed to decay, it will not be many years before the big cities are going to feel the bad effects of it themselves; for the big cities can not possibly raise food for their people. Sometimes the rural communities might show more enterprise than they do in supplying some of the advantages and pleasures which the people of the big towns have. But if they actually can not afford them, the rest of the state and the rest of the country must somehow find a way to help the rural communities

have as good schools and roads and opportunities for recreation as the cities do. "Bear ye one another's burdens" is often good policy as well as a duty on the part of the more fortunate community.

Perhaps we should observe also that some communities have no desire to become great industrial centers. Wellesley, Mass., East Orange, N. J., Haverford, Pa., Redlands,



A WESTERN VILLAGE.

Tower City, North Dakota. Small villages like this are often a center of trade for the country for many miles around.

Calif.—such places have plenty of money. They can maintain schools as good as the best. They have fine libraries and churches, beautiful streets and homes. They are near enough to large cities so that their people go there whenever they wish to. So these communities do not seek to have factories come—quite likely they object to them. When the land in their boundaries is all occupied, they will politely tell newcomers, "Move on, if you please. We are not ambitious to break any population records. We believe in getting all the comfort we can out of life and do not want to see how many people we can get in a square mile, or to dirty our dwellings with factory smoke."

Is your community growing? Why or why not? What inducements would you mention in proposing that some one should come there and settle? What kind of place should your community aim to be? Is it doing all that it could to reach its possibilities? If not, whose fault is it? (Don't be a "knocker.") What is the population of the five or six largest towns or cities in your state? Learn in order the ten or twelve largest cities in the United States and explain their growth.

6. Political Communities. — When people are banded together with the idea chiefly in mind to organize a government and do things for the good of everybody through its agency, we may call that a *political community*. These are of various grades and sizes. Our nation as a whole is bound together under a government which makes it a great political community, and the nation is made up of states each of which is a political community itself. Then the states are divided into counties, and the counties are composed of towns or townships, boroughs or villages, and cities. There is considerable difference among the states in regard to the importance of these various local governments and their relation to each other.

Perhaps you ask why we have so many confusing divisions among these local communities. One reason is that a government located at a state capital could not possibly attend to every local need, because it is too far away. Take for example the schools. Different localities need different kinds of schools. In an agricultural community the schools ought to prepare pupils to be good farmers, while in a city special preparation for many other vocations, most of them connected with trade and manufacturing, would be desirable. While the state school department can have a kind of general supervision over all the schools, the actual operation of them must be directed by people who are right on the ground. The government must be directly familiar with the needs of the people in order to be of the greatest use.

Besides, it is good for the people to have experience in

handling their own local affairs. Often somebody from the outside who has made a particular subject his hobby, such as constructing streets or managing schools, could do that line of work better than "the folks at home." But if a community depends entirely on outsiders to attend to its business, its people will soon lose their interest in things and become unable to start anything for themselves. Local governments help to keep the home people in touch with the affairs that concern them most directly.

Make a diagram that will show how your state is organized.

7. **Things Necessary in a Political Community.**—Three things are needed in a political community. These are laws, officers, and a constitution. A *law*, as we use the word in this place, is a rule established by a government to guide the conduct of the people, provide them protection or service, or regulate business. The purpose of laws is not really to limit the actions of the people, but to direct them in the right channels. People sometimes honestly disagree about the way things should be done and the need of doing or not doing certain things. So there must be some means of settling such disagreement and deciding what is to be done. There are also people who will not of their own accord do what is right, and such people must be made by threat of punishment to keep from wronging others.

In townships and villages the people who make the laws are sometimes known as *commissioners*, *supervisors*, or *trustees*, depending on the custom of the state. In the towns of New England, all the voters have the right to take part in *town meetings* and assist in making local laws or *ordinances*.

In a state the law-making body is called the *Legislature* or the *General Assembly*. In the national government it is known as the *Congress*.

But a law itself is worth little unless somebody executes

it. Suppose, after the Prohibition Amendment had been passed, nothing was done to enforce it. Do you think the country would be very dry? Neither would it be possible for each individual to interpret and attempt to execute the law himself. Imagine what a state of affairs there would be if everybody appointed himself sheriff and attempted to arrest his neighbor! So it is necessary for us to have officers to execute the law. This work then becomes their duty. Other people should support these officers to the best of their ability, but very seldom should any one attempt to take the law into his own hands.

In most cases there is one man who is the chief executive officer of the community and is responsible for seeing that the other officers do their duty. In cities such a man is generally called the *mayor*; in villages or boroughs, the *president* or *burgess*; in a state, the *governor*; and in the national government, the *President*. Sometimes in counties or towns there is a board of *commissioners*, *selectmen*, or *supervisors* to do this. In a large city and in the state and national governments, there are several executive departments under the chief executive. Many thousand people are sometimes connected with these departments in one way or another.

What is the matter with the practice known as "lynching"? When is it right for a person not an officer to try to enforce a law, and how should he go about it?

Almost every community has a constitution or something that takes the place of it, such as a *charter* for a city or village. A *constitution* is a document setting forth the fundamental features of a government and the principles upon which it is to be conducted. A constitution is necessary in order to provide a substantial basis for other laws. In the United States, no law can be enforced which is contrary to the national Constitution, because that Constitution is the supreme law of the land. If anybody makes the

assertion that a law is unconstitutional, we have *courts* before which such questions can be brought and which will settle the matter. The courts also decide cases that concern the relation of citizens toward each other and toward the government.

It is seldom good for sudden changes of the fundamental principles or practices of any people to take place. Therefore Americans think a constitution should be a document which can not be changed too easily. Most of the amendments which have been made to our national Constitution were talked about and considered for many years. If our people really want to make a change in the Constitution, they can do it within a few months, but it is next to impossible to make a change which the great majority of the people are not willing to have.

What is the basis of the organization of your local government? If you wanted to make a change in this, what would have to be done?

Make out a table or diagram that will show the names of the chief executive officers and law-making bodies in any of the grades of government that have authority over you.

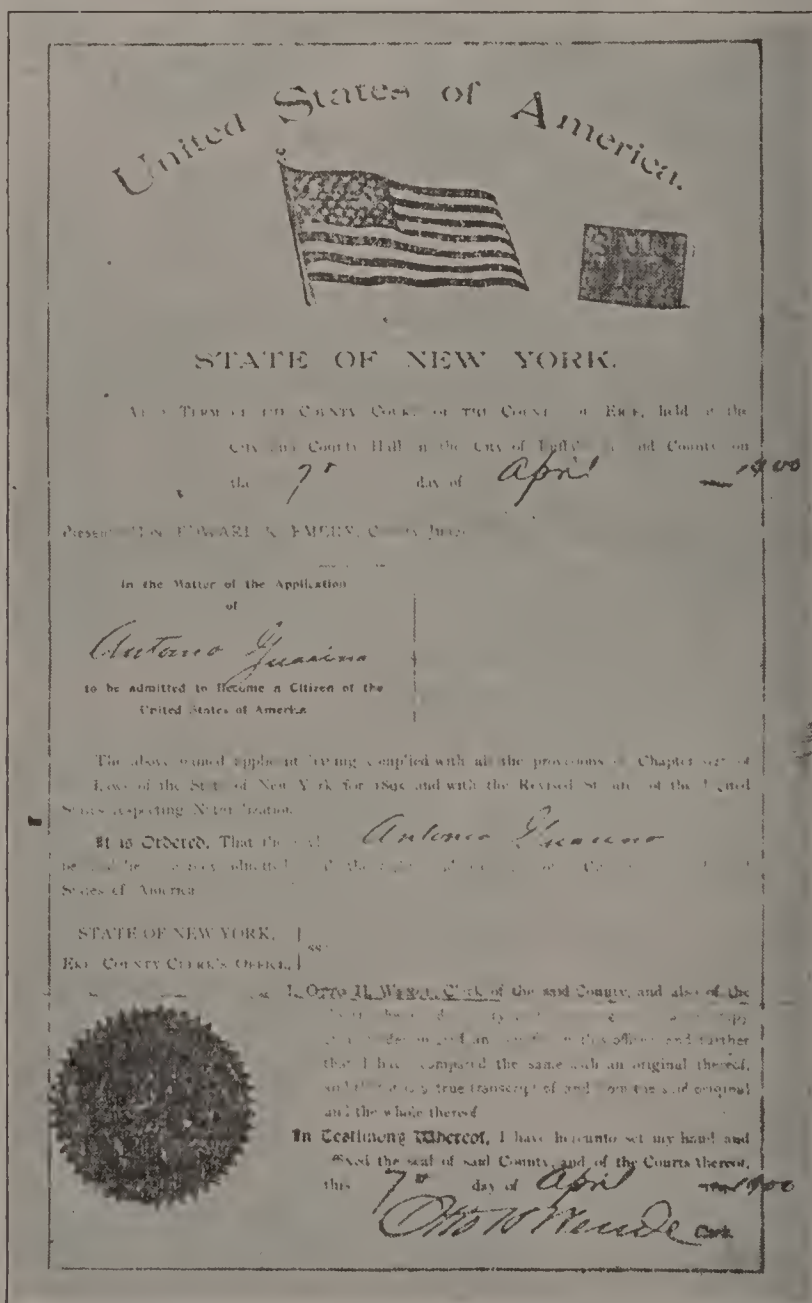
8. **Who Are Citizens?** — The people who live in a country may be classed in two groups—citizens and aliens. A *citizen* is a person who is entitled to the full protection of his government and who possesses certain rights and privileges not given to others. An *alien* is a foreign-born resident of a country who has not given his allegiance to it.

Our Constitution says: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States are citizens of the United States and of the state in which they reside." There are five ways by which a person may become a citizen. These are by (1) birth in this country, (2) birth in a foreign country of American parents, (3) naturalization, (4) naturalization of father—but this affects only children under 21, and (5) annexation—that is, the people living in a territory which is annexed to a country may become citizens of that country without any action of their own, if this is specially

provided at the time. Not many people have become citizens of the United States in this manner.

Are you a citizen?

9. How a Foreigner Becomes a Citizen. — The process which must be followed when a foreigner wishes to become



A CERTIFICATE OF NATURALIZATION.

a citizen of the United States is called *naturalization*. He must first go to a court and declare his intention of becoming a citizen. In order to do this in his own name, he must be at least eighteen years old. Before he can get his final

naturalization papers, he must live at least five years in this country, and there must be at least two years between the declaration of intention and the granting of the final papers. After he gets them, he is a citizen of the United States with all rights and privileges except that of becoming President or Vice-President.

There are many reasons for the residence requirement and for the interval of time between a person's declaration of his intentions, and his naturalization. One of these is to make it impossible to pay foreigners to become naturalized, and to influence their votes in that way. Besides, we want to be sure that they mean business and have a real chance to become familiar with our government and our language and customs. When a married man is naturalized, his children under twenty-one become citizens also. Once, a foreign woman became naturalized if her husband was naturalized, but now she must make application herself. A woman may be naturalized in the same way as a man, but if a woman's husband is a citizen, she is not required to make any declaration of intention, and is obliged to live in the country only one year. Children under twenty-one follow their father's citizenship.

Going through certain forms may enable a foreigner to become naturalized; but he must have not only the title, but also American ideals if he is to make a good citizen. It is not always easy for one to break away from his attachment to the "fatherland." There are schools which teach foreigners the English language, and try to make them acquainted with our government and our ideas.

These things must be done if the United States are to be a happy, progressive, united nation. "One country, one language, one flag." But the example that Americans set teaches the aliens more than anything else. Do you think a foreigner is encouraged to respect a law when he sees an American breaking it?

So many different nations are represented among our

foreign residents that this country has sometimes been called a "melting-pot." But to speak in this way suggests that all will be fused into one common material. There is often an inclination on the part of foreigners to go together, and live just the same as they did abroad, instead of accepting the American ways. If you are familiar with a



Courtesy Newark Y. M. C. A.

TAKING THE OATH OF ALLEGIANCE.

These men of foreign birth have been taking a course in American citizenship and are now prepared to swear their loyalty to the United States.

large city, you have probably heard of "Little Italy" or "Little Russia," which seems much like a part of the old country.

It is partly the fault of Americans themselves that this state of affairs exists. Many a foreigner is sincerely anxious to become a real American. But too many people look down on the foreigner instead of encouraging him. Do

you think that calling him a “dago” or a “wop” and considering him the scum of the earth is going to induce him to mix with Americans and imbibe American ideals, or is it going to drive foreigners together more than ever?

Does your community contain foreigners? If so, why did they come? Do they occupy a district by themselves? How do the native people feel toward them? Do the children of foreigners seem any different from the children of Americans?

10. **What the Community Does for Its Citizens.** — We have said that it is government which makes communities possible. It does this by providing or promoting certain elements which make up the welfare of a community. Health is an essential to a comfortable, prosperous community, and we shall see what the government does to maintain the conditions which make good health possible. In order to make progress, the people must feel safe and secure, and therefore the government must give protection to life and property. And if the people are to be happy, healthy, intelligent citizens, the government must promote the means for securing education, recreation, wealth, and right living. It also helps to care for the unfortunate, and those who are unable to care for themselves. And it undertakes to construct or to regulate the means by which people can conveniently go from one place to another, such as streets and railroads.

It is generally admitted that governments may exercise what is known as the *police power*—that is, the right to undertake any means necessary to promote the health, safety, and general welfare of the people. Whenever governments can not do this, it is because the people have adopted a constitution that in some way limits the power of the government.

Our national government is thus limited in some respects, because its Constitution permits it to exercise only certain particular powers. It therefore has to restrict itself to those things that are in some way connected with the powers

that are definitely granted to it. The schools in the states, for instance, are not conducted by the national government, but by the state or local governments. The national government, however, frequently publishes advice and information about education, of which any state or citizen may take advantage.

Make a list of five to ten things that are done wholly or mainly by your local government; by your state government; by your national



AN ATTRACTIVE CONCRETE BRIDGE

An example of what a community does for its citizens.

government. How many of these things would be done at all if some government did not look after them?

11. What the Citizen Owes His Community.—Sometimes we are tempted to think that it makes no difference whether we do our part in the work of the community or not. “One person,” we may say, “does not amount to anything.” But what would happen if every “one” said that? Though each person is only one, still he is one, and must do his part.

It is the views and feelings of one person, added to those of his neighbor and of the neighbors of both, that con-

stitute public opinion in a community. Every person has his place, and the community whose doctrine is "one for all, and all for one" is the community that is going to do the most work for its members and for other communities. Each individual should do his part to promote the good of the whole.

The average citizen is inclined to think much oftener about his rights than about his duties, but he must recognize that he has both. My rights may be limited by another man's rights. It is my duty to respect his rights, and his duty to respect my rights.

Then a citizen has duties toward his government. If he is protected by it, he must give it his support. It may call upon him to pay money or offer his time and services to support it. If his government gives him the privilege of voting for officers, it is his duty to accept the privilege and make use of it.

It is a citizen's duty, too, to do his utmost to understand the great questions which his community has to deal with. He should try to find out how he can be of the greatest use in serving his community. And when he knows what he can do and has made up his mind as to what ought to be done by the community, he ought to the very best of his ability to do what he can to see that the community goes always in the right path toward better things.

Mention some things which you would have a perfect right to do if other people did not also have rights of their own; some unpleasant things which the government has a right to ask you to do. Can the government rightly ask more of one citizen than of another?

QUESTIONS

Show that we are all dependent upon other people. Prove that team work or coöperation is necessary. Define a *community*.

Show that the home is a real community. What are our obligations to the home?

Name other communities larger than the home. What does each one do for us? Show that these communities are closely related to each other.

Trace the experiences of a pioneer family in a new neighborhood. Show how a real community grows out of the settlement of one family. Give examples of communities that were planned in advance.

Explain the four varieties of communities. Distinguish between rural and urban communities. Mention the principal causes for the establishment of communities. Give examples of each. Why do some communities never grow?

Of what subdivisions is the nation composed? Why do we have local communities?

Distinguish between *citizens* and *aliens*. Mention the ways of becoming an American citizen. Trace the process of naturalization. What else is needed besides this formality to make good Americans? Who is to blame if foreigners do not become good Americans?

Mention the elements of welfare which a government promotes. Define *police power*. What governments may exercise it?

Show that *each* citizen has a responsibility in his community. Point out the duties of each citizen.

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Story of Robinson Crusoe.

The Boyhood of Abraham Lincoln.

A Homestead in the Desert.

The Founding of Our Town.

The Industries of Our Town.

The Progress of Our Town.

A Visit to a Naturalization Court.

"Little Italy" or "Little Poland" in New York.

What My Community Would Be Without Me.

Men and Women Who Would Be Missed From Our Town.

Interesting studies may also be made of cities or towns in which any member of the class may have visited or have read about.

THE ELEMENTS OF WELFARE

CHAPTER II

GUARDING THE PEOPLE'S HEALTH

Health is the vital principle of bliss.—Thomson.

12. **Conditions Necessary for Good Health.** — When can a community expect to be healthy? Some can boast of a mild, even climate, but such places are not common. Some are too hot and damp, and their inhabitants are subject to malaria, and, if they are not careful, yellow fever. Others are cold and changeable, so that it is hard for one to be on guard against wind, rain, and snow. Lung troubles are common here. But there are some conditions which almost every community can have in considerable measure if it really wants them.

Any community can establish rules for its people to observe which will help to keep disease under control when it does come, and to make it easier for the people to avoid it. The community which does all it can to promote these conditions will be a far better place to live in than one which simply lets things happen. No community, however, can maintain the best conditions of health unless it has the help and coöperation of every citizen. A person who keeps his own property clean may be unable to breathe pure air because his neighbor's back yard is filthy. But each individual can keep himself clean and avoid unnecessary risks and exposure. Thus he will be more comfortable himself and will help to protect the whole community from disease.

Make a list of things that you do every day to help keep yourself healthy. Are there other things which you could add to this list?

13. **Why Health Must Be Guarded.** — You know that when you are sick you have no ambition to do things as they should be done. Perhaps you do not want to do any-



INSPECTING MEAT.

Some kinds of meat, particularly pork, are the cause of sickness if they are not in good condition. This inspector found nothing wrong at this particular stand.

thing at all. Now we have seen that the community is a group of individuals. If there is something wrong with one part, even a tiny part, of a machine; it affects the working of the whole thing, and we take care to have it fixed right away. If, then, it is so important to keep the parts of a lifeless machine in order, how much more necessary it is to guard the health of the human beings who make up the great machine of society and industry!

Health and its protection can not be left altogether to the individual, because every-

body does not take pride in personal cleanliness, or try to keep away from danger. We cannot be unsanitary and careless and keep all the results to ourselves. What we do is bound to affect those who come in contact with us, and in order to protect these people, our governments pass laws to force us all to promote healthful conditions in our own communities.

Why is a physical examination required before admission to the Army or Navy, before appointment as a policeman, a teacher, and the like?

14. **How Pure Air is Obtained.** — Nobody can live long without breathing, or can be comfortable if he has to breathe foul air. Since pure air is one of the important conditions that promote health, our governments take steps to insure everybody his share of it. Laws have been passed, for example, which limit the number of people who may live in houses and tenements. Schools and other public buildings must have a certain number of cubic feet of air for each person, and means of ventilation must be provided.

Is your schoolroom well ventilated? Compare the system of ventilation used there with systems you have seen in other places.

We used to hear much about the "sweat shop." This was a place where people worked in rooms which were not intended for manufacturing of any kind, and where people of all ages, perhaps, ate, worked, and slept under crowded conditions. These are now forbidden by law, as are the windowless, airless rooms that used to be common.

The factories which are being built, or recently have been built, seem from the outside to be nothing but a mass of windows. Don't you think it would be much pleasanter to work in a clean, light, well-ventilated place than in a dark, dirty, and either stuffy or draughty room?

Many places also have a law which forbids a builder to put a building on more than a certain portion of a lot. This leaves a little room for air, and in a crowded district this may mean much to those who occupy the building.

In order to enforce these housing laws, the tenements and buildings must be inspected. If it is found that a tenement does not comply with the laws, the owner can be forced to change it so that it will. New York City has a tenement-house commissioner appointed by the mayor. It is his duty to see that the tenements are inspected and any violations

of the laws recorded. In smaller cities, however, this may be done by the Board of Health, a Bureau of Building Inspection, or some such agency.

Cities with many factories using soft coal have another problem. Just how dangerous to health soft-coal smoke is, physicians are not certain. But surely to keep the air pure and clean must be more healthful than to breathe the smoky, "smelly" air that the furnaces used to give out so



A MODEL FACTORY.

The Shredded Wheat Company's plant at Niagara Falls, New York. Every effort is made to have the entire factory light, airy, and pleasant.

abundantly. There was a time when cities took a kind of dirty pride in being smoky, thinking that it indicated prosperous business. But now many cities that have been smoky have passed ordinances requiring the use of "smoke consumers" (§89). In the end this is a source of economy for the factory owner as well as of comfort for people in general.

Is your community a dirty one? Why or why not? Can anything be done to improve it in this respect? Why do people build tenements? Why do people live in them? Describe a desirable or an undesirable tenement, if you have seen either.

15. **Where Our Water Comes From.** — We can not live without water. There are so many things for which it is used, and by which it influences health, directly or indirectly, that we will not take time to name them. Now where does it come from?

The occupant of a farm or of a home in the country village digs a well somewhere on his land, or lays pipes from some near-by brook or spring. In some places "artesian" wells, as they are called, are sent down many feet into the ground and windmills or gasoline engines used to pump the water into tanks. But in large communities it is impossible for each home to look out for itself, and great water systems have to be constructed by the community as a whole at a cost of perhaps millions of dollars.

Chicago obtains its water from Lake Michigan, Pittsburgh from the Allegheny River, Los Angeles from a river in the Sierra Nevada Mountains over two hundred miles away, and New York from huge reservoirs in the Catskill Mountains whence it is brought under the Hudson River to the city. To such cities the source of water supply is a very serious problem, because it is thought that even some of these great water systems will not be adequate for more than half a century.

16. **Purifying Water.** — The water that the people drink must be pure, because there is nothing that is more dangerous to the health of a community than impure and polluted water. Besides, water that looks perfectly clear may sometimes contain dangerous germs. To get rid of the dirt and disease germs, the water used by a community often must be filtered. For this purpose cities and towns have filtration plants.

Of course only the drinking water needs to be filtered, but since it would be too expensive to have two separate systems, one for drinking water and one for the water used for other purposes, all the water goes through the filtration system.

The two types of filtration used in the United States are the "continuous" and the "mechanical." In the former the water goes through two large reservoirs. It is allowed to stand in the first long enough for the sediment to go to the bottom; then the purer water passes on to the next reservoir where it drains through sand and rock and is filtered



THE CHESTNUT HILL RESERVOIR, NEAR BOSTON.

On the hill beyond is Boston College

in that way. The "mechanical" method is very much the same except that certain harmless chemicals, such as chlorine, or lime and sulphate of iron, are used. In this process, there is more sediment, but by having several reservoirs, they can be used alternately and cleaned often.

After the water is filtered, there is the problem of getting it to the people, for in a large community the people could not possibly go and get it. Cities located on uneven ground often have to construct reservoirs on high spots into which

the water is pumped and from which there is sufficient pressure to take it into all the houses. For the purpose of distribution, large mains are used, leading from the reservoirs under the principal streets. Smaller pipes lead from these mains under the side streets, and from these pipes still smaller ones supply each house. The pipes are put far enough under the surface so that the water will not freeze.

In flat communities it may be necessary to erect a "stand-pipe." This is an enormous tank for holding water, built high above the tallest buildings. Water is placed in the standpipe by means of powerful force pumps, and the pressure of the water drives it through the mains and pipes and into the buildings and houses.

How is your community supplied with water? Could the system be improved? Is it better for a private company or the local government to operate the water system of a community? Is it better to charge a fixed rate for water or to have meters? Does a good citizen have any duty in regard to water faucets? Can you judge the quality of water by its appearance?

17. **Drains and Sewers.**—Exceedingly important, too, is the disposal of waste matter. It is necessary for the sewage to be carried off promptly, because, if it is not, it becomes a menace to health by giving off a poisonous gas which causes illness of various kinds. Poor drainage also makes buildings damp and unhealthful.

For the purpose of carrying away the waste, cities have underground pipe systems much the same as the water system. It may be carried in this way beyond the limits of the city and discharged into a river or lake. But this is not all that may need to be done, although for a long time it was considered sufficient. It is often necessary to purify the waste material before it goes into the river or lakes, in order that other communities on the same body of water may not have their drinking water, perhaps, polluted by careless disposal of wastes on the part of another community.

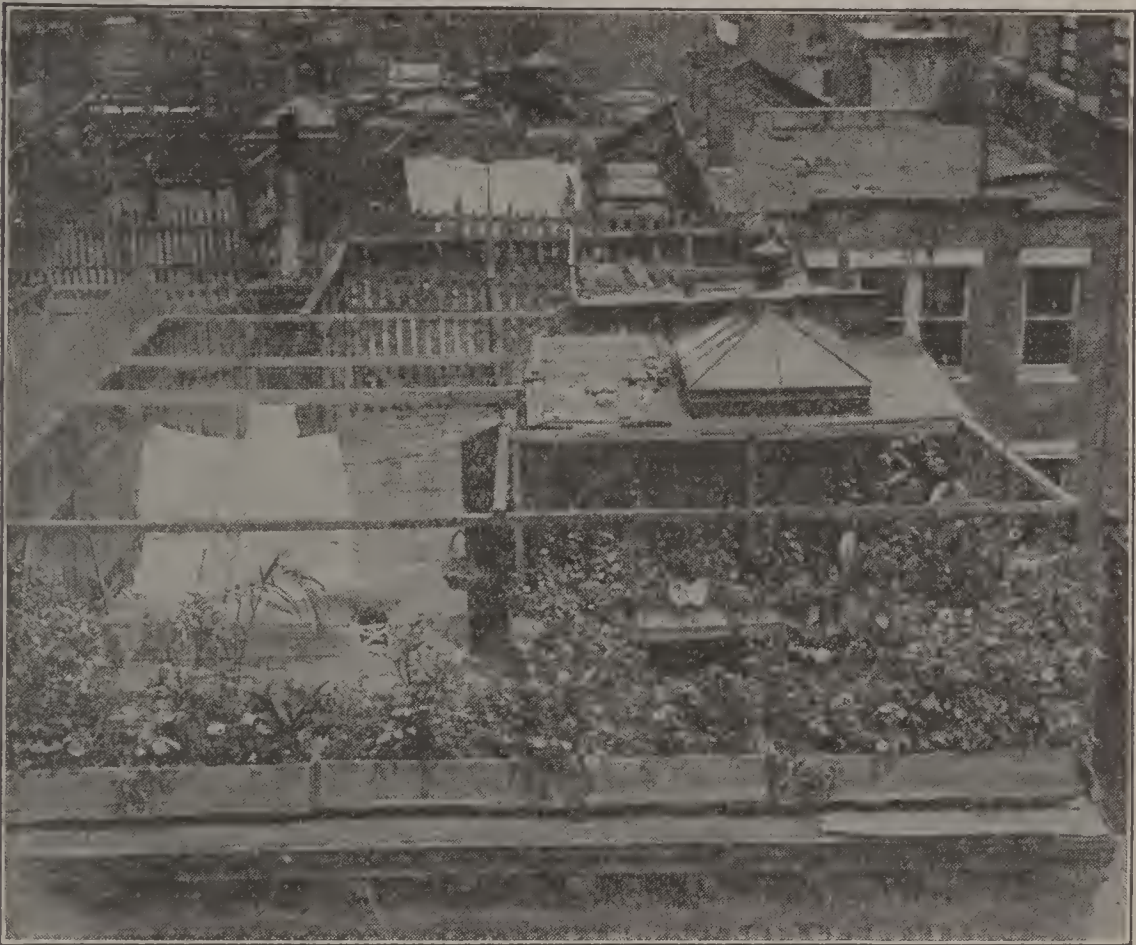
There are two important systems of sewerage. These are the "separate" system and the "combined" system. In the former, there is a system of pipes called storm sewers which carry off the surplus water from the surface, and another set, called sanitary sewers, that carry off the waste from kitchen, laundry, and bathroom, called sewage. In the combined system, both the surface water and the sewage are carried away together.

The separate system has some advantages over the combined system. The storm sewers can discharge the water anywhere in or outside the city, because it contains no impurities. Then the waste from the sanitary sewers, being a much smaller and more regular quantity, can easily be purified. In the combined system, all the waste must be treated in the same way. A combined system, however, is cheaper to construct than two separate systems, even though the pipes must be made large enough to hold all the water after heavy storms. This reason has induced most places to adopt the combined system, especially when they do not attempt to purify the sewage.

Sewage may be treated in two ways to take away the danger of its causing disease. One is to use the sewage for fertilizer. This does two things at once—gets rid of the sewage and improves the crops. Often the sewage from a large city is used to fertilize and irrigate the farms outside, especially in dry sections.

Another way that is used in many large cities is this. The sewage flows into tanks where the solid matter settles to the bottom. Here certain bacteria in the sewage are allowed to work upon it, and then it is put on a drying bed, where it soon becomes harmless. The liquid sewage is sprayed on what are called "contact beds" of coke, or sand and gravel, where the bacteria kill all the microbes or disease germs in the sewage. Sometimes there are several of these beds through which the sewage passes before it is purified. It may then safely be discharged in any stream.

Country districts as well as cities may find this problem of drainage and sewerage a serious one. It used to be a mystery how people in such neighborhoods got typhoid fever and similar troubles. But too often the drainage from stables, outdoor toilets, cesspools, and the like, found



A CROWDED DISTRICT OF BOSTON.

Notice how one woman has made the best of her surroundings by growing an attractive little roof garden, while her neighbors have done nothing to beautify their homes.

its way into the well from which the drinking water for the family or the cows was obtained. When this was discovered, the mystery was solved.

To prevent such trouble, the use of the septic tank is strongly recommended and even required in some places. This is made of brick or cement in such a way that the bacteria in the sewage have a chance to act upon it before

it can become a menace to health. It can be easily constructed almost anywhere.

Investigation has shown that the outdoor toilet is still in use on more than nine-tenths of the farms of the country. As a breeder of flies, and a menace to health and comfort, this could hardly be improved upon. To do away with this is one of the first improvements that ought to be considered on any farm. In many cases the difficulty of putting in an indoor toilet is remedied by the use of the septic tank, so that there is frequently no excuse for keeping the old, unhealthful method.

What system of drainage and sewerage prevails in your neighborhood? Do you think it the best that could be provided? What do you think of a community which allows the dishwater from its kitchens to run across the sidewalk into the gutter? Did your neighborhood ever have trouble with its water supply? Is it likely to? Your State University or Agricultural College will probably test samples of water.

18. Where Our Food Comes From.—Shouldn't we think it terribly inconvenient nowadays if we had to raise everything that goes on our table, and kill the animals and prepare the meat ourselves? When large communities have grown up, everybody can not farm and raise stock, and so the market comes into existence. Food from all parts of the world finds its way to the market.

When a meal is prepared for us, the food represents many different parts of the earth. The meat on the city man's table probably comes from Chicago or Kansas City or Omaha, potatoes from almost any place ranging from Maine to Minnesota, oranges from California, bananas from Cuba, pineapples from Porto Rico or Hawaii, vegetables perhaps from truck farms in the South Atlantic states, the coffee from Brazil, and the sugar from Hawaii or Cuba. It surprises us to discover that the products of so many places combine to give us food. Even the farmer, though he can raise most of what he absolutely needs for food, likes

to have many of these distant products on hand most of the time.

Make a list of things that appeared on your bill of fare yesterday, and find out where they came from.

19. **Helping the Farmer Feed Us.** — There was a time when people thought that all we had to do in raising crops



Courtesy Forest Service

CATTLE GRAZING IN THE FAR WEST.

This is on the Coconino National Forest near Flagstaff, Arizona. Many cattle are allowed to graze every year on the National forests but their owners must take out permits if they have more than ten animals feeding there.

was to put the seed in the ground and let it grow. Now we know that there is much more to farming than simply using the soil as nature gives it to us. It is very important, if we are to get the greatest amount of food products in return for our efforts, that we should know the kinds of crops that grow best in certain soils and the sort of fertilizers that will make the soil most productive. The farmer who uses labor-saving machinery and up-to-date tools will get much

more work done and find his work much less tiresome than if he tries to manage his farm without this kind of help.

To help the farmers who wish to make their farms as profitable as possible, there is in every state an agricultural college or state university which not only gives courses in agriculture to men and women who are able to attend, but



Courtesy International Harvester Co.

MOWING IN THE OLD WAY.

On page 250 see another way of doing the same kind of work.

also will give advice to all who care to write for it and will send its agents out into all parts of the state to consult with the farmers at home. Every state also has a state department of agriculture under some name (in New York the State Department of Farms and Markets) which aids the farmers of the state in a great variety of ways.

Frequently farmers' institutes are held at which instruction is given in ways to manage the farm. In many sections county or district fairs are held. Here the best pumpkins

or apples or whatever else the farmer has raised are on exhibition. Prizes are given for exhibits of animals or poultry, and the fair is one of the great events of the year for every one in that district. To interest the boys and girls, corn clubs, pig-raising clubs, canning clubs, and the like are conducted, sometimes in connection with the public schools.

It takes more money to farm this way than in the old-



Courtesy Department of Agriculture.

AN EXHIBIT AT A FAIR.

In this exhibit the Department of Agriculture is trying to suggest the best means of caring for dairy cattle.

fashioned style. Sometimes farmers have difficulty in getting hold of the money that they need to buy machinery or to erect a new building or even to pay their help during the harvest season. In order to be of service to the farmers by enabling them to borrow money for improvements or other special needs, the National Government has established Federal Farm Loan banks. The country is divided into twelve districts with a farm loan bank in each district. When the farmers in any neighborhood wish to form a

farm-loan organization under the supervision of this bank, they may do so. The members of this association may make use of the privilege of borrowing money to pay off a mortgage or to make improvements on the farm.

Do you think a person who had failed in business in the city would be likely to make a successful farmer to-day? Is it of any importance to the city whether the farmer is prosperous or not?

20. **Feeding a City.**—Big cities to-day are absolutely dependent upon the railroad for their food supply. If the supply should be cut off even for a few days, much inconvenience and even suffering would be caused. The milk problem in this connection is very serious. Most of the milk is brought into large cities from the surrounding country, and since thousands of babies and children depend upon this supply, the interruption of it would cause much distress. Sometimes, in case of a railroad strike, food has been brought into cities in trucks, but of course it is hard to get an adequate supply in this way.

By how many different kinds of transportation may the food on your breakfast table have reached you? (See Chapter VII.)

But there are many steps between the raising of the food-stuffs and the consumption of them. Between the wheat grower and the person who eats the bread are at least the railroad, the miller, the baker, and the retail dealer. In distributing some things there are even more people concerned. Take fruit, for example. It may be sold to a commission merchant in a city, then to a wholesale fruit dealer, to a retail dealer, and finally to the consumer.

This fact brings up another present-day problem—the cost of our food products. When so many people handle a commodity, and each one makes a profit, of course the user of the goods has to pay a price high enough to cover it all. If only some way could be found of bringing the

producer and the consumer face to face, it would be decidedly for the advantage of both. Fruit-growers, dairy-men, and the like, have sometimes formed coöperative societies to handle the business better at their end of the line. Once in a while people in towns and cities have organized coöperative stores, so that they can buy goods



Courtesy Department of Agriculture.

RESULT OF DRY FARMING.

In some districts where there is little rain much is accomplished by the methods used in dry farming. Alfalfa is grown here successfully and the hogs seem to be contented. This picture comes from North Platte, Nebraska.

direct from the producers in large quantities and get the benefit of wholesale prices. This kind of thing is much more common in Great Britain, however, than it is here. In some cities the government keeps a public market where farmers or food dealers may have "stalls." The price of goods at these markets is seldom much lower than anywhere else, but a purchaser ought to be sure of getting fresh

goods there. Many other suggestions have been offered, but it is easier to see the evil than to remedy it.

Ask your grocer or fruit dealer who is to blame if the price of food products is high. Find out also what a farmer and a wholesale dealer have to say about it.



Courtesy Pillsbury Flour Mills.

FILLING SACKS WITH FLOUR.

It is well to have food products handled as little as possible while being prepared for market. The filling, weighing, and sewing of sacks is done in these mills by machinery.

In order to safeguard the health of the community, it is necessary to have laws respecting the sale of food. The old theory was, "Let the purchaser beware"—if somebody cheats you, it is your own fault. But this doctrine has been discarded, and our government has taken a hand to prevent such frauds as the use of glucose for sugar, ~~cocoa con-~~ containing brickdust, burned grain or bread crusts for coffee, and oleomargarine for butter. For this purpose, laws have been passed forbidding the sale of such food, and forcing

food products to comply with certain requirements. One of these is the national Foods and Drugs Act passed in 1906. This prohibits the selling of food or medicine containing drugs or any kind of poisonous or harmful ingredients, unless they are plainly marked so that a person who reads the label need not be deceived.

These laws are enforced chiefly through the Department of Agriculture. The Bureau of Chemistry in this department tests articles that are sold in stores and markets to see whether they comply with the act of 1906. Any discoveries that the law is being violated are reported to the Department of Justice. The Bureau of Animal Industry conducts the inspection of meat in the stockyards at Kansas City and Chicago and other places.

Since the national government has no power under the Constitution to regulate trade that is entirely within a state, the states maintain departments or bureaus to inspect food products that are not carried from one state to another and make them comply with the state pure food laws. Barns and dairies are visited to see that they are kept clean and that the cattle are healthy. Factories and markets are also inspected and their owners fined if they disobey the laws. Establishments that keep meat, eggs, and the like in cold storage are also subject to special regulations. The local board of health or health officer has considerable authority in these matters, too.

Of what advantage is it to keep goods in cold storage for several weeks or months? Try to find what the laws of your state are in regard to the sale of food products. Are they enforced in your neighborhood? Are goods exposed to dirt and flies? Why is milk sold in bottles? What is meant by pasteurizing milk? What do your state laws require as to the quality of milk? Is there anything that you can do yourself to make sure that you and your neighborhood have enough food and that it is of good quality?

21. **Living Conditions at Home.** — Most of us spend more time at home than at any other one place. Good

living conditions for the people are therefore the first essentials of good health. On this account, every person should see that his home comes up to the mark in health requirements.

A very large part of the sickness of a community is in the poor or slum districts where the living conditions are bad. When buildings that have been stables are turned



A BAD STREET TO LIVE ON.

Can you imagine a great city tolerating a place like this? And can you imagine anyone deliberately choosing to go there to live? Yet you could find many communities where such a picture could be taken.

into tenements, and where people live in dirty, crowded quarters that are old and tumbling down, it is no wonder that disease obtains a foothold and spreads. Health authorities have actually been known to burn down a building because it was too old and dirty and shaky for anybody to live in, or even for people to tear it down.

We have already spoken of the laws relating to buildings. These, to be successful, must have the coöperation of the people who live in the community. It is for us to see that

we keep our homes clean and free from flies and rats and mice and crawling things, all of which are important factors in the spread of disease. And what good are the windows which the law requires the buildings to have, if we do not open them and let the fresh air in? All too many people still sleep with the windows closed and even a fire going in winter, though fresh air is an absolute essential in preventing colds and pneumonia and other illnesses.

Records kept by draft boards during the Great War show that there is fully as much ill health and physical weakness in the rural districts as in the city. Can you explain that fact? Mention some mistakes in habits of living which you have noticed in either the city or the country.

If your family were going to build a new house, what matters would you expect them to consider in the manner of its construction? What labor-saving devices for the women are in use in some places?

22. How People Regard Disease.—The attitude of people toward disease has much to do with its control and prevention. If a man who has a certain disease, and knows it, inflicts his company upon others, the result is that more people catch the disease, and whose fault is it? Parents often allow their children to go to school, knowing that they are sick, and expose all the other pupils to danger. Of course, all people are not like this, for some are very careful to isolate a sick person, call a physician, and then do all they can to carry out his orders. But to prevent careless, thoughtless people from injuring others, the government must, as in many other cases, take a hand.

There is no reason for thinking that diseases will come anyway and that all we can do is simply to make the best of it when they do come. The science of medicine has accomplished too much to excuse any one for holding such an opinion. What can be done with some afflictions, such as cancer or influenza, we do not know as well as we should like to. But when we observe how much has been done toward preventing or relieving such dread diseases as small-

pox, yellow fever, and tuberculosis, there is reason for hopefulness in regard to the rest.

The death records kept in cities and states show that the highest average of deaths in proportion to the population



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HEALTH LITERATURE.

It is particularly important to circulate right ideas of sanitation in districts where the people are almost entirely foreigners. Therefore pamphlets are printed in many languages—Italian, Yiddish, and even Chinese—giving warning of the danger of spitting and other filthy habits.

is found in districts where education has made the least headway. Some of the backward rural districts, cities with crowded foreign sections, and towns with a large uneducated negro population, like New Orleans and Memphis, show a very high death rate. This is especially noticeable among babies, for in some neighborhoods, half of the children die before reaching the age of five years.

Find out what the record of your community is in this matter. Could it be improved? Make a graph or diagram showing its record during a period of several years in regard to the most common diseases. Are there any special conditions which encourage any particular disease?

23. How Disease is Controlled.— Every community ought to have a department of health, board of health, or health officer, to have charge both of preventing disease and of checking its spread when it does come. Very great power is given to such officers in some states. They

ought to use this power courageously and wisely, so as to protect the people in every necessary way, and at the same time to avoid frightening people or inconveniencing them unnecessarily.

The quarantine regulations are one of the safeguards of health. When a physician finds a case of any contagious disease, he reports it to the Board of Health, which quarantines the person, and those who were in contact with him. The length and rigidity of the quarantine depend upon the disease. In chicken-pox, the person is quarantined, but others may go in and out of the house. But in a dangerous disease, the victim is entirely isolated, sometimes in special quarantined places, and only the physician and nurses are allowed in. People with tuberculosis need a particular kind of treatment, and well persons should be kept from certain forms of contact with them (§131).

In case of a serious epidemic, schools, churches, theatres, "movie-houses," and other places where people usually assemble, are closed up completely. Sometimes people are even prevented from going in or out of a town until they have been inspected by physicians. A whole state has sometimes been closed up in this way at one time.

Parents sometimes say, "Charlie will have to have the measles some time anyway. What's the use of trying to keep him away from them?" When they know their children are sick, they will let them play around as usual with other children. Do you think this attitude is justifiable?

The city, county, or state government also cares for the sick who are not otherwise provided for. It maintains hospitals and asylums, and helps private charities instituted for the same purpose. Private benevolence also does a great deal, and so the cost of caring for the sick is shared by many people, none of whom feel the burden very much, unless the illness is long and serious.

Most of this care of health is the work of state and local governments. There is, however, a Public Health Service

in the Treasury Department of the national government. In great epidemics this agency becomes very active. It rendered great aid some years ago when yellow fever appeared in some of our southern cities. The Medical Corps of our War Department also made a wonderful record in



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INSPECTING THE IMMIGRANT.

Communicable diseases may be brought in by immigrants. This inspector is looking for trachoma.

Exercise, for example, is very essential. It develops us both physically and mentally, and makes us more willing and able to work. Many schools provide gymnasiums. Time is given during school hours for their use, and instructors provided to teach children how to exercise. The schools encourage athletics too, from the grades to the colleges, because the authorities realize how much good the exercise

Cuba and the Panama Canal Zone, in getting rid of yellow fever, malaria, and other diseases that are specially common in hot, moist climates.

24. **Promoting Individual Health.** — But more important than controlling disease is its prevention. It saves time, money, and lives, if care is taken to prevent sickness rather than to cure it. To maintain good living conditions is a most vital factor in bringing about this end. There are some habits of life, too, which contribute directly toward good health.

does. Most large communities also support public playgrounds, sometimes conducted in connection with the school, sometimes maintained under some other supervision by the city or town. We shall say more about these later (§ 65).

But in addition to exercise, we must have sufficient rest, or our strength will be taxed too much. Regular hours of sleep do wonders for health. We all know how refreshed we feel in the morning after having a long sleep. Then we need periods of rest during the day. Many of the factories and industries have rest and recreation rooms where the employees may go, and read or talk or relax in many ways. These help the employees to work better, and they relieve the nervous tension and promote good health and happiness. Some factories arrange for a short rest period at the middle of the morning and afternoon work hours, in addition to the regular hour for lunch.

Medical inspection has been taken up in schools and public places. Teeth and eyes are examined and defects reported. It is surprising how many children have defective teeth and eyes, or should have their tonsils or adenoids removed. Medical inspection is necessary because some parents either do not exercise sufficient care or are ignorant. Vaccination has done a great deal to prevent



OPEN AIR BOYS
make
STURDY MEN

Keep Your Windows Open
Spend 2 Hours Outdoors Daily
Sleep Outdoors If You Can

Copyright, National Child Welfare Association

ONE WAY TO KEEP HEALTHY.

Mr. Roosevelt when a boy was almost a weakling, but life outdoors made him a powerful man.

small-pox, and in the schools a vaccination certificate is required. If more grown-up people, as well as children, would have a physician give them a thorough physical examination once a year, much sickness would be prevented.

Why do you suppose so many people dislike to go through a medical examination?

We have already referred to the many "big" things which our governments do to prevent disease, like providing pure water, assuring pure food, pure air, and the like. Sometimes there are special conditions to deal with, such as swamps and water tanks where flies and mosquitoes breed. These need either to be done away with or made harmless.

Why do many communities pass "anti-spitting" ordinances? If your community has them, are they enforced?

25. "Prohibition" Laws. — When a man, under the influence of liquor, endangers life and property, ruins his own health, and deprives his family of the comforts that would pro-

mote their health and happiness, don't you think the government should take the same action as it does in infectious diseases? Just as much care should be taken to prevent harm from this source as to prevent small-pox, or malaria, or typhoid fever. But it took people a long time to realize this. In fact, they are only beginning to do so now

The **AI AMERICAN GIRL**
HAS A GOOD SKIN



A good complexion cannot be bought
It must be earned by

1. Cleanliness
2. Fresh air
3. Exercise
4. Plain, wholesome food

"PAINT YOUR CHEEKS
FROM THE INSIDE"

Copyright, National Child Welfare Association

GOOD ADVICE FOR GIRLS

Our national laws now prohibit the manufacture or sale of intoxicating liquors for use as beverages, and it is the people's duty to obey these laws even if they do not like them. We even added the eighteenth amendment to the national Constitution, regarding this matter. This was ratified in 1919 and went into effect January 16, 1920.

With respect to drugs, we had similar laws earlier than in the case of liquor traffic. In 1914, a law was passed prohibiting the sale of habit-forming drugs, except on a physician's prescription. Doctors and druggists are required to keep strict account of all that is given or sold to people, in order to keep unscrupulous men from becoming rich in this way.

Since these "prohibition" laws were enacted, a notable change for the better is noticed in many places. Some people persist in disregarding them, and unless all the officers of the law do their duty, it is difficult to accomplish as much in this way as we might. Here is a fine chance for all of us to show whether we are good citizens or not.

Do you know people who use patent medicines extensively? Why? What do doctors think of such medicines? Can the ordinary person safely prescribe his own medicine?

26. **Caring for the Health of Workers.** — Not only in the home, but in the places where people work, should great care be taken to make the surroundings attractive and conducive to health. The schools, where children spend a great deal of their time, are usually well ventilated, light, and attractive places. Especially the new buildings now are being erected with a view to promoting the welfare of the pupils. Did you ever go into a store or an office that was so gloomy and unattractive that you were glad to come out of it? Then what effects would it have on those employed there? We have already mentioned the laws that have been passed concerning buildings, but even within

the law there is a wide range of things that can be done to make a place safe and attractive to work in.

Formerly it was the custom to let workers in shop and

Form H-3-E



ACCIDENT PREVENTION POSTER

Number 5.



ALMOST LOST HIS EYE



Courtesy of Employer's Mutual Liability Insurance Co. of Wisconsin.

This man usually wore goggles while chipping. Twice they saved his eye from flying particles.

Once he took a chance, chip flew into his eye, infection set in, he suffered intensely and nearly lost his eyesight.

Hereafter he will wear his goggles while chipping.

WILL YOU?

PROFIT BY HIS EXPERIENCE AND SUFFERING



COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR AND INDUSTRY

JOHN PRICE JACKSON, Commissioner.



© 1917

factory look out for themselves. If a workman was drawn upon a saw and his arm or leg cut off, "Too bad," people would say, and let it go at that. If it added to an employer's profits to use arsenic or phosphorus or some other dangerous

chemical in producing some article, the workers in his establishment must be expected to take the consequences. Employers once hired women and children to work for them at starvation wages and for hours so long as to exhaust them.

But now we do not defend such ideas. We have laws,



Copyright, Underwood & Underwood

AN UNUSUAL KIND OF WORK FOR WOMEN.

During the war women undertook numerous activities which they had never before tried. Here you see them engaged in some of the processes connected with ship building. Do you think it is wise for them to continue permanently in employments of this kind? On pages 240, 256, and 377 see other kinds of work that women do.

either state or national, which actually forbid the use of some poisonous substances in manufacturing, such as white phosphorus, and restrict carefully the use of others, like arsenic and mercury. We insist that workers in such places as cork factories, marble works, and establishments where brass and other metals have to be filed, shall be protected by some means so that dust and fragments of the material

shall not be drawn into the worker's lungs. And we demand that the employer shall provide some covering for belts, saws, electric switches, and the like, so that the worker cannot be caught and maimed or killed. The hours of women's and children's work are limited so as not to wreck their health.

You have heard of the "Safety First" campaigns, by which workers—in fact everybody—are urged to "watch your step" and not get into needless danger. Very great good has been accomplished in this way.

Make out a list of "Safety First" instructions that would be useful in some large store; in a factory; on a farm; in a country village.

What cases have you known where workers were made sick by the conditions in which they worked?

27. **Keeping the Community Clean.** — "Cleanliness is next to godliness," we have been told. Anyway it is necessary to health. Cleanliness in a community requires, among other things, the collection and disposal of garbage and rubbish and the cleaning of the streets.

There are three systems of collecting wastes. (1) One is the *license* system, under which a person may get a license to collect garbage or rubbish from people and then charge them for doing the work. (2) Another is the *contract* system, under which the authorities arrange with private concerns to collect the wastes. (3) Still another is the *municipal* system. This is its collection by a staff of men employed directly by the city, under a certain administrative head.

Garbage is waste material that will decay. It is carried away in wagons, which, by the way, are often not as sanitary as they should be, because care is not taken to see that they are covered, or that some of the garbage does not drop out. And they usually "smell to heaven."

After its collection, it may be disposed of in three ways: by dumping, destruction, or reduction. The first method

makes the garbage useful for fertilizing or for filling up hollows or for feeding hogs. In the second method, a process has been found which makes it possible to use the garbage for fuel in furnaces without causing any offensive odor, and leaving only ashes as waste. By the method of reduction, certain fats are extracted from the garbage which are used in making soap and cheap oils, or even, it is said, cheap perfume.

Rubbish is waste matter other than garbage, such as paper, wood, tin cans, and the like, except ashes. It should always be kept separate from garbage. The rubbish collectors find all kinds of things when they sort it over, and preserve everything that is valuable. Some of it can be used over again in making paper, and even the old tin cans are of value. What is of no use is burned.

Besides removing wastes, we must keep the city streets clean.

Sometimes the water from the fire plugs is turned on the streets and all the dirt washed into the sewers. Men, nicknamed "white wings," go along many of the streets with brooms and carts and sweep up the dirt. Large wagons with a revolving brush are also used, but they stir up a great deal of dust unless the street has been wet. A



CLEANING UP.

This man might just as well have put his garbage and rubbish in some receptacles in the first place as to wait until the policeman ordered him to do it.

vacuum system of cleaning the streets has been tried but not very generally adopted. As for the sprinkling wagon, it does little but lay the dust temporarily, and make a better foundation for another layer of dust. An entirely satisfactory method of keeping the streets clean is yet to be found.

What does your community do in regard to the disposal of wastes and cleaning the streets? Could the work be done better?

Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each method of disposal of wastes; of street cleaning. Do these problems affect rural districts as well as cities?

28. **What Our Government Does for Health.** — Let us now make as complete a list as possible of the different agencies which our governments use to promote health. Many of them have already been mentioned. If they have not, and they seem likely to concern you in any way, find out what you can about them by personal investigation or by using some reference book.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT	STATE GOVERNMENT	NATIONAL GOVERNMENT
Health Officer or Board of Health or Mayor	Governor Board of Health Department of Health	President
Department of Health Bureau of Housing Bureau of Sanitation Bureau Smoke Regulation	Department of Agriculture Food and Dairy Inspectors State College of Agriculture Department of Labor and Industry Factory Inspectors Mine Inspectors	Department of Treasury Public Health Service Department of War Medical Corps Department of the Interior Bureau of Mines
Department of Public Works Bureau of Water Bureau of Highways and Sewers	Department of Farms and Markets (N. Y.)	Department of Agriculture Bureau of Chemistry Bureau of Animal Industry

LOCAL GOVERNMENT	STATE GOVERNMENT	NATIONAL GOVERNMENT
Board of Education Medical Inspectors School Nurses, etc.		Department of Labor Bureau of Immigra- tion Children's Bureau Women's Bureau

Make over this table so that it fits exactly your state and locality. Learn the names of the persons whose authority may sometime reach you directly.

29. **What Private Citizens May Do.** — We must not expect our government to do everything. Private citizens also may and ought to help to promote health by giving money and by service. Hospitals are institutions of great value that are sometimes entirely carried on by private citizens, though sometimes by the government, and sometimes by both. They do a great deal of good in a community by caring for the sick, both rich and poor. People can help them by giving contributions of money and sometimes of food and other things. Many hospitals are established and at least partly maintained by churches.

There have been times, as in the influenza epidemic of 1918, when hospitals were glad to have people give them personal assistance. A great many women devote their time to nursing, which is a very worthy and valuable profession.

In many other ways one has the opportunity of aiding others to enjoy better health. In the summer, for example, funds are often raised to furnish milk and ice to those in need. Many children help to make money for these funds by giving lawn fêtes, socials, and the like. They do a great deal of good in keeping up the health of the babies of the poorer people.

Then there are things people can do in their homes to help the community. For example, a "Swat-the-Fly" campaign helps to make not only one's own home cleaner and more comfortable, but the whole community neater and

more healthful. As we have tried to show, although many laws are passed to protect the health of the community, every citizen has to help. If every one would only keep himself and his little corner in good working order, it would be the quickest way to make the whole community the most healthful place possible.

What has been done by your school, or by any society with which you are connected, to improve your own health or that of the community in general?



DISTRIBUTING ICE IN A CROWDED CITY DISTRICT.

Almost any kind of method is used to carry the ice home.

When you discover some condition in your community which is dangerous to health what ought you to do about it?

In many communities a *Survey*, which is a thorough study of conditions affecting the health, happiness, and general well-being of the people, has been made. Such studies often bring to light conditions which most of the citizens know nothing about. If such a study has been made in your community, make use of the reports concerning it, as you consider the problem of health or any of the other elements of welfare which we shall take up. Find out whether any improvements have been made as a result of the survey. Perhaps you can undertake something of the kind on a small scale as a class.

QUESTIONS

Can a community determine whether its people will be healthy or not? Why is it important to protect people's health?

Mention some of the laws that aim to provide pure air. What is a sweat shop? What is the "smoke nuisance"?

In how many ways is water necessary or useful? In how many different methods is water supplied to communities? Explain *filtration*. By what means is sewage disposed of? Why is such disposal necessary?

To what extent do we depend on other people for our food? Mention items that enter into the cost of food products. By what means is pure food assured? How are farmers aided in making their farms most productive? What is the Federal Farm Loan System?

Under what conditions is it difficult to maintain health at home? What attitude do people take in regard to diseases? In what kinds of places are the death records worst? What public officers have a part in trying to keep people well? By what means do we undertake to prevent the spread of contagion? Mention the ways in which we can help to avoid sickness.

What do we usually mean by prohibition? Why do we have it? Mention some other laws that are similar in character. How do we try to keep factories safe for workers? What is meant by "safety first"?

Explain the systems in use in the United States for handling garbage and rubbish. Distinguish between these two kinds of waste. Mention the principal methods of street cleaning.

What services do hospitals render? How may fortunate children assist others to better health? To what extent does the health of the community depend on you? What is a survey?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Milk and Health.

The War on the Mosquito.

Our Enemy the Fly.

The Water Supply of our Community. (Perhaps you can make a map to illustrate this.)

Clean-up Campaigns.

Our Local Stores and Markets.

How a Bakery is Managed.

Dairies and Creameries.

- A Visit to a Slaughter House.
- Disposal of Sewage in Our Community.
- Well Water and Health.
- What Becomes of Our Garbage.
- Street Cleaning in
- What the Junior Red Cross does for the Health of the World.
- The Scouts and Health.
- Places That Are Dangerous to Health.
- “No Spitting.”
- Helping the Farmer to Help the Country.
- The County Fair.
- Corn Clubs and Canning Clubs.
- Cold-Storage Laws.
- School- and Home-Gardens.
- Wasting Food.
- Food Supplies in War Time.
- Quarantine Laws in Our Community.
- My Experience in a Hospital.
- Healthful and Unhealthful Parts of Our Community.

CHAPTER III

PROTECTING LIFE AND PROPERTY

Government is representative of order.—Buckle.

30. **Making Us Feel Safe.** — Can you imagine the state of mind we should be in if everybody had to look out for himself all the time? When the Pilgrims first came to America the men had to carry guns to protect them from the Indians. When pioneer settlements began to appear in the West, the same thing was the case. If a man's home caught fire, there was very little hope of saving it, because there was no organized force to fight the fire. It would wear on our poor sensitive nerves to-day if we felt that we were in constant danger. We should always have to be on the alert, and could never have the rest and relaxation that we all enjoy and some of us need.

To-day, even among the thousands or millions of unknown people in our big cities, protected as we are by the policemen, building laws, industrial laws, and many other agencies, we have a sense of security that is conducive to prosperity, health, and happiness. When we go into crowded business sections, we feel reasonably safe because of the traffic regulations which every city has. We do not have such a horror of fire, knowing that there are well-equipped engine houses within reach. And so we can go about our work with no fear of lurking danger to keep us from doing our best. This state of security is one of the first things that a government seeks to give its people.

If the protection given by our government were to be withdrawn, what would probably become of our schools, churches, grocery-stores, or farms?

31. **The Awful Cost of Carelessness.**—The saddest part of a great deal of suffering and loss is that it does not need to happen. Hundreds of lives are taken every year



SAFETY LANES FOR PEDESTRIANS.

This view is from Cincinnati, but many cities have adopted a similar plan. In some places a person may be fined for crossing the street anywhere except at street corners. In the picture on page 170 is shown a safety platform of people waiting for street cars.

simply on account of carelessness. A little thoughtless act, like dropping a lighted cigarette, has caused terrible fires and the loss of many lives. Many of the accidents at railroad crossings are caused by people's rushing across without looking to see if a train is approaching. Some are due to the watchman's failing to lower the gates when a train is coming. Carelessness when working at machines has taken many lives and injured people seriously, and

pedestrians who are not careful on the streets often pay with their lives.

No matter what protection the government offers, every individual must exercise care to prevent accidents. Perhaps we have the right to cross the street in front of an automobile, but of what use is the right to us after we are hit? Every thirty-five minutes, says the National Safety Council, a man, woman, or child is killed by an automobile. True, the reckless automobile driver is a curse to any community. The only safe place for him is in jail. But sometimes the accident is not the driver's fault.

Americans are perhaps worse offenders in this respect than any other people in the world. It is said that the buildings burned in this country in one year would line a continuous street from New York to Chicago. And we can only guess at the number of million dollars' worth of trees that are burned down each year in our forest fires. Statistics for the leading nations just before the Great War show that fire destroyed in the United States in one year property amounting to \$2.10 for each man, woman, and child in the country, if the loss were evenly distributed. The record of England on the same basis was \$.33 for each person; of France, \$.49; and of Germany, \$.28. Now what was the reason?

Perhaps it is because Americans are more willing to take risks about anything. Undoubtedly, too, Americans object more than Europeans do to having officers come into their houses to find out whether they are obeying the law. And more of our houses are made of wood.

We are told also on good authority that in this country, if the average is maintained, 149 or more people will be killed in accidents to-day. More Americans will die from accidents this year than were killed in battle during the World War. And three-fourths of these deaths could be prevented. A man lights a match to see whether gas is escaping in the cellar. It is. A woman wonders whether

kerosene will not make the fire burn faster. It will. A boy succeeds in getting across the street in front of a street car, but there is an automobile coming down the other side of the street. A girl warms herself in front of an open grate, forgetting that dress goods will burn.

Can't we do something about all this? Mrs. Leary's cow



DANGEROUS FIRE-TRAPS

If a fire should start among these shacks at Revere Beach, it might menace millions of dollars' worth of better property before it was put out.

was said to have kicked over a lantern and set fire to Chicago. But who left the lantern where the cow could kick it?

Make a list of "Don'ts" that will help you and other people to avoid accidents.

What connection is there between the protection of life and property and the observance of the Fourth of July?

32. How Fires May be Prevented.—As with disease it is better to prevent fire than to try to control it. For

this purpose we have the inspection of houses and buildings to see that there is nothing to cause fire, and that there is no danger of people's being trapped in them. Fire exits and escapes are required in theatres and apartments and tenements.

Many buildings now being put up are made largely of tile, concrete, or some other fireproof material. These greatly lessen the danger of a fire's starting or spreading in the business district. In many cities "fire limits" are established, within which district wooden buildings must not be put up.

It is coming to be the custom to observe "Fire Prevention Day" on the anniversary of the great fire in Chicago, October 9. On this day all the people are asked to inspect their homes and see that there is no rubbish or anything that would invite fire. Doing this everywhere on one day tends to call the attention of the people

to the fire danger more than work on the part of widely scattered communities would. It would hardly be good judgment, however, to wait till "Fire Prevention Day" to clean out a place which you know to be in a dangerous condition. People are often forbidden to make bonfires



THE WRONG WAY TO DISPOSE OF RUBBISH.

Peddlers and other people sometimes dump their rubbish in any alley when a policeman is not looking. Such a pile as this is both a fire menace and a danger to health.

within the city limits, but when the rubbish is not collected and makes the yard look untidy, it is a choice between two evils.

In country districts, each farmer is in a way more responsible for the prevention of fire, because country communities can not afford to maintain a fire department, and, once a fire has started, there is little hope of putting it out.



Courtesy Forest Service.

A FIRE LOOK-OUT.

From stations like this observers can discover any forest fire almost as soon as it starts. This particular look-out is in the state of Washington.

Lightning rods are in common use on farm-houses and out-buildings, and were once thought very valuable in preventing fire by lightning. But though it is more difficult to stop a fire in the country, there is not so much danger of its spreading, because the houses are farther apart than in the city. When a fire does break out, any fences leading to the next property may be torn down to keep the fire from running along the fence to other buildings.

Our national government has a part in the work of fire

prevention, too, especially through its Forest Service. In every one of our national forests we have men who are always watching for the smoke which means that a fire has started. "Look-outs" are established in high spots, where men with powerful glasses can get a view for miles in every direction. When any sign of a fire is discovered, the alarm is given, and the "rangers" immediately proceed to put it out, if possible, or at least to check its progress.

Are there any "fire limits" in your community? What regulations do you have in regard to the construction of buildings so as to protect life and property from harm by fire or other accidents?

33. **Putting Out Fires.** — There is perhaps nothing which has advanced so much as the method of fighting fire. Once it was simply a matter of everybody's turning out when the church bells were rung, and in a disorderly and ineffectual way throwing things out of the windows or trying to pour water somewhere. Even when people lined up toward the nearest well or brook, and passed buckets of water from hand to hand, it was almost hopeless to put out a fire that had got a real start. Yet this old-fashioned "bucket brigade" is all that many country communities have even to-day.

The next step was to make a kind of pump on wheels which could be dragged to the scene of a fire. With this as a start, steady progress was made in the construction of fire engines, hook-and-ladder trucks, and the like. Often volunteer fire companies were formed, which had their engine-houses, and which frequently became much like social clubs for the men who belonged to them. When a fire broke out, the men would rush to their engine house, and drag the engine by long ropes to the fire.

Why is it unwise to depend on volunteer fire companies if a community can afford paid firemen?

Now every large community has a paid Fire Department with a Fire Chief at its head. The firemen are organized

into companies, and are selected by civil service examinations, because this is one department in which "pull" ought not to be used to get a position. They are often given training in special schools in the use of the ladders, nets, and other things with which they have to be familiar.



HOW NOT TO USE A FIRE ESCAPE.

To hang out washing or to turn into a sleeping room are uses for which fire escapes were not constructed. Yet in the crowded tenement districts of large cities the people are often tempted to do just these things.

Calling out the firemen is done by means of the alarms which come from the alarm boxes in different sections of the city. From the box the alarm is sounded at the nearest engine house. One can also call them by telephone.

The equipment of an up-to-date fire company is very powerful and efficient. Horses are not used so much as they formerly were to draw the fire engines, although there will probably always be a place for a few of them in some communities. In their place we have huge motor trucks that can travel more rapidly. The water used in fighting fire is

supplied from water plugs on the various streets. The force is very strong, as it needs to be for the purpose. The firemen have collapsible ladders which are used for tall buildings. Some cities have fire-boats, which are used at fires in buildings on the shore of a river or harbor. Chem-

ical apparatus is often used at small fires or under conditions where water would do more harm than good.

The work of putting out a fire requires courage, intelligence, and obedience. To secure the greatest efficiency, the work must be done in an orderly way. People should never, merely out of curiosity, do anything to interfere with it. And to send in a false alarm is a mean and inexcusable trick. It is wonderful as well as important—this fire fighting. American fire fighters are the best in the world. They need to be.

What would you do if a fire broke out where you were? Do you know where the fire alarm box is situated which is nearest to your house? If your town has no fire-alarm system, how would you call for help? What might you do yourself before help arrived?

34. Fire Insurance.

— Fire-insurance companies make it possible for the burden of fires to

be borne by many people in a community instead of by one person. They do not, of course, actually prevent fires. A certain amount of money, called a premium, is paid to the insurance company yearly. All these premiums make a large sum of money, and, if a building burns down, the amount for which it is insured is paid from this money.

Fire insurance amounting to over \$50,000,000,000 is now



Courtesy Forest Service

THE START OF A FOREST FIRE.

This fire was on the slope of Mount Wilson, California.

carried by Americans. Of course, the insurance company gets a profit, and the loss of property is made good to the owner. In this way, nobody has to suffer severely from fire loss. Many of the people who take out insurance never have fires, but perhaps the security they feel is worth what they have to pay in premiums.

Some people do not want to put their money in fire in-



CARING FOR AN UNLUCKY YOUNGSTER.

Perhaps this boy was careless. He is to be taken in the ambulance to the hospital. One of the duties of the police is to look after emergency cases of this kind.

insurance, but would rather run the risk of fire. Others, instead of paying money out to insurance companies, save a certain amount yearly as an emergency fund. Then, if they have a fire, they have this money laid aside to cover the loss, and if not, they have that much money to the good.

Does fire insurance help to make people careless? Is fire insurance a kind of gamble?

35. Dangers to Life and Limb.— Sometimes it seems as if civilization has brought more new menaces than it has

removed. And so, besides the protection of property from the awful loss by fire, there are many dangers to the lives of the people which the government must try to prevent. Some of these, as we have said, are due to carelessness on the part of the people themselves, and some to the negligence of those who should enforce the laws. There is the danger at railroad crossings, the danger on the city streets from traffic and from lawless people, the danger from fire and poorly constructed buildings; there are dangers from natural misfortunes, and others. From many of these, individuals can not do very much to protect themselves, so they are obliged to depend upon the government to defend them.

In order to do this, we have such laws as those regulating the construction of buildings, requiring the streets in cities to be well lighted, or promoting the safety of workers in factories, mines, and the like, by requiring safe machines, safety lamps, proper wiring, and sewage disposal. Mines, too, must be safely pillared, so as to prevent their caving in and menacing the safety and life both of the workers below and of the people on the surface. Since these reforms have been undertaken, the number of accidents from these causes has greatly decreased, although there is still much that can be done.

What is the object of having fire drills in schools and factories? Is it done in any such places with which you are acquainted?

Why do hunters usually have to take out a license?

36. Protecting Travelers. — If there were no means of protecting people when they travel on the streets of a city or town, or by railroad, or by water, very few people would venture far away from home, and progress would be very greatly hindered. Careful, conservative, and wise people, the kind any community would be glad to see come into it, would stay just where they were because they would value their lives too much to expose them to danger.

One of the steps taken to protect travelers is the regulation of the traffic. This is to protect both pedestrians and those who ride in vehicles. The systems in some of the cities are very thorough. In New York, all the traffic



A WARNING SIGN.

along Fifth Avenue for some distance moves at the same time, and the traffic on all the cross-streets moves at once. In many places people are not permitted to cross the streets except at crossings, and those who disregard this law may be arrested. Traffic must always keep to the right, and narrow streets are often made one-way thoroughfares.

The railroad offers another problem. In small towns there are a great many railroad crossings where the traffic must stop when a train passes. Many lives have been lost at such places. To prevent such inconvenience and disaster, the railroads in many places have been obliged to raise or lower

either their tracks or the intersecting streets so that they do not cross each other at the same level. In this way many accidents may be avoided.

Are there any grade crossings in your community? If so, can they be abolished?

But to make traveling itself safe, many precautions have been taken. The tracks and roadbeds are watched and

kept in repair, and lights or other signals set along the tracks to warn the engineers if the tracks ahead are not clear. There are also many safety-appliances that must be used. One of these is the automatic coupler, which makes it possible for railroad cars to be coupled without the brakeman's having to pass between the cars. This has



DOING AWAY WITH GRADE CROSSINGS.

You can imagine the delays and the dangers that would be inevitable if the railroad crossed the street at this point.

saved many lives. Then there are safety switches that work automatically and do not endanger the lives of trainmen.

Under the block-signal system, the railroad lines are divided into "blocks." The trains are not supposed to pass from one block to the next unless the signal says the next block is open. This prevents rear-end collisions. But because some engineers may not heed the signals, a method of stopping the trains automatically if they go into a closed block is being worked on.

Many states have "full crew" laws, which require a cer-

tain number of trainmen for trains of a certain length. To prevent the men from working when they are too tired to be careful, other laws require that no trainman may work more than sixteen consecutive hours. In order to safeguard the trainmen on freight trains, ropes are hung at a certain distance from overhead bridges and tunnels, to warn them not to stand up on top of the cars.



TRACKS LEADING TO A GREAT STATION.

At about this point twenty-eight tracks from the South Station of Boston converge into the eight tracks used on the railroad. Notice the signals which show whether the tracks are clear.

In order to protect those who travel on the water, there are a number of requirements made of ship-owners and builders. Each ship must have a sufficient number of life boats to accommodate its people, and every passenger must be provided with a life belt. Every ocean-ship must have a wireless apparatus so that it can call for help if it is in need. In passenger ships, there are aisles leading directly to the deck, and these must be kept open. No person except a member of the crew is permitted to enter the hold of a ship where the cargo is carried.

All along the coast are lighthouses, fog horns, buoys, and warning signals to advise the ships when they are in danger. Pilots and men who tend the boilers must have licenses. Inspectors are provided whose duty is to see that ships are not overcrowded, and that boilers, hulls, and life boats

I. D. 305

PENNSYLVANIA SYSTEM

On August 18, 1921, at 9:40 ~~P.M.~~ ^{A. M.} automobile bearing license F 3045 Pa. listed in your name, was driven over the Pennsylvania Railroad tracks at Grade Street, Smithville, Pa.

(Number) (State) (Road or Street) (Place)

without slowing down or making sure that no train was approaching in either direction.

Not in a spirit of criticism, but rather with the view of conserving life, it is earnestly requested that you approach grade crossings with car under control and look in both directions before crossing the tracks.

This simple precaution, if practiced by all, would save hundreds of lives in the United States every year.

(OVER)

A WARNING CARD.

The Pennsylvania Railroad sends cards like this to people who are seen doing the careless act mentioned here. On the other side of the card is a picture of an automobile which had been struck by an engine.

are in good condition. When we realize the perils that lurked in the path of all travelers, by either land or sea, a century or two ago, we realize what great progress has been made in the protection of life.

What signs or notices have you seen on trains or boats with reference to any of the matters mentioned in this section?

37. Preventing Fraud and Dishonesty. — Because dishonest people are always with us, we must try to prevent honest people from being cheated. For example, sometimes a grocer or milk dealer sees a profit in giving his customers less than they have a right to expect. The city or state

government therefore passes laws governing weights and measures, and sends inspectors around to enforce them. If a man is found using a false measure unknowingly, the measure is confiscated; if he knows it is false, he may be fined or imprisoned. For using the United States mails to defraud people one can be severely punished.

Similar in principle are the pure food laws, which we have mentioned in connection with our study of health. The national government also has a Bureau of Standards in the Department of Commerce, which aids in keeping standard measures and weights as patterns for the state and local governments. Each state, however, may make its own laws about weights and measures, and the laws of different states do not always exactly agree.

Would it be a good thing if the laws of the states were exactly uniform? How does your state compare with its neighbors in regard to the number of pounds of potatoes, wheat, oats, and the like that are necessary to make a legal bushel?

“Blue Sky” laws are another example of measures to protect people from fraud. People have sold stock for an oil well that existed only in somebody’s imagination, or in a moving picture company that never showed a picture. The kind of law mentioned above provides a severe penalty for doing this sort of thing. People must not sell stocks and bonds which do not represent actual investment in a real business enterprise.

Then, too, our governments maintain courts to which people can take their cases when they believe they have been wronged by another. A very great part of business to-day depends on contracts. These are agreements in which two or more people declare that they will do or not do some particular thing.

If the government did not help to prevent the breaking of agreements, a contract would be to many people just a “scrap of paper.” So if one of the parties that have signed the contract believes that another party is **not** complying

with the contract, he can sue the other in court. The government, local, state, or national, provides the courts in which the case can be tried, and also has its officers ready to carry out whatever decision is reached when the case is tried.

Some people will tell you, "Never go to court if you can help it." Do you think this is good advice? Why or why not?

Suppose you own a piece of land, and some one goes on it without your consent. Have you a right to try to keep him off? If so, how would you go about it? If you bought a horse and afterward found that he was blind in one eye, could you do anything about it?

38. Protection from Natural Misfortunes.—

Losses to life and property sometimes occur from causes which one person absolutely could not prevent. Perhaps

you have read about the terrible loss of life and destruction of property caused by the breaking of a dam near Johnstown, Pa., some years ago. Sometimes the spring freshets cause rivers to overflow regularly every year. In order to prevent this, levees or embankments have been constructed, as in the lower courses of the Mississippi. Efforts have been made also to prevent wanton destruction of forests and to plant more of them, because trees help to hold the water from running off too rapidly. In some places, too, reservoirs have been constructed to retain some of the water which



FILLING A SIGNAL LAMP.

This may seem like an unimportant job, but if these lamps were not kept in order, serious accidents might occur.

falls during wet seasons, and help to keep its flow more even at all times of the year.

Few people realize how much the farmer suffers, as it has been said, from bugs, blizzards, and bad roads. Insects and vermin are very injurious. It is said that rats alone destroy every year property worth \$167,000,000. The national Department of Agriculture, and similar departments in the states, fight these animals and the injurious insects which destroy wheat, cotton, and other vegetable products. It is more effective for the government to fight them than for individuals, because often whole communities will be troubled with these pests.

Sometimes the doctrine that "like cures like" is put into operation. Ladybirds are carried by the thousands into the Imperial Valley in California to consume the lice that were ruining the cantaloupes. If a farmer is troubled with a great many field mice, he may set several snakes loose and they will soon kill the mice. In order to get rid of the snakes, pigs may be turned into the field, and they will get rid of the snakes. Many of us would rather meet a field mouse than a snake, however. Many states offer bounties to any one who will kill a rattlesnake, hedge-hog, fox, bear, or other animal which is considered dangerous. Deer are usually protected by law except for a few days in the year, though farmers declare that these peaceful looking creatures do much harm to growing crops.

There are certain "blights" which affect trees and plants. Under the direction of our Departments of Agriculture, men treat the trees or plants in a community which is affected, and endeavor to prevent the spread of the blight. Sometimes the law commands a farmer to spray an orchard of more than six trees at least once a year.

Of course, it is hard to prevent the existence of insects, but we can do much to keep them from destroying property. Most people have no idea how many pamphlets, circulars, and the like are published to give advice on these matters

and others of general interest. We ought to call for help from our national and state officers much more than we do.

Often cattle and hogs are affected by various diseases such as tuberculosis and cholera. Such cattle are now quarantined to prevent the spread of disease, and a method of vaccinating pigs has been found. Often it is necessary for a man to sacrifice a whole herd of cattle because of disease, and although the government pays him something, it is seldom as much as the herd cost him. But it is better that one man should lose his cattle than that the disease should spread to many other herds and to human beings.

In this connection we must not fail to mention the work of the national Weather Bureau. It maintains stations all over the country, from which weather reports are sent to Washington twice daily. From there and from other important centers, forecasts are then sent out, telling what the weather is likely to be for the next day or two. Farmers, truck gardeners, produce dealers, fishermen, boatmen, and many other people are thus helped to plan their work and protect their products from bad weather. Nobody can reckon exactly the value of property thus saved, but it must go well into the millions.

Did the Weather Bureau ever do you personally any good? If insect pests or dry weather hurt the wheat crop of North Dakota, are you harmed in any way?

39. Catching Law-breakers. — Because some men are not in the habit of respecting the rights of other people, the government has to force them to do so. And to catch people who break the law, we have our police departments in our cities, our sheriffs in our county governments, and our constables in our smaller communities. Besides the ordinary policeman whom we see every day, there are the detectives and plain-clothes men, the state police in some states, and the secret service in the national government.

Are crimes more, or less, likely to occur in the country than in the city? How does the rural constable compare with the city policeman in efficiency?

A criminal is not safe even if he leaves one community and goes to another. A sheriff may go anywhere in the state and get an accused person. If a criminal leaves the state where he commits a crime, the governor of that state can send a "requisition" to the governor of the state where the criminal has gone, and that governor will usually cause him to be held until officers can come and get him. If the criminal goes to a foreign country, our Secretary of State has the right under treaties which we have made with other governments, to ask that the criminal be held until we can bring him back. This practice is called *extradition*. So it is hard for a criminal to evade the law for a very long time.

Can you imagine any circumstances under which a governor would not return a criminal for whom a requisition was made?

40. What a Policeman Does.—Perhaps we usually think of a policeman's duty as that of making arrests, though that is only one of many things he has to do. He can arrest people whom he sees in the act of breaking the law, or people for whom warrants have been issued by a justice of the peace, a magistrate, or an alderman. But much of his work is to prevent crime. Often the very presence of a policeman will keep a person from committing a crime that he has had in mind.

The policeman has a certain beat, and he must report anything unusual that he sees. Where streets are being repaired, for example, he must require a red warning signal to be set up. He watches the homes of the people to protect them from thieves. He directs people who do not know where the place is to which they want to go. He stands at the gate of the schoolhouse to protect the children from careless drivers. There are "traffic cops" who are sta-

tioned at busy corners and direct the traffic, thus keeping it from confusion and preventing collisions. The policeman also aids in clearing the streets for parades, and in keeping order in public meetings. Few of us give the policeman credit for the many things he does.

Do you know any policemen personally? How do you feel toward them?

41. Managing Police and Fire Departments.

— The system of managing the police and fire departments in the United States is not nearly so strict as it is in many European countries. Some of these have a Minister of Police who is one of the officers of their national government. Here it is left very largely to the local governments, whose methods of management differ very greatly.

There is usually a superintendent or chief of the police and of the fire departments, though sometimes they are combined in a Department of Public Safety. Under him are various lieutenants, sergeants, and other officers. There are plain-clothes men who mingle with the crowds to catch pickpockets, forgers, and other law-breakers. In a large city there are several police stations which act as headquarters for the police in different sections of the city.



A PATROLMAN AT A SIGNAL BOX.

Every patrolman is required to call up at regular intervals the station with which he is connected. The telephones may also be used whenever any emergency arises.

How many policemen does your community have? How are they organized? Is there any advantage in having policemen wear uniforms? Find out how men are appointed to the police and fire departments in your community.

42. **Unusual Disturbances.** — Sometimes unusual disturbances occur like riots and lynchings, which the local police force can not put down. The sheriff of the county



International.

STATE MILITIA ON DUTY.

These state troops had to be called into service when the police of Boston went on strike. They have arrested some crap-shooters.

may always act in such cases. He may summon any citizen to aid him in "keeping the peace." If the disturbance is very serious he may have to ask aid from the governor of the state. He in turn may call on the state police or even the national guard or state militia. Sometimes these forces are called out when there is a strike. The strikers usually object to this, for they say that the

troops are used to help break the strike and not merely to protect property. But disorder almost always occurs in connection with a strike unless some such protection is given. There is too good a chance for criminals to take advantage of the disturbed conditions which prevail.

The President has power to order out the federal troops when he thinks they are needed to protect federal property or to see that the federal laws are obeyed. The governor of a state, or the legislature, if that body is in session, may also ask for help from the President when the state can not keep order with its own forces.

Do you think a state should depend on federal troops to keep order within its boundaries? Has any strike or riot occurred in your neighborhood where special protection had to be used? What is a "vigilance committee"? When, if ever, is it desirable to trust one of these to maintain order?

43. **Protection from Foreign Enemies.** — Although the invention of the wireless and the cable has brought the nations of the world closer together, and nations are not so willing to fight one another as formerly, we have not yet reached the time when we feel quite safe to abandon our former means for protecting ourselves. Besides, some one must look out for such enemies of civilization as pirates. There have always been people and nations who would do the right thing only when they were afraid to do anything else. Back of all government, good or bad, is some kind of force. And so we have our army and our navy.

It would not be safe, however, to let the states deal directly with foreign countries. So it rests mainly with the national government to attend to this matter. If a state should be attacked, it could do what might be needed on the spur of the moment to protect itself, but would expect the national government to come to its aid as soon as possible.

44. **Our Army and Navy.** — We can not have an army

without men to serve in it, and fighting is a business which most people do not like to engage in permanently. If a government is to be sure of itself, it must therefore be able to compel its citizens to fight for it if necessary. So all men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five inclusive, are said to be of "military age" and are subject to call for military service. In the Great War, men between twenty-one and thirty were drafted for military service and when



Courtesy Marine Corps.

SIGNAL MEN OF THE MARINES.

They worked hand in hand with the French signal men during the Great War.

the fighting stopped, the work of enrolling all others of military age was under way. At that time, we had 4,000,000 men either in training camps or ready to fight.

This draft system seemed much more efficient and satisfactory than the old volunteer method, although volunteers were welcome in this last war. It was possible to let those stay at home who had families to support, or were skilled in doing the kind of work most necessary to win the war. Under the old system the burden of fighting rested upon those who were most patriotic and conscientious, and it was easy to be a "slacker."

After the war came the demobilization of the army, and most of the men went back to their peace-time occupations. Our standing army has always been very small, but it has been raised under the latest law so that it can be expanded to about 500,000 men. Congress has decided that we should try to keep the number about 150,000. The navy numbers about 65,000 men, and there is a splendid Marine Corps of about 15,000.

Our complete unpreparedness for a large war has raised the question, "Should the United States have compulsory military training?" But Americans do not want anything that might tend toward militarism, and, like the English, are not, as a whole, anxious that military training should be required of every boy. There are, however, military camps and schools where men may go and receive training. Lately our government has made it a special point to see that those who enlist in the army or navy are given a chance to learn a trade while in service. Then when their term is ended they will have some particular occupation which they are fitted to take up.

We have our Military Academy at West Point and our Naval Academy at Annapolis, where boys from all parts of the country are trained to become officers. Most appointments to these academies are made by the congressmen from the different states. The work done at these schools is of a very high order.

The army is in charge of the War Department, with the Secretary of War at its head. The military administration is distributed among several bureaus, each of which has a particular part of the work to do. As a kind of connecting link between the army and the War Department comes the General Staff. The Chief of Staff is at the head of it, and he is the acting head of the army. The General Staff recommends plans and makes suggestions for the defense of the country and the general welfare of the army.

The Secretary of the Navy is at the head of the Navy

Department, and its work is also divided among several bureaus.

There are several hundred ships, from dreadnaughts down to submarines. The ships are usually built by private companies under contracts. It is often a serious problem to know what to do about the building of many ships because new inventions follow one another so rapidly that the ships soon go out of date.

Would you or would you not like to serve in the army or navy? What good or bad features do you see in such a life?



Courtesy Bureau of Construction and Repair

A SUBMARINE UNDER WAY.

Taken at San Pedro, California. This boat can make 15.6 knots per hour. The use of the submarine in war has raised many perplexing questions. Some think it to be a sneak's way of fighting, but if one nation uses submarines the others think they must do so too.

45. **Movements for Peace Among Nations.** — Just as it is far better to prevent sickness than to cure it, so it is very much wiser to prevent war than to have all the suffering and loss of life and property that even the victorious side in a war is obliged to endure. For this reason, the ablest men in the civilized countries of the world have tried to discover some means of settling disputes among nations without going to war.

Great world conferences, called by the Czar of Russia, met at The Hague, in 1899 and 1907. Some countries refused to give up any of their armies and navies, and were suspicious of the intentions of others, so that not as much came from these conferences as was hoped. But a Court of Arbitration was provided for, which decided a number of controversies among nations. When the treaty of peace was made after the Great War, it included a covenant for a League of Nations, in which it was hoped to associate all the right-thinking nations under pledges to refrain from going to war until they had tried to settle their disputes peacefully. At present (July, 1924) fifty-four nations have become members of the League. In November, 1921, delegates from the leading world-powers assembled at Washington, at the invitation of our government, and adopted the first effective program yet proposed for reducing armaments. Perhaps we are on the right track at last.

46. **Public Agencies to Protect Life and Property.** — Let us now put in the form of a table the different officers, departments, and the like, by means of which our government endeavors to protect life and property.

LOCAL <i>Township or Village</i>	STATE	NATIONAL
Constables or Policemen	Governor	President
Firemen	National Guard Adjutant General	War Department Army
Justice's Courts	State Constabulary	Navy Department Navy
<i>City</i>	State Fire Marshal	Department of Justice
Mayor	Department of Labor and Industry	Department of Treas- ury
	Factory Inspectors	Secret Service
	Mine Inspectors	Life Saving Service

Protecting Life and Property

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Department of Public Safety		
Bureau of Police	Public Service	Department of Interior
Bureau of Fire	Commission	Forest Service
Bureau of Building Inspection	Courts	Bureau of Mines
etc.		Department of Agriculture
		Weather Bureau
		Bureau of Animal Industry
Department of Health		Bureau of Plant Industry
Aldermen and Police Magistrates		Department of Commerce
Courts		Bureau of Navigation
		Bureau of Standards
<i>County</i>		
County Fire Marshal		Interstate Commerce Commission
Sheriff		Federal Courts
Courts		

Rearrange this table as far as is necessary to make it suit your state and locality. Find the names of the important officers who are connected with this work in all the three grades of government.

47. **What the Citizen Can Do.**—If all citizens would only do what might reasonably be expected of them, the work of our governments along any line would be very much less. The matter of personal carefulness enters very largely into the protection of life and property. If we deliberately run into danger, no law can protect our lives, and, as we have seen, our careless acts may affect many people. So it is our duty to exercise care and thoughtfulness, not only for ourselves, but for those about us who help make our lives happy and comfortable, and who would suffer inconvenience and loss if we should fail to do our part.

Voting—the duty and the privilege of every grown citi-

zen, can be made the means of putting those people in office who will care for the lives and the welfare of the people. We can study the character of a person before we vote for him, and support loyally those who are in office and are trying to do their duty. We can respect the authority of the police and the firemen, and of all the officers, local, state, or national, who are our agents in the protection of our lives and property.

Sometimes people find fault with our policemen and firemen and say that they are unfit to do the work that they are supposed to do. Once in a while they are said to be dishonest, and it may happen to be true. But after all, is it not really the fault of the people themselves if these things are so?

If a worthless man is put on the force it is usually because somebody who has influence in politics gets him appointed. But this politician would not have such influence if the people would elect thoroughly capable, courageous men to be officers in charge of a city. If a policeman takes money and then looks the other way when somebody breaks a law, the man who bribes the policeman is surely as much to blame as the officer himself. Very much of the dishonest and inefficient work that is done in public office is the result of people's trying to get privileges to which they are not entitled. If we should all insist on the policy of giving no special favors to anybody, including ourselves,



Copyright National Child Welfare Association
INEXCUSABLE CARELESSNESS.

it would be very much easier to get a square deal for everybody.

QUESTIONS

How do communities help to make their people feel safe? What is the importance of security? From what dangers have men needed protection in the past and from what do we need protection now? What kinds of peril are the result of carelessness?

How much property is destroyed by fire in the United States? How does this country compare with other countries in this respect? By what means do we try to prevent fire? What facilities do we have for putting out fires? Compare old-style methods with present-day methods. Do firemen need to be intelligent? What does the forest service do in dealing with fires? What is the use of fire insurance? How is it provided?

Mention laws that aim to prevent accident. How do we try to protect travellers? What are grade crossings? Block signals? Full crew laws?

How does the government try to protect people from fraud? What are "blue sky" laws? What are contracts? Why are they important?

Name some special pests that the farmer has to contend with. How do our governments try to aid him? Describe the work of the Weather Bureau.

If a person commits a crime how many kinds of officials may get after him? Define *extradition*. Explain the work of the policeman. How are police and fire departments managed? When public disorders become serious, what public authorities may be obliged to act?

For what purpose, if at all, do we need the army or navy? How are men obtained for service in peace or war? How does our government train men for service? How are our army and navy administered? Mention some of the international movements to prevent war. To what extent have these been successful?

How much responsibility for the protection of life and property rests on citizens? Why do we sometimes find bad and inefficient men in the service?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Dangers of Being Alive.

Our State Constabulary.

Our National Guard.

How Our Fire Department Is Managed.

Fire Drills.

Tragedies That Should Not Have Happened.

Life Saving on the Coast.

Safety on the Railroad.

The Work of Our Police.

What the Weather Bureau Does.

Abolishing Grade Crossings.

Great Fires of History.

Lighthouses and Their Care.

Making Steamboats Safe.

Preserving the Trees.

Moths, Bugs, and Beetles.

Safety First Campaigns.

Life in the Army.

The Marines.

A Sailor in Service.

West Point and Annapolis.

Street Lights.

The Menace of the Automobile.

If it is desired and the time is available, special studies like the following may be found worth while:

CLOTHING

Importance to the individual and the community.

Sources of raw material.

How to encourage the raising of raw material.

Healthful conditions in clothing shops.

How the consumer may influence conditions of manufacture.

The marketing of clothing.

The tricks of price making.

National Consumers' League.

Laws to make the customer sure that he gets what he pays for.

Fashions in clothing—shall we follow them? Who sets them?

Conservation of clothing.

Keeping clothing clean.

The history of a garment you are wearing.

SHELTER

Importance to the family and the community.

Housing problems in city or country.

Advantages of owning or renting.

Planning a dwelling house.

Important features of construction.

The city dwelling and the country dwelling.

Getting money to build a house—Building and Loan Associations.
Tenements and Apartments.

Universal features.

Health laws for landlords and tenants.

The tenant's obligations to the landlord.

The landlord's obligation to the tenant.

Rent profiteers and what to do with them.

Home life.

Different types.

Effects upon the home of hours of labor of the parents.

Home life where the mother earns a living.

Home life where the children are employed in shops and factories

Home life to-day and a century ago.

Things that break up the home life.

Things that make home life finer and happier.

CHAPTER IV

TRAINING THE GROWING CITIZEN

Without popular education, no government which rests upon popular action can long endure. The people must be schooled in the knowledge, and if possible in the virtues, upon which the maintenance and success of free institutions depend.—Wilson.

When the state has bestowed education, the man who accepts it must be content to accept it merely as charity, unless he returns it to the state in full in the shape of good citizenship.—Roosevelt.

48. **Why We Should Want to Be Educated.** — “What’s the use of going to school?” we sometimes hear some restless boy or girl exclaim. “I want to get out and have a good time”—or, perhaps, “earn some money.” But those who know will tell such a complainer that a well-educated person can undoubtedly get more out of life and enjoy it more than an ignorant person, no matter what line of work he may follow.

Men without much schooling have sometimes risen to high positions, but the Abraham Lincolns are not many. Besides, Lincoln was one of the few people who have ambition to seek through their own efforts the learning which others will not get unless it is almost forced upon them. Hardly more than one per cent of the people of the United States have been to college, yet out of that small number have come more than half of the men who have held high political positions in our government. In business, employers are always inclined to employ a person who has had an education rather than one who has not. Those who have education in addition to natural ability are the ones

who get most of the good positions. Every year spent in school adds to the pupil's earning capacity and financial success in life.

But we all know there is something else in life besides mere existence and the earning of a living. The "almighty dollar" is not the only thing we should strive for. Education helps us to get more pleasure out of life. There are the books that afford us so much enjoyment, books that are among our best friends. The people who can not read and write miss all the history, the poetry, the good stories that any of us can enjoy who have come even to the seventh grade in school. We also study in school music, art, sciences, and other subjects of interest. And even if we do not take courses in them, our minds are trained so that we can understand and enjoy them.

A democracy needs intelligent people. We call ourselves a democracy because we govern ourselves. The people act through the officers whom they elect, and the officers merely express and carry out the will of the people. So the people must be educated if they are to think and act wisely and for the welfare of the community. The education of a few people will do little good unless the masses are intelligent. In Russia, for example, the number who were educated were so few that the masses of ignorant people could easily be kept under the control of a few leaders. When the power of the upper classes was overthrown, the mass of the Russians did not know what to do with liberty. Education teaches us the principles of good citizenship and the ways in which we can be of use in our community.

What would you have missed if you had been unable to go to school? Why are you going to school now? Is education of all the people desirable in a country governed by one man or a few men? Would the government be better than it is if one honest, intelligent man had entire control of it?

49. Why We Have Public Schools. — If education were

left to individuals there would be many ignorant people in the United States. If there were no public schools, people who were rich enough and wise enough would send their children to private schools, but this percentage would probably be small and very many of the people would go uneducated.

There was a time when education was almost entirely in the hands of churches or other religious organizations. Some churches still maintain their own schools, and the government offers no objection if the quality of their work is good enough. But many churches are not large enough or rich enough to support good schools of their own, and many people would not care to send their children to schools where some religious teaching was given which the parents did not believe in.

Public schools give every one an equal opportunity to become educated. Of course, the cost is enormous. But the citizens are, or ought to be, willing to pay taxes for the support of the schools, because they know that the pupils of today are not only citizens, but the voters and office-holders of tomorrow. If our government is to continue wise and good, these children must be educated.

Then public schools make for democracy. There everybody is treated the same—rich and poor alike, and no preference or partiality is shown. The public schools are, for most pupils at least, as efficient as private schools,



THE LITTLE RED SCHOOLHOUSE.

No doubt interesting memories center around this place, but how much better equipped is the building shown on page 102!

so there is no reason for rich parents to send their children to private schools, and leave the public schools to the poorer people.

For what kind of pupils might private schools be somewhat more helpful than public schools? Mention some things that a private school could not give its pupils. Should any other language than English be used in the schools, public or private?

50. **How Our Schools Are Organized.** — The schools of the United States are not under the control of the national government. It takes great interest in them, however, since they so vitally affect the life of the nation. In the Department of the Interior is the national Bureau of Education, with the United States Commissioner of Education at its head. This bureau collects information and statistics about the schools, publishes reports, and gives advice, but it has no real authority over the schools.

There has been some talk of extending the control of the national government in educational matters, and establishing a Department of Education with a cabinet officer at its head. But this idea has met with opposition as well as approval. The national government does, however, help to maintain agricultural colleges in the states. It also has voted money to aid the states in maintaining vocational and industrial schools, and to help educate for a trade the soldiers who suffered from wounds or disease during the Great War.

In most states there is a State Board of Education to oversee the schools, although direct management is left to the school boards in the local districts. At the head of this board is an officer known as the State Superintendent of Education, the Commissioner of Education, or the Superintendent of Public Instruction. This board makes rules regulating the course of study, it assigns among the schools the money appropriated for that purpose by the state legislature, and may establish regulations about the granting of teachers' certificates, and

many other matters affecting the schools. Under the control of the State Board are usually the State Normal Schools in which teachers are trained.

The Board of Regents in New York State has very extensive power. It adopts courses of study for schools all over the state, and arranges for uniform examinations to be taken by all pupils. In some states the State Board or some state officer selects the text books to be used by all the schools in the state. But in most states the control of the schools is left chiefly to local officers, known as school directors or trustees, or, in cities, the Board of Education. They are usually chosen by popular vote though sometimes appointed by the Mayor or Judges.

This board is held responsible at law for the management of the schools, but in all the larger communities and many smaller ones it elects a superintendent, and entrusts to him the duties of actual administration. Each school may be put under the charge of a principal. In most of the best school systems such matters as the choice of teachers, planning of courses of study, ordering of supplies, and perhaps even the arrangement of buildings, are left to the recommendation of the superintendent. Either he or the principals and teachers decide on the text-books to be used. The board, however, must give final approval to the superintendent's plans, in order to make them legal, and must decide on the amount of money to be raised and the means of securing it. Sometimes the laws or constitution of the state may fix a limit on the amount of school expenses.

In the rural districts, the schools cannot be so completely organized as in the city. Formerly the "little red school-house" with its one room and one teacher, with all eight grades together, each grade having not more than five or six pupils, was common. The teachers often obtained their positions because they were related to the school board, or for some other personal reason.

The tendency is now, however, to combine these numerous small schools into a consolidated rural school, and to take the children to and from their homes and the school in wagons or hacks. By this means every child can study in a school with good equipment, and have as good opportunities as children in larger communities. In many states, all rural schools in a county are united under a



A CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOL.

Notice the buses in which pupils are carried to and from school.

county board or county superintendent with general charge of them all.

In many states the school districts are arranged in classes in accordance with their population, so that the needs of communities of different sizes can be met to the best advantage. The method of managing the schools may be somewhat different in one class from what it is in the others.

51. **Laws About School Attendance.** — Since some boys and girls do not realize the need of going to school, and some parents are ignorant or careless, the states have laws

requiring pupils to attend school. In some states all children between the ages of six and fourteen must attend. In some the required age is six to sixteen, or eight to sixteen, and, in one or two of the western states, attendance is required up to the age of eighteen.

What are the age limits in your state for compulsory attendance? Do many people under or over these limits go to school?

The length of the school term also differs greatly throughout the United States. Many of the best schools are open



A CORRIDOR IN THE HIGH SCHOOL, EL PASO, TEXAS.

ten months of the year—that is, for two hundred days. The term in city schools is usually longer than in the rural schools, and is, on the whole, shorter in the South than in the other parts of the country.

Is there anything to be said in favor of short terms of school? Should country schools have shorter terms than city schools? What holidays do you think should be observed—why and how?

In some places, attendance seventy per cent of the school term is required in order to call it a year. This is to prevent parents from keeping children too long out of school to work. Often farmers, for example, think they must keep

the boys, and girls, too, at home till late in the fall and take them out early in spring to help with the farm work. In the last few years this condition has grown worse rather than better, since farmers have had so much trouble to get any one at all to work for them. If a pupil is absent for a very long time, and the reason is unknown, a truant officer is sent to his home to find out the reason.

Many pupils want to quit school and go to work before they reach the age of sixteen. Some states allow them to leave at fourteen, if the family pocketbook must have their help, but if they leave when they are fourteen, they must attend a continuation school for two years. But as we have seen, it is to the pupil's interest to remain in school as long as possible.

52. How the Schools Are Supported. — The cost of keeping up the schools is very great. About \$1,000,000,000 is spent for educational purposes in the United States every year. Yet this was much less than half of the amount that we used to spend for intoxicating liquor in a year, and less than three times as much as we spent for sun-dæes, ice cream, and soft drinks.

Most of this money is obtained by taxes collected from the people in the local districts. All property owners must pay a school tax, which is often the largest tax they have to pay. The state usually appropriates money from the treasury to assist the local governments in the upkeep of the schools. Especially it helps small communities which otherwise could not afford to keep the standard of education high.

Some Western states have a special fund laid aside, the income from which is used to maintain the schools. The money is obtained from the sale of public lands, or sometimes from licenses and other sources of revenue.

How much does your community spend for educational purposes? How much does this average per pupil in the grades and in the high school? Do you think people are usually willing to pay the school tax? Why?

53. School Buildings—Good and Bad.— The school buildings and their equipment have advanced wonderfully with the growth of the country. . The school houses used to be built with the idea of spending just as little money as possible, and then just enough was provided for books and teachers so that the school could struggle along.

But in up-to-date communities all this is changed. We now have large, beautiful buildings, with big class rooms, adequate provisions for ventilation and for heating, and



AN EXCELLENT SCHOOL BUILDING IN A COUNTRY VILLAGE.

everything is constructed for the health and comfort of the pupils. We have gymnasiums in the schools, and often swimming pools in connection with them. A great many schools have lunch rooms where good food can be bought cheaply, and there are sewing and cooking rooms, manual training and machinery departments.

The modern school buildings are constructed as far as possible of fireproof material, and are provided with fire escapes and exits. All doors in a school building must open out, and many of them have safety locks that can always be opened from the inside. The schools are very

much more comfortable and attractive places for the pupils to work in than they used to be.

Can you study any better in an expensive building than in a cheap one? Should school buildings be made handsome just for the sake of the looks? What does your school need that it does not have? Why doesn't it have it?

54. Making the Schools Most Useful. — Why should not a school be of some use to the rest of the community as well as to the young folks? No reason in the world. The school ought to be a community center, and people should use it for literary societies, civic associations, debates, lectures, and all kinds of public meetings. Some schools are used now for registering voters and for elections, and they probably will be used more for these purposes in the future, especially since the ladies can vote.

Some people think that the schools should be open all the year round instead of being closed and out of use two or three months of the year. Many schools have special summer courses of about six weeks. People who are behind in their work, or those who wish to go ahead faster, attend these summer schools. There has been some talk of having a twelve-month school year, divided into four quarters, each pupil being required to attend three of the four.

How would you like this arrangement? Do you think it could be worked as well in small communities as in large ones?

One thing that has done a great deal for both health and education is the establishment of open-air schools. This was started in Germany for the pupils who were not in good physical condition. The first American city to take up this work was Chicago. Now we have many open-air schools. The pupils keep their wraps on, so that there is no danger of their taking cold. Many of these schools have been established for tubercular children, who can be in the air and taking care of their health, and at the same time receiving an education.

But it is in the country, perhaps, that the schools can be made of the greatest direct use to the community. In some country schools exhibits and lectures are given which are of great value to the farmers. They make tests of the corn, identify weed seeds in the clover or alfalfa seed, and do many other things that help them to get the best returns from their crops. The country school should be



AN OUTDOOR SCHOOL ROOM.

Here pupils who have consumptive tendencies do their work. They are given at regular times something nourishing to eat or drink.

the very center of the life of the community. The rural schools are now being built with a view to their serving as community centers, and are more suited to meetings and gatherings than the old type of building.

A public library can be operated in connection with the school. This tends to draw the people together there and to promote sociability among them, besides providing them with good literature that they may enjoy. To help in this direction, some states have made arrangements to

send out "traveling libraries" which can go from district to district, remaining a few weeks or months in each. In other places, wagons go out carrying a stock of books from a central county library, and from them books are borrowed directly by farmers and their families.

Often there are older people in rural communities who did not have educational advantages when they were younger, but would like to get a little knowledge in their spare time. For these people evening sessions, sometimes called "Moonlight Schools," are held. Many people attend these and are very grateful for the opportunity. Especially in the mountain districts of the South, an amount of good has been accomplished which can never be measured.

For how many purposes are your schools used by the community? Could they be made more useful?

55. **What Should We Teach in the Schools?** — The subjects we study in our schools are more numerous than they were years ago. In the common schools, the three R's—readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic, with some spelling, just about covered the whole ground. But how different today!

And so with the high schools. They have grown almost as fast as Jonah's gourd. Fifty years ago only the largest towns had them. And after they were started, for a long time their principal aim was to prepare the pupils for college. But everybody could not go to college, and those who did not go received no special preparation for the work they wished to do.

There is much more variety in our courses now in all except the small schools. The pupil may choose an industrial course, a technical arts course, a business course, or an academic course. It would be too much to expect these courses to turn out trained engineers or business folk or domestic science teachers, but they do give preparation for these and other vocations. The gymnasium work pro-

motes and protects the health of the pupils. There are classes in sewing, cooking, millinery, and various crafts that are very valuable in home life later. The business courses train pupils for positions as stenographers, clerks, and bookkeepers.

Subjects that are alive are taught. These include history, civics, economics, sociology, and other subjects that prepare the pupils for their future dealings with their neighbors and with the world. It is very important to give young people the principles of fair dealing and helpfulness to others before they are too old and hardened in their ways of thinking.

One of the best of the new features of our schools is the junior high school. Instead of making our boys and girls spend a year or two simply reviewing subjects they have learned in the fifth or sixth grade, we put the next three grades in a school of their own, and start them on new subjects whose practical value or interest any one can see. Under this plan, there is no such sudden jump, as formerly, from the eighth grade to the high school, and more people are encouraged to go through the whole course.

What subjects are you taking that you think will help you after you have left school? Should you judge every subject by its fitness to help you earn money? Should pupils be compelled to take subjects which they do not like? What subjects are most often required for admission to college? Is it good to let pupils have a share in the government of the school?

In many cases, pupils are forced to leave school to go to work, or wish to do so, before they have reached the age when the laws of the state permit them to stop school. For these people we have the continuation courses. The pupil goes to school one day or a part of a day each week, and works the rest of the time. The loss of that one day's work is not supposed to be deducted from his salary. In these schools the boys and girls learn much that will help them in their work. The laws concerning continuation

schools are sometimes enforced laxly or not at all. In these cases, of course, the schools do little good. Public night schools are also conducted in the large cities, which are of great value to those who must work in the day time.

Do you think it is possible for a boy or girl to obtain as good an education in a continuation school as in a regular school?



Courtesy Bureau of Indian Affairs

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTION.

These girls from the Indian Boarding School at the Sherman reservation in California, are learning to do something that will be very useful.

No matter how good our laws about schools may be, and no matter how many subjects we put in the course of study, the schools will be far less helpful than they ought to be, if we do not have teachers who can conduct them properly. One of the most serious problems of recent years, especially in the country districts, has been that of getting suitable teachers. The salaries paid have been so low that no person with brains enough to earn fair pay

would accept a position in a country school unless he had more of the missionary spirit than most people have. The result has been that school after school has been closed for months or taught by a boy or girl who did not have even a high school diploma.

Our best states, however, are now trying to remedy this situation. One method in use is to have the state pay from the state treasury enough money so that the intelligent man or woman may find it worth while to teach in the country school. When reasonable salaries are paid, the state and the school district can insist that a teacher shall follow a course of special training and shall show that he possesses the qualifications necessary for such a very important position. Many states have excellent normal schools devoted entirely to the training of teachers, and some of our large cities maintain training schools which the graduates of the local high schools may attend.

What are the qualifications required of a teacher in the grade schools or the high schools in your state? By whom are the teachers appointed or elected? How do the salaries of the teachers in your neighborhood compare with those of any other place you know of?

56. **How They Do It in Other Countries.** — It would hardly be correct to think of the schools of the United States as an “educational system,” for they have just grown up without any great amount of planning. Each state is still “a law unto itself” and operates its schools exactly as it pleases. With the 25,000,000 people who attend our schools every year, our public school system is more extensive than that of any European country, but we do not have as much centralized control over them as most other countries do.

In England, education was left entirely to church or charity schools until 1870. It was the last advanced nation to adopt a real public school system, as we use the term. What the English call “public schools” we would call “academies,” and their “board” schools are like our public

schools. But now they have the primary and secondary schools for all who will attend, and children from 7 to 14 are required to attend school. They usually have separate schools for boys and for girls.

England has always differed from the United States in having schools maintained by the Church of England. Many of these schools receive money from the government to help in supporting them. Boys' schools, such as Rugby and Eton, and the two famous universities, Oxford and Cambridge, are known wherever any one knows anything about England. England deserves a great deal of credit for her efforts in recent years to raise the standard of her educational system. Perhaps no other nation did as much in proportion as England did to improve her schools while the Great War was on.

In France, the schools are divided into three groups, primary, secondary, and university. These are all under the same authority, and the system is complete from the primary department through the university. The primary schools are like our grades, only more complete, teaching languages, science, and the like. The secondary schools are more advanced than our high schools, and lead directly to the university. At the head of the school system is the Minister of Education, who is a member of the French Cabinet.

All French communities must have at least one school. Those of more than 500 inhabitants must maintain separate schools for boys and girls. Education is compulsory from 6 to 13. A pupil may, however, take an examination at the age of eleven, and if he passes he is exempt from further school attendance. A person who is educated under a private tutor must take examinations, and if he does not pass, he must attend the public schools.

Germany has had a very thorough educational system. One feature that has marked their method is that at a very early age, the pupils are separated, some entering the trade

schools, and others those which prepare the students for the universities. This system could never be adopted in the United States because it is not democratic, and leads inevitably to class distinctions.

Doubtless we can learn something from what each of these and other countries have done with their schools. They often do things more thoroughly than we do. Yet we should not want to exchange our system, as a whole, with any of them. We can truthfully say that our public schools are growing better every day, and in spite of the fault that some people find with them, they never served their communities so well as now. Let us make them still better.

Can your community be proud of its schools? Are you proud of your school?

57. **Private Institutions for Education.** — Since our public schools are so many and so good, the private schools are not so important as they used to be. In one respect they generally have an advantage over the public schools. The classes are usually small, and more individual attention can be given to each pupil. But there is often a temptation in the private schools to keep pupils who do not do satisfactory work, merely to have the money that comes from their tuition fees. Some people believe that private schools are undemocratic. They declare that people send their children to private schools because they think they are too good to mingle with the common run of humanity. And there is something we get by mingling with all kinds and conditions of people, that those who do not have such an opportunity can not acquire.

Are there private schools in your community? If so, is their standard high or low? Which kind of school, public or private, would you prefer to attend, and why?

There are various kinds of private institutions of learning, with which the government has nothing to do except to see that children who do not attend the schools are being

educated somewhere, and that a proper standard of instruction is maintained. Some churches, especially the Roman Catholic, support very extensive parochial schools, in which the pupils are instructed in the doctrines of the church as well as in the common school subjects. There are also private schools for boys and for girls conducted by men or women very much like any business undertaking.



UNIVERSITY HALL, BROWN UNIVERSITY.

This is a view on the front campus of one of our fine eastern colleges. This building was used some of the time during the Revolution to quarter some of the French troops who came to aid the Americans in their struggle for Independence.

These may correspond to either the grade schools or the high schools in the public system. There are some notable private academies which aim particularly to prepare for college or offer some special kind of training.

Then there are the numerous colleges and universities. Most of the states have universities supported by the state. They are the next step after the high school in the public school system, and offer free tuition to residents of the state.

But in the East most of the universities are conducted by private corporations. Colleges are sometimes endowed by public-spirited people, and sometimes carried on as a business enterprise.

The universities and colleges offer many different courses. There are technical schools, with engineering courses, applied design, and the like, and the colleges and universities offer courses in medicine, law, pharmacy, domestic arts, social work, economics, secretarial work, and others. These institutions are of very great aid in educating citizens for professions where special learning and practice are required, and in training them to take places of leadership in the world.

Do you think there are any people who should not go to college? Why? Other things being equal, would a college man be better qualified to be President than one who did not go to college?

In every city there are business schools which offer to prepare the students for positions as clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, and the like. In these schools, no subjects are taught which do not relate directly to the business the student expects to take up. The courses are usually from sixteen to thirty-two weeks, and their purpose is to turn out people trained for office work.

What would be gained or lost by a pupil who left his regular school course to take up work in a business "college"?

These schools, as well as many colleges and universities, give courses at night, two or three nights a week. In this way, a person may work, and at the same time learn things that will advance him in his work. It is often impossible for a person to stop working and go to school, though he may go to school at night. Many people take advantage of such opportunities, and the night schools are well attended. In the large cities the public schools also have night classes, as we have said.

But today it is not even necessary to go out of our homes to obtain some education. There are many correspondence schools in the country, which teach people by mail. After

sending in his application, a person receives outlines for study in the subjects he desires. He writes out the answers and any questions he wants to ask, and sends them back. Teachers go over these papers and correct them, giving their criticisms. English, mathematics, history, science,



A SCENE FROM A FAMOUS PAGEANT.

At the celebration of the 300th anniversary of the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth the principal features of their whole story were represented. Here is the signing of the Mayflower Compact. So that more people could see it, this ceremony was "played" on land instead of on shipboard.

languages, economics, many special features of business management, and even oratory are thus taught. In these schools older people, who would be embarrassed in a class with boys and girls younger than they, may take courses. They are enabled in this way to broaden their minds and fit themselves for better positions in business.

Is there anything that can not be taught by correspondence?

All these institutions have their places in the education

of the people of our country. They give training for every vocation that people take up. When we add the educational work done by the organizations mentioned in the next section, we shall be convinced that it is usually a man's own fault if he does not make himself a good, intelligent citizen.

58. Educational Agencies Outside the Schools. — Besides the schools, there are other agencies that educate the people. There are the public libraries, the newspapers and magazines, the museums, art galleries, and pageants, where people can learn by seeing what the past has produced as well as what the present has done. Churches help to educate the people morally and sometimes in other ways. Some theatres, where the great dramas and operas are produced, teach people a love of poetry and literature and music. Social settlements teach people what good living conditions are and how they may help maintain them.

Do all theatres educate the people? Why or why not?

The Y. M. C. A. is a wonderful factor in the welfare and uplift of many people. It offers evening courses in many branches, with good instructors in the various studies. The gymnasiums and swimming pools develop the boys physically, the reading rooms and libraries mentally, and the lectures, talks, and religious services, morally. The Knights of Columbus and the Y. M. H. A. do the same kind of work for the young men of their faiths. The Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts also have an educational side to their work, though it is not their first aim.

Many industries also carry on schools for their employees, where they can learn the subjects that will help them in their work in the industry, and become fitted for advancement. The managers of the industry find that it pays them as well as the employees to carry on these schools. The employees do better work and more of it because they understand better the principles underlying their occupation.

59. Libraries and How They Are Maintained. — The public library is a very important channel of education.

After we have learned to read, the public libraries open to us wonderful fields of travel, adventure, romance, history, biography, science, and poetry. The library has shelves upon shelves filled with good books, and all within reach of the people, rich and poor alike. In large cities there are branch libraries, so that in every district or section the people can obtain all the reading matter they need or want.



READING ROOM IN A GREAT PUBLIC LIBRARY.

The public library in Boston is one of the finest in the country. Its facilities for public use are very extensive.

The libraries have quiet, comfortable reading rooms, and librarians to whom we can go for aid, and who are always willing to help find books or references.

The library and the schools are very closely related. Pupils learn to look up references in other books than those used in school, and to make special reports from outside reading. In these matters, the library is invaluable to the school. In fact, in many places the libraries are coming to

be looked upon as a part of the school. We have spoken of the "traveling libraries" which are sent around by some states from district to district, but most libraries are maintained chiefly by local taxation. Sometimes an endowment fund is left by a citizen, but this only partly covers the cost of keeping them up. Often a man who wishes to endow a library insists that a certain sum shall be given yearly by the town or city toward the maintenance of the library. By this means the librarians are trained and paid, and new books bought. The endowment of a library is one of the best things a citizen can do for his community.

It is only fair that we should mention here the name of Andrew Carnegie. Many a town in this country would have no library today if it were not for his generosity. He made his money in the steel business, and some people think he could not have piled up his fortune without either paying his workers pitifully small wages, or charging the public unnecessarily high prices for his products. But whether his methods of getting wealth were right or wrong, he used it in a way that will help many a community for years and years to come.

How much do you use your public library? Who established it and who maintains it? Do you think it could be made more useful than it is?

We have also an institution which might fairly be called the nation's library, though its official name is the Library of Congress. It is housed in a wonderfully beautiful building in Washington, and is one of the greatest libraries in the world. People who write or print books, magazine articles, music, photographs, and the like, may register their work at the Library of Congress, and obtain the sole right to publish it for twenty-eight years. At the end of that time, the *copyright*, as it is called, may be renewed for twenty-eight years more. Two copies of the publication must be deposited at the library.

In this way, as well as by purchases and gifts, copies of everything of importance that is published in this country are provided; and there are many valuable old books, pictures, and other relics, which the Library has obtained in some way. Any one who wishes to use the Library has the privilege of doing so if he can go there. Congressmen, and sometimes other people who have special use for books, may be allowed to take books out of the Library.



GETTING THE "COPY" INTO SHAPE.

In this office various news items, dispatches and other news articles are edited before they go into type.

60. **Newspapers and Magazines.** — Almost everybody who can read, reads the newspapers. We do not realize what a service they render, simply because we are so accustomed to hearing the newsboys crying "Paper!" or to finding the *Times* or *Sun* on our porch every morning or evening. Newspapers collect and give out news from all over the world. If anything of importance happens in our own town, in New York, in London, or in Paris, our

editors receive news of it in a very short time. The telegraph, telephone, ocean cable, and wireless make it possible for us to hear the news so quickly.

It is through the newspapers that we discover what is going on in the world. We learn the names of prominent men and women, and what they are doing. Newspapers play an important part in the formation of public opinion. They have more influence than anything else because their circulation is so wide.

Sometimes they take advantage of their power, and tell things that are not true. This often happens during political campaigns. Newspapers are seldom non-partisan, and all too many of them are anxious to print anything that will influence the opinion and votes of the people. It is mostly the ignorant people who are influenced in this manner; so here again we see how important education is. We need good, broad-minded men and women on our newspaper staffs, in order to obtain accurate, fair news uninfluenced by cheap politics or anything else except the truth.

But often we can tell from a person's conversation what newspaper he reads, because many newspapers are so biased, especially in politics, that they will twist even re-



MAKING UP A NEWSPAPER.

Type has already been set up for various advertisements and news reports. This man is arranging the forms according to the instructions which he has received.

ports of events so that they will suggest something unfavorable to a candidate whom they do not like. Sometimes, too, they do not print items which would be unpleasant reading for a person or firm who advertises with them extensively. On the editorial page, the paper gives "not news, but views," and the people can read this page with that understanding. But the news columns should give simply true accounts of what happens or what is said.

Probably the days of editors who control public opinion as did Horace Greeley or Charles A. Dana or James Gordon Bennett are gone, but the power of the newspapers is still great. One or two of them sell more than a million copies daily, and many of them circulate widely hundreds of miles from the city where they are printed. Most papers, too, do not stop with printing the news. The sporting page, the women's page, the would-be "comics," the stories, the pictures, the cartoons, are surveyed with interest by readers, and the Sunday newspaper is a small library of trash, advertisements, and things of value.

What are the newspapers which your family reads? Do they represent more than one party? What is the character of the papers published in or near your town? Do the "funny pictures" do any harm? How important are advertisements to a newspaper? What part of the newspapers do you spend the most time in reading? Are newspapers in foreign languages helpful or harmful? What is meant by *propaganda*? For what purposes is it used, good or bad?

The magazines cover a wide range, from those published merely for entertainment and amusement, to those which take up serious questions of the day, social problems, and the like. Many people who do not read books, read magazines. They are a very important educational agency. It has become common to use them in schools, to study "current events" or to obtain material for themes and talks in English, history, and the like. Of course, there are many whose standard is not very high, which contain low-class fiction, and misleading advertisements. These do

little good in a community, but they make their appeal to people who are not very well educated, or have not very cultured tastes.

But there are many magazines which are very much worth while. There are magazines dealing with the topics of the day. There are business-men's magazines, fashion magazines, housekeeping magazines, and those which



THE MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS, BOSTON.

publish good fiction. There are ladies' magazines, young folks' magazines, and religious publications. It seems as if some magazines exist mainly for their advertising. The publisher charges well for advertising space, and the "ads" bring trade to those who advertise, so both the magazines and the advertisers are benefited.

By reading good magazines thoughtfully, we can keep in touch with the events of the day, and with much of the good literature that is being written. But we need to

select our magazines with care. We ought to be sure that we are not being fed with worthless stuff, and that our taste for what is really good may be cultivated.

Make a list of the magazines whose names you have seen or heard. Discuss the quality and value of each. What magazine would you take if you could have only one? Why?

61. Public Educational Agencies.—In summarizing the work which our governments do for education, we may notice that its relation to this element of welfare is in a number of ways different from its connection with health or protection.

(1) The national government has no authority over schools except in the District of Columbia and the territories or colonies. It simply aids and advises the states and local communities.

(2) The care of the schools in cities and towns is often, though not always, entirely separate from the other public activities. The school board in many states collects its own taxes and does not recognize a mayor or any other local officer as having the right to give it any instructions.

Our table of officials who are connected with education will therefore look somewhat like this:

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Board of Education	Governor	President
School Directors or Trustees	Department of Public Instruction or of Education	Department of Interior Bureau of Education Commissioner
Sometimes Mayor, Council, or Judges appoint directors or approve tax laws	Board of Regents (N.Y.) Superintendent or Commissioner State University or College	Library of Congress United States Military and Naval Academies
	Bulletins with educational value are issued by other departments in the state or national government, and sold or given to the public.	

Make out a table for your own state and locality, so as to show the important facts about the organization of your schools, the names of leading officers, and the like.

62. The Responsibility of the Citizen. — The part of our

lives which we spend in school is at least as important as that of any other community to which we belong. School is not merely a preparation for life. It is life itself. The training which pupils get here will help them in whatever else they do all their lives.

Many students are indifferent to their work. They waste their time and do not try to attend regularly, or to learn their lessons. Don't you think such people will act the same way toward their work when they are out of school? They will seldom get very far ahead in anything. Pupils who are eager to learn, and interested in their studies, are the ones who will be in line for promotion after they start in any business or profession or industry. But even those pupils can not do their best work when they are interrupted or the class is disturbed by lazy, careless, or trouble-making neighbors.

Pupils can help the work of the school greatly by showing respect and obedience to their teachers and principals. Too many of us think that teachers are some sort of machine and can not be hurt or worried, or tired out like other people. But they are just as human as the pupils, and like to be treated as well. They are ready and willing to help the young folks in their work and their play, and their interest in the pupils will increase if they are respected and considered by the pupils as friends.

Another matter in which the pupils can help is that of keeping the buildings and school property in good condition. It seems to give some pupils great pleasure to while away a study hour by carving initials and pictures on the desks, and writing and drawing in the text books. You would not do this kind of thing on your library table at home. Why, then, in school? And why do so many students love to draw beards on the chins of prominent statesmen and generals in their text books? Unless you have bought the books yourself, these are the property of the community and you have no more right to deface them than a book you might borrow from a neighbor.

Then some boys and girls are not careful of the school grounds or of those belonging to people near the school. It is a common occurrence for school authorities to receive complaints from the people of the neighborhood concerning the students' lack of respect for other people's property. There are always receptacles for rubbish somewhere near the school or on the grounds, and it is just as easy to walk on the pavement as on somebody's lawn. A school with



Courtesy Junior Red Cross

TURNING WASTE TO GOOD ACCOUNT.

These boys collected and sold newspapers and magazines to help the needy who were being aided through the Junior Red Cross. They did this as a part of their school work.

well-kept grounds will add much to the attractiveness of a neighborhood, and its pupils will be well thought of in the community.

Make a list of the acts or conditions you have noticed around your school building or grounds which are not as they should be. How can these conditions be remedied?

But the public, as well as the pupils, has its responsibility concerning the schools. People should take an interest in

the schools and what is taught in them. The public can do a great deal for the schools, and the schools for the public. The people of a community can afford to pay generously to support the schools. When a community contributes willingly for more and better schools, better teachers and equipment and grounds, we can have school buildings that add to the attractiveness of the town, a school life that is helpful and happy, and well educated young citizens in whom all can take pride.

Coöperation between the schools and industries has come to be a very valuable feature of education in a number of communities. Industrial and business concerns keep in touch with the schools, and in this way can often be supplied with workers either outside of school hours or after the completion of school work. The schools endeavor to teach the pupils what will be most useful later, and the students can obtain good positions, often with opportunity for advancement, after they leave school. Part-time courses in the schools are becoming frequent. Cincinnati, O., Fitchburg, Mass., and some other places, have made much of this kind of work. The pupil goes to school a week, and then works a week or two, while another pupil exchanges places with him. This plan helps some pupils to stay in school longer than they could otherwise remain. For those who like to work with their hands, such courses are rather attractive.

The community's schools are not a one-man affair, or even the business of the school board alone. To make them successful, it is necessary to have every individual doing all he can to help them along. When school board, parents, pupils, and townspeople all feel that the schools are their schools, and when all not only feel an interest, but show an interest in them, any community can have schools of which it will be proud.

Are the people of your community thoroughly interested in the schools? How do they show their interest or lack of it?

QUESTIONS

Why do we need education? Why do we have public schools?

What part of education is done by national government, state governments, and local governments? How does the state manage the schools? Explain the work of the local school board. What is a school district? a consolidated school?

Explain the laws in regard to school attendance in your district. At what age may a pupil leave and for what reason? What are continuation schools?

How much money do we spend on education? From what sources does this money come? What are the principal features of up-to-date school buildings? Can a school building be of any value to others than school pupils? Mention other agencies that can coöperate with the schools? What subjects are or should be taught in the schools? Compare school courses today with those of a half century ago.

Mention the principal features in school systems in England, France, and Germany. Mention the different kinds of private institutions for education. Compare the advantages and disadvantages of private schools with those of public schools. State the chief features of the work of colleges. How are colleges and universities supported? By what means may a person who has left public school continue his education?

How does a library serve a community? How is a library supported? Describe the Congressional Library. What is a copyright? Of what benefit are newspapers? Of what harm? Mention the various kinds of magazines.

What mistakes are sometimes made by pupils in school? How may pupils aid in making the school work successful? What does the public owe to the public schools? Do people in general take enough interest in them?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Location of Our School Buildings. (If you live in a large city make a map to show this.)

How Our Schools Can Be Made More Useful to the Community.

When Is a Man Educated?

Schools for Foreigners.

Educating the Mountain Whites.

Truants and What to Do with Them.

Resolved, that our state laws should require all persons to obtain a high school education or its equivalent.

Resolved, that pupils in junior and senior high schools should furnish their own text books.

Who Should Go to College and Who Should Not.

The Newspapers of Our Community.

The Best Magazines for Us to Read.

Resolved, that the public school is preferable to the private school, except for those who are disabled.

Colleges and Universities in Our State.

Student Government in Schools.

Clubs and Societies in Schools.

Business Colleges.

An Ideal School Building.

An Ideal Teacher.

Getting Money for Our Public Schools.

How to Make the Library Most Useful.

Museums and Art Galleries.

Resolved, that every boy and girl in high school should take at least one year of manual work.

School Subjects that Every Pupil Should Study.

Why I Should Like (or not Like) to be a Teacher.

CHAPTER V

PROVIDING RECREATION

*Sweet recreation barred, what doth ensue
But moody and dull melancholy,
Kinsman to grim and comfortless despair?—Shakespeare.*

63. What is Recreation? — Let us be sure what we are talking about, for some people seem to think that recreation means wildly rushing about in an effort to get enjoyment. “Recreation” comes from a Latin word that means re-creating—that is, making over or renewing. It means restoring something that has been lost or building something anew. Every activity of a person uses up his strength and energy, and these must be built up again if his work is to go on. To secure the highest standard of work, provisions for recreation must be made.

Merely stopping work may not be recreation. Most people, especially those who are accustomed to working, find it hard to do nothing. They need activity of some kind. Neither is it recreation to indulge in things that we know are not good for us to do regularly.

Recreation may consist of exercise, rest, or change. A person who pores over books in an office all day needs physical activity to rebuild the energy and tissue that he has used. People who do physical labor need rest or some exercise of the mind. To these people, reading may be very enjoyable and helpful. Often, to those people who like to be busy, a change of activity is all that is necessary. Different kinds of work rest these people and renew their energy.

In the last few years, the length of the working day has been shortened very greatly. This gives the people more time for recreation. How shall they spend this time? This problem confronts every village and city. Its importance is being recognized more and more, and provisions are now being made by every progressive community for the relaxation and pleasure of the people.

Do you like to loaf? How long?

64. **Who Needs Recreation?** — The question is not a hard one to answer. Every one of us needs it. Some of us



Courtesy Bureau of Construction and Repair
A GOOD TIME ON THE "NORTH DAKOTA."

Our naval officers know how desirable it is for their boys to feel contented and so they give them opportunities for recreation.

think that older people need rest more than young people because they have not so much vitality. But we must remember that the vitality of the children must not be wasted if they are to have good health later. They have to grow as well as simply to keep alive. It is true that older people usually work harder, and need relaxation in order

to keep up their health and energy. But play is the birth-right of every boy and girl, and our communities are trying to provide sufficient safe places for all the children to play.

If people were forced to work all the time, except when eating or sleeping, their minds would be dull and their physical growth hampered. They would be dissatisfied and discontented with their neighbors, their work, and their government. These people are always ready to listen to any wild proposition which they think will give them more pleasure. It is among these people that disturbers stir up the most trouble. If the community is going to be quiet and orderly, it must provide its people with a certain amount of recreation.

What is likely to be the effect on a business man if he thinks about business most of the time when he is at home? Do your parents and other older friends like to play? What recreation do they seem to enjoy most? Make a list of the kinds of recreation that seem to suit people at different ages. Is it good or bad to have recesses during the school day? What are the legal holidays in your state? Who determines them?

Do farmers and their families need recreation as well as city folks? Indeed they do. Farm work is often a tiresome routine, doing the same things day after day, though there are certain seasons when a great deal must be done in a few days. Surely an occasional change would be a blessing.

Sometimes, too, farm life seems lonely, even though the telephone has done much to remove this objection. Some outings that would take all the people away from their regular work and bring them together for a good time would be a splendid thing for them. A community picnic is an occasion which almost everybody would enjoy, and the county fair, held in the early fall, is and ought to be a big event in many a farming district. Perhaps if more attention had been given to this matter, we should not find so

many boys and girls wanting to leave the farm and go to town.

65. Places to Play. — “Why bother about playgrounds when we have all outdoors?” some one may ask. But not even the farm boy or girl has quite “all outdoors” as a playground, and in large cities that are built up closely, the problem of getting sufficient playing room for people is very serious. If the children play on the streets, they are in constant danger from vehicles, and are very much in the way of other people. Then there is the danger of bad



A STREET AND PLAYGROUND COMBINED.

Notice how narrow this street is. Yet children play there constantly for they have nowhere else to go.

companionship. On the streets, in vacant lots and alleys there is ample opportunity for bad influence. In some districts almost everybody swears, cheats, and steals.

To prevent these dangers, and to provide safe places for recreation and enjoyment, almost all cities and towns now have playgrounds, though often nowhere nearly enough. Some communities are obliged to have at least one playground for every 20,000 people. In certain places, whole blocks of old buildings have been torn down, and the lots

used for playgrounds. In other places, when the lots are being marked off, room is allowed for playgrounds at certain intervals. This shows that people are beginning to realize that something in this line must be done.

Sometimes the playgrounds are conducted in connection with the schools. This is a very good way, because some schools have large yards which are not used for any other purpose, and these afford a splendid place for the children



A FINE PUBLIC PLAYGROUND.

This field in Seattle offers means of recreation to both old and young.

to play. In some places, as soon as the school day is over, the playground is opened, and a playground teacher takes charge, who supervises and conducts the children's games and activities. The schools are situated at convenient places, where all the children can play safely after school hours or on holidays.

In many communities there are other playgrounds besides those operated in connection with the schools. These

are often established in the sections of cities that need something of the kind. The slum districts have special need for playgrounds. Here there should be football fields, baseball diamonds, tennis courts, and the like. Swings, slides, sandpiles, and see-saws are a delight to the young-



HIGH SCHOOL STADIUM AT SAN DIEGO.

This affords opportunity not only for outdoor athletics but for every form of public gathering. Thirty thousand people can be seated in this stadium.

sters, and many kinds of games are conducted by the playground teacher or supervisor.

Are parks a good place to have playgrounds?

Sometimes buildings are erected in connection with these community playgrounds. These may contain swimming pools, gymnasiums, libraries, reading rooms, club rooms, bowling alleys and billiard rooms, and auditoriums. Such a place may be called a community center. Here people

can come during the evenings for reading or amusements. Public meetings and lectures can be held here, and in this way, people can meet and enjoy other people's society.

The playgrounds are not perfect by any means. There is still much to be done before the playgrounds will be of the greatest good in the communities. Better supervision would doubtless increase the good done by the playgrounds.



A FLOWER GARDEN IN A CITY PARK AT DENVER.

In many places the teachers have little authority over the children. Sometimes rowdyish boys make it very hard for the person in charge, and under the leadership of such boys the others are likely to be unmanageable and to make the playground a nuisance to the entire neighborhood. As far as we have the chance, we ought to help prevent this kind of thing.

Is there a playground in your community? Do you think it does any good? What kind of equipment does it have? Would you like to be in charge of a playground? Is it desirable to have a swimming pool as part of a playground?

66. **Parks and Their Services.** — In almost every city we find parks. Sometimes there are small “squares” in different parts of the cities. These afford a breathing space for the business people, and add to the beauty of the city. In these squares there may be flowers, and perhaps fountains, and benches where the people may rest. Larger than the squares are the city parks. These are established for the same purpose as the squares. Sometimes they contain a small lake where there is rowing or perhaps swimming in summer, and skating in winter. These are of the greatest good if they are in or near the crowded parts of the cities, but they need not be exactly in the business sections.

Besides these, there are large parks, ranging from twenty to three thousand acres of land. Some of these are left in somewhat their natural condition, except that the trees and grounds are cared for and improved. Sometimes the parks are entirely artificial. There are usually good roads for automobiles, paths and walks for pedestrians, benches and swings, and a lake where people can row or canoe, and ice-skate. Sometimes the reservoirs containing the city's water are in the parks. Occasionally some citizen leaves a tract of land to the city for the establishment of a park, but many of them are established by the community itself.

The popular “Zoo” is a never failing source of interest to the people. The old folks will not always admit it, but they like to go as well as the young. Many city parks contain Zoological Gardens and Botanical Gardens where people may go to laugh at the monkeys or to learn something about many kinds of animal and plant life. In these places the plants and animals are often put into surroundings as nearly as possible like those in which they would naturally live.

Our parks are a wonderful help in recreation. They permit us to leave the city streets and, for a short time, forget our work and worries, and see at least a part of nature. They afford places for all kinds of picnics and

pleasure parties, as well as pleasant drives for autoists. It is well to leave room, in the building up of our large cities, for these parks which make life so much more pleasant for the people.

Describe some park which you have visited in another town. Is your community well supplied with parks? Do you need them?

67. **The National Parks.** — Our nation and a few of the states, as well as the cities, have provided several parks. These are usually the parts of the country that contain natural wonders and beauties. Some are maintained because of some important historical event. Chickamauga, Valley Forge, and Gettysburg are examples of these. Among the important national parks we may mention three in particular—Yellowstone National Park, Glacier National Park, and Yosemite National Park. The national parks are under the control of the Department of the Interior.

It would be a shame to allow these places to be destroyed, or used by unscrupulous men for their own selfish interests; so these playgrounds of the world are maintained by the government for the people. Among other wonders are geysers, glaciers, waterfalls, and giant trees. It is true that these great parks do not play such an important part in the lives of so many people as the city parks do, but thousands of tourists go every year to see these wonder spots which can not be equaled anywhere.

68. **Recreation for the Mind.** — To people who do physical work all day, and to some others as well, games, sports, and the like may not appeal very much. They may enjoy more quiet forms of recreation. The libraries which have been mentioned as an educational agency afford recreation to many people who can spend a delightful hour with a good book. There are also museums which contain strange and wonderful things from all over the world, and art galleries, public gardens, and the like. A few communities maintain municipal theatres, where only

high-class plays are given. But these are more numerous in Europe than in this country. Some ambitious communities organize pageants to celebrate the history of the town or some notable event. These are often both entertaining and instructive.

What kind of people are most likely to be interested in libraries, museums, and art galleries? Are you? Why? Would there be any objection to a municipal theatre in your community?

69. Private Agencies for Recreation. — Besides the agencies maintained by the community as a whole to pro-



THE STAGE OF AN OPEN AIR THEATRE.

This theatre at the University of California is constructed as nearly as possible after the pattern of the old Greek theatres. Recreation and culture of a high order may be afforded in places of this kind. In some communities where outdoor theatres would be impracticable "little theatres" have been built by the community for giving high class entertainments.

vide recreation and relaxation for the people, there are many private agencies which perform the same service. Plays, concerts, and lectures afford people a means of recreation that is often profitable and enjoyable. Music plays a very important part in our lives. In many large cities there are opera houses where people may go to hear noted singers

and musicians. The theatres are usually crowded with pleasure-seeking people, and many plays, some good and some bad, are presented.

Some organizations exist chiefly to provide the people with recreation. The Scout organizations are formed partly for this purpose. For the boys and girls in the country there are, as we have noticed, corn clubs, canning clubs, and the like, which help their members to learn something, to earn something, and to enjoy themselves all at the same time. The older people have dozens of



ORCHESTRA AND SEATS OF THE OPEN AIR THEATRE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

lodges, orders, and associations. The Masons, the Odd Fellows, the Knights of Pythias, the National Grange, the Elks, the Moose, are examples of these. Their object is chiefly to bring men together so that they may be sociable and enjoy each other's company. But some of them pay benefits when a member is sick, and help their members in various other ways.

In furnishing recreation under good surroundings, the Y. M. C. A., the K. of C., and the Y. M. H. A., as we have seen, are of great service to men. Many churches also do

much to supply a happy social life for the members of their congregations, old and young.

Other means by which people get recreation are carried on solely for the profit that the manager gets. Many a so-called "park" is just a place where a person can get rid of his money easily, usually to make himself foolish or risk his life on a "Dip the Dips," in an "Old Mill," or something of the kind. The crowds that go to such places, especially in the summer, must think they have a good time, however, or else we should not suppose they would waste their money in that way. One hundred thousand persons or more have gone to Coney Island or Revere Beach in one day, and the cars that take people there are jammed to overflowing.

Why do some churches like to furnish recreation for their people? Are professional baseball games valuable to a community for purposes of recreation? Are the victrola and "jazz" music of any real value? What is a "community sing"?

70. **Travel and Its Value.** — Travel is one of the best ways of obtaining education and recreation. There are various means of travel—by railroad, automobile, boat, on horseback, and—some day it will be common—by airplane. Of these, the railroad and the automobile are the most popular and usual. All of us have a desire to see the world to learn what things are like outside of our own community. Traveling gives us pleasure and rest, if not done in too much of a hurry, and at the same time we learn innumerable things we could not learn at home.

A trip over the United States is almost an education in itself. "See America First," says one railroad. There are the wonderful national parks, there are lofty mountains and broad prairies, and forests old before Columbus was born. It is unfortunate that more of us do not have an opportunity to visit these places. More of us could do so, if we would lay away part of the money we spend at the "movies."

Would you like to travel? What place or places would you especially desire to see? Why? What good would it do you?

71. The "Movies" and Their Effects. — But O, the movies! What other form of entertainment was ever so popular! To the "Liberty" or the "Regent" or the "Grand" the children must go after school and on holidays! In the evenings the moving picture houses are crowded to the doors. Hundreds of thousands of people go to them every



MT. TAMALPAIS, CALIFORNIA.

A remarkable view is afforded from the summit of this elevation. It is reached by a many-curved railroad or automobile road.

day. Charlie Chaplin and Mary Pickford pay income taxes every year mounting far into the thousands of dollars.

The moving picture shows can, no doubt, be a beneficial form of amusement. Sometimes, however, they show pictures that are not true to life. Young people are very impressionable, and they are influenced by what they see. In order to have only good pictures shown, there is in some states a Board of Censors. In addition to these, there is a national Board of Censors. This is not, however, maintained by the government but by the film producers.

These do something to raise the standard of the pictures that are presented, by deciding what shall be changed, or whether a picture shall be wholly rejected or not.

Some people object to moving pictures because of the distorted ideas of life that they suggest. Others insist the movies make the young people unable to use their minds because everything is explained and pictured for them. Still others say that the people get the "movie habit" and go all too often, spending money that ought to be saved, or even used for clothes or food. We shall have to admit that many of these charges are true. The movies have been called our national craze. They can be, and sometimes are, useful, and for most people, enjoyable. But, like everything else which is good, we should indulge in the movies moderately.



ONE TYPE OF MOVING PICTURE THEATRE.

What kind of pictures do you like best? Do moving pictures hurt your eyes? How often do you go to them? With whom do you go? Do the pictures make you nervous or tired? Are the movies rightly called "the poor man's theatre"?

72. **Social Settlements.** — The social settlements do a wonderful work in the poorer sections of our cities. The social settlement houses are open to all, and all sorts of games and recreation are carried on. There are reading rooms, and sometimes baths and swimming pools. It is

surprising how many people do not know the first thing about personal cleanliness. The settlement workers do not consider giving advice the highest aim of their undertaking. They give it whenever there is an opportunity, however. These institutions help to set up higher standards of morality and of living, and to offset the harmful influence of the streets.

73. **Using Our Leisure Rightly.** — Almost every person has a different idea of a “good time.” Some people enjoy



ANOTHER TYPE OF MOVIE-HOUSE.

going out a great deal, indulging in those kinds of recreation which require considerable activity. Others like best to have a quiet time at home with a book or a magazine, or something of the kind. A picnic in the Park or on Crystal Rock, or a ride in a motor boat is all that some people need to be perfectly happy.

But with most of us, to “have a good time” means, in the long run, work and pleasure combined. We may not think that work is a pleasure, but we should become very tired of a life that was one long vacation, with nothing to do but amuse ourselves. When we have work to do, we

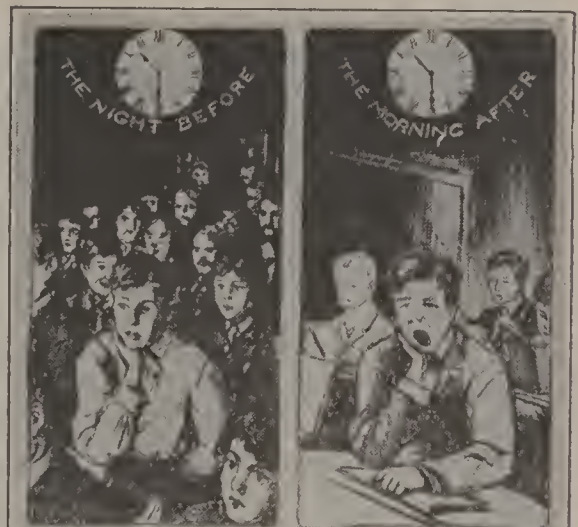
appreciate our pleasure more. And when we do amuse ourselves, it will be well if some of the time we try to have amusement that has benefit in it as well as mere pleasure.

There are some amusements which are distinctly harmful. Gambling in any form is certainly detrimental. Besides risking money, it puts all kinds of games and sports, and even political affairs, in a bad light. All sorts of bribery and evil influences have resulted from gambling and betting. The great game of baseball which millions of Americans enjoy so much has been stained seriously by players who threw away games because gamblers paid them to do so.

Then there are the pool rooms. The game itself is all right, and affords people pleasure, but the environment in public pool rooms is usually not elevating. Many boys and men spend their time in such places when they could be using their leisure in a more helpful way. Exercise outdoors would usually be much more beneficial to them.

Ladies, too, often become so deeply interested in playing cards for valuable prizes that the effect on their tempers, their nerves, and sometimes their honesty, is very bad.

We have, too, the public dance hall. Many boys and girls like to dance, and do not seem to be harmed by it. But you never know what you are getting into when you go to one of these places which is conducted to make money.



Late Evenings - Weary Mornings

Go To Bed Early
Have A Fixed Bedtime
Get Up Promptly

SLEEP
Is As Needful As Food

Copyright, National Child Welfare Association
UNPROFITABLE HABITS.

Many a person has found company there that brought ruin to body and soul in the end. A few communities have arranged for municipal dance halls and skating rinks, strictly supervised, to permit this kind of social activity under proper regulations. But others hesitate to promote these things publicly, and still others do not realize the dangers from which some of their young people suffer.



A SCENE ON BOSTON COMMON.

Make a list of the amusements engaged in by people whom you know which you think are harmful; of those which are helpful; of those which have no noticeable effect either way. Give your reasons in each case.

What shall the boys and girls do after school? They need recreation, certainly, but it is a question whether they need to play all the time when they are not in school or doing school work. It is often better for them to have some responsibility, some work, so that they will be accustomed

to working, and can more easily take up their duties in the world when they are older.

Outdoor exercise is beneficial after the school day is over. Any games that are played outside will renew the energy of boys and girls and rest their minds, provided they do not let themselves become unduly excited over them, or are so anxious to win as to cheat some one else. In winter coasting and ice-skating are splendid for health and good spirits, and in summer there are baseball games, tennis, swimming, and the like. One of the great reasons why "daylight saving" is popular in our cities is that it gives an extra hour after the day's work is done, for people to get out in the open air and play, ride, walk, or just sit still and enjoy the summer evening.

What do you do after school in summer? in winter? Do you know boys and girls who earn their way through school or college? What do they do to earn money? Are they worse off for doing this?

Why do most farmers dislike "daylight saving"?

Another matter on which there is a great difference of opinion is that of vacations. All over the country there are resorts of various kinds, each one of which makes its appeal to some people. There are ocean resorts, lake resorts, mountain resorts, health resorts, and others.

Some of us like to spend our vacations in the country where there is fishing or perhaps hunting. Others see no enjoyment whatever in sitting still in a boat for hours, or tramping through the woods, but find pleasure in going to one of the large resorts, where there are many lectures, concerts, shows, and dances. Some enjoy the mountains, others the resorts on lakes or rivers. People who can afford to travel visit the national parks and other interesting places, and many more take trips to the large cities. This is a matter of individual taste, and we should all use our judgment in deciding how to spend our vacation in order to get the most out of it.

Why would you or would you not like a vacation at Atlantic City?

A complete change is beneficial. The editor of one farm paper advocates that country people should spend their vacations in the city, seeing the sights, going to theatres, "movies" and the like, and having a change in every way. At the end of two weeks he thinks they will probably be ready to go back to the quiet life of the farm. Some farm boys, however, like nothing so well as to get out in the woods where they can fish or hunt to their hearts' content.



A RECREATION PLACE FOR THOUSANDS.

Atlantic City is a favorite resort for those who like the kind of recreation it affords. Do you enjoy recreation when so many hundreds or thousands of other people are around?

City people in particular will often find that a quiet place, with good fresh air and food, and plenty of time for sleep, and just enough "going on" to keep them from becoming bored, will do wonders in restoring their health and energy. To hustle wildly around trying to see how many "affairs" and places one can go to in two weeks, may leave him more tired than when he started. Perhaps you have heard

people say jokingly that it takes them a month to get rested from their vacation, but all too often that is the real truth.

74. **Who Shall Be Responsible?** — Our governments do perhaps less to provide recreation than to promote any of the other elements of welfare which we have thus far studied. The following table mentions most of the agencies which have any direct relation to this need of our communities.

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
	Governor	President
Mayor	Department of Internal Affairs	Department of Interior
Department of Public Works	Department of Highways	National Park Service
Bureau of Parks		Library of Congress
Playground officials (perhaps under Board of Education)		
Trustees of Public Library		

Make out a similar table for your own state and locality.

As we have seen, the greater part of the management of the means of recreation is conducted by private associations of various kinds. Since every private organization is simply a group of citizens, the success which their efforts to supply recreation will have, and the amount of good they will do, depends upon what each member thinks and does about it. Most people probably have less feeling of responsibility for the recreation of the community than for any other of the movements we have taken up. But there is something we can all do.

It is a fact that in communities where various means of recreation are provided, there has been a decided dropping off in crime and various kinds of mischief. So we can well give our aid, in time, interest, and money, to the establishment of parks, playgrounds, gymnasiums, libraries, and the like. It is much more profitable to do this than to spend so much for the support of police forces, prisons, and

juvenile courts. This is another case of preventing evil instead of having to control it after it has happened.

In our own sports and games, too, whether they are at school, on the public playground, at home, or with our friends anywhere, we can always be fair and honest. We can be clean and courteous, even when the game is exciting. We can be "good sports" when we lose and refrain from being disagreeable when we win. Rowdyism and crooked-



SETTING-UP EXERCISES AT AN ARMY CAMP.

The movements which these soldiers are commanded to perform are intended to keep them in good physical condition.

ness should be unknown among decent boys and girls. We can seek such recreation as will make us better for taking part in it. The right kinds of recreation make us and the community happier and healthier in mind and body, and build strong, capable, honorable citizens.

What kinds of people do you dislike to be associated with in sports? What kind do you like?

QUESTIONS

Define *recreation*. Mention several kinds. Who needs recreation? Compare the opportunities of city and country for recreation. Of what use are playgrounds? How should they be managed?

What is a park? What kinds of parks are there? What services do they render? What and where are our national parks?

Mention some forms of recreation for the mind. Name the most important private agencies for recreation. Which of these are conducted for profit? Of what value is travel? Explain the influence of moving pictures on the life of people to-day.

Explain the work of the settlement house.

What is meant by a "good time"? Mention some forms of amusement that are distinctly harmful; some that are distinctly beneficial. What different types of vacations are there? Is there any relation between recreation and crime?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Holidays and How They Should Be Observed.

Recesses and Their Use.

Theaters and Their Influence.

The Games of Greece and Rome.

Where Playgrounds are Needed in Our Community.

Our National Parks.

Resolved, that dancing should be taught in our public schools.

An Ideal Vacation For Me.

What Our Community Ought To Celebrate.

School Socials.

Social Life in the Churches.

Resolved, that the moving picture theater does more harm than good.

Resolved, that professional baseball is a benefit to the American people.

Sports for Young and for Old.

A Trip I Shall Never Forget.

A Community Christmas Tree.

The Parks of Our Community.

The Farmer's Vacation.

Recreation for the Farm Boy and Girl.

Resolved, that athletic contests between schools should be abolished.

Would a Community Theater Be Beneficial to Us?

Pageants and Their Uses.

CHAPTER VI

PLANNING THE COMMUNITY

Man's invention built the cities.—Varro.

75. **Cities Planned and Not Planned.** — It is easy to believe that the highways of some of our cities follow the lines of old cow-paths. Visitors often are completely bewildered in a strange place because of the irregular, winding, or crooked streets. It is usually the older cities that are so irregular, because the idea of planning a community before it is built up is a comparatively new one.

Several of our large cities, however, were at least partially planned beforehand. Our national capital was planned by a Frenchman, Major L'Enfant, before a single building was erected. The Capitol is the center of the plan. The streets are laid out on the "checkerboard" plan, that is, streets running north and south intersecting at right angles with those running east and west. To vary the monotony of this scheme, and to promote convenience in going from one place to another, there are long avenues, some beginning at the Capitol and running to the outside of the city, like spokes in a wheel, and others cutting across elsewhere. These are named for the different states. Sometimes where they intersect the streets, there are little "circles" or parks which add greatly to the beauty of the city. When the plan is once understood, Washington seems convenient and easy to get around in, as well as very beautiful.

Philadelphia, at least the part between the Delaware and the Schuylkill rivers, is also laid out on the checkerboard

plan, and the new parts of New York have the same system. When streets are numbered 100 to a block, as is usually the case in cities in the central and western states, even strangers find it easy to go directly to their destinations.

Pittsburgh and Boston are examples of cities that "just grew." Pittsburgh is at a disadvantage because, situated as it is at the junction of two rivers, with the hills rising



THE CITY OF WASHINGTON.

This remarkable picture, taken by the Army Air Service, gives a good idea of the general plan of the city. The Capitol is near the center. At its right are the House of Representatives office building and the Congressional Library. Beyond it are the Senate office building and the Union Station.

so close to the rivers, there is no plan practicable for it. Boston is noted for its crooked, narrow streets, and it is most confusing to strangers to try to find their way around.

Make out a plan for an ideal city; a plan for a community at your own location if it were to be laid out newly.

What systems of street names are in use in any communities that you know? What system would you use if you were planning a town?

By all means make a large map of your own community, and indicate on it all the main streets and every other place of public interest. Add more entries from time to time as new topics are taken up.

76. **The Objects of Community Planning.** — What are the reasons why there should be careful consideration and thought concerning the plans of communities? Why can't we let them take their own course?

When this is permitted, streets naturally grow up along the former roads. These are usually laid out where it is



AN ATTRACTIVE BOULEVARD.

Notice its width, and the well-kept asphalt pavement.

the easiest to do so, even though many turns and curves result. Side streets and cross streets are gradually opened just where it happens to seem convenient to have them. And what is the result? That it takes much longer than is necessary to get from one place to another, following these winding thoroughfares, and that public buildings or places of business can not be centrally located. Convenience, then, is one object of community planning.

Health is another object. Unless other provision is made, the poorer people may all crowd into one little sec-

tion. The narrow streets will finally be lined with irregular, tumble-down old houses. Cities must be planned to allow sufficient room for their people in order to prevent this overcrowding and its inevitable result. For under such conditions, it will be impossible for people to keep from getting their neighbors' diseases and vices.

A third object is beauty. We will all agree that wide streets either straight or artistically curved, placed regularly throughout a city, improve greatly the beauty of it, and the people who live in a city are always proud of it if it is well planned and attractive. Buildings, too, can be placed and constructed so as to add much to the appearance of the town.

Does your community meet these three requirements of community planning? Do other communities that you know?

What objection might be offered to the checkerboard plan? How could this be met? What do you think of a city plan arranged like a spider web? Study the plans of several cities with reference to the points mentioned in this section.

77. **Planning in Smaller Communities.** — The problem of community planning is somewhat different in villages and country districts than in the city, though the purposes to be sought are the same. It is sometimes easier to plan properly a community of not more than a few thousand people than a big city. In such places the checkerboard system is used to some extent, often with a public square in the center of the town.

In the Middle West the country is divided, in accordance with the law of Congress, into *sections*, each containing a square mile of land. The main roads are constructed along the boundary lines of these sections, and other roads on the quarter-section lines. In this way it is easy to keep track of one's whereabouts, though there are few short cuts between different parts of the section.

When a little village grows up in a country district, it is well to use foresight, and provide for future growth. By

building the first houses, which will doubtless be on the main road, directly across from each other, and a sufficient distance back from the road, with enough room between them, foundations are being laid for an attractive community. The school, church, and general store are usually built at a cross-road. This may some time become a real civic center, as we shall see later. Further growth in the business line will probably begin here, and the buildings or institutions in which everybody is interested will be convenient to all.



A WIDE THOROUGHFARE.

If larger places than this had been planned in the beginning they would not be troubled as much with congested streets as they now are.

78. **Difficulties to Overcome.** — Of course, in many places, it is almost impossible for anybody just to sit down in his office, decide upon an ideal plan, and construct the streets of his town according to it. There are many difficulties to be overcome in connection with community planning. The topography of the land must be considered, and the system of laying the streets adapted to it. Then there are many obstacles in the way of laying out a city. Some of these can be overcome if the people are willing to use

money and work. But it costs much more to construct a new boulevard when houses have to be torn down to make room for it, than it would have cost if the town had been planned better in the first place.

In some places, the soil below the surface is not substantial, and a good, firm foundation is necessary for large buildings. Often this will be the case along the coast where



Courtesy Portland Cement Corporation

A CONCRETE HIGHWAY IN THE COUNTRY.

This kind of material for country highways is constantly coming more into use. Here is shown a milk truck bringing milk to a dairy in King County, Washington.

the soil is sandy. In some places, where the map would seem to suggest a good harbor, a town can not be built on this account.

Then there is the matter of transportation. This is vital to an industrial or an agricultural community, because its products can not all be used by its own people, and must be shipped somewhere. A farming community needs good

highways and railroads in order to have the perishable products shipped quickly, and an industrial community ought to have water transportation also. The town or city must also have a water supply which will be adequate after the community grows, and some means of disposing of the wastes. Each community has its own troubles, and what is one community's good luck may be another's misfortune.

What particular difficulties in planning would Chicago have to contend with? New York? San Francisco? your own town? any other places with which you are familiar?



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SAN FRANCISCO AUDITORIUM.

This building will seat over 10,000 people. It forms a part of the new civic center planned by San Francisco after the disaster of 1906.

79. **Civic Centers.** — City planners of today usually try to provide for what is called a civic center. This is a group of public buildings such as a library, museum, city hall, post office, court house, and other institutions used by many people. This should be at a place that is acces-

sible to all. If in a large community, it should be so situated that it could be reached by street car from all sections of the city. It is also desirable to have such places as the court house where they are within reach of business men and lawyers.

Of course, in a very large city, it may be best to have several of these centers, so that they are convenient to the various sections. These civic centers are an excellent place to establish parks and playgrounds, for here they will do the greatest service.

Does your community have a civic center? Could it? Describe any such arrangement in towns that you know.



WOOD BLOCK PAVEMENT.

80. Constructing Streets and Highways. — Streets should be paved according to the use to which they are going to be put. The paving of streets has a great deal to do with the beauty of a community, but the kind of paving must depend mainly upon use. For instance, a street that is to be used only for automobiles and such vehicles, and one that is comparatively level, can be paved with asphalt, but a street over which there is to be very heavy

hauling, especially by teams, should have stone or block paving. This is especially true if the street is hilly, and icy and slippery in winter, because the stones are needed to permit horses to get a foothold. Wood block has come to be used a great deal, especially in business sections where there are office buildings, because a street paved with these blocks is not nearly so noisy as other kinds. Concrete is also very commonly used.



A STREET WITH ASPHALT PAVEMENT.

In the construction of an asphalt street, there is a six-inch foundation of concrete, a one-inch "binder" of sand, and two inches of asphalt on this. A heavy roller makes this paving smooth and firm. This kind of street is smooth, attractive, and easy to keep clean.

People in a community are always proud of well paved, well kept streets, and are more careful not to do anything to diminish their attractiveness than if the streets are rough and narrow. Main streets should be laid out at least 100 feet wide, especially in busy districts, to allow for two street car tracks, and room for two lines of vehicles at each side. Much congestion is due to the fact that very many streets are too narrow.

The cost of street construction is sometimes divided between the people who own property on the street and the city, and sometimes it is borne entirely by the city. Many people are willing to stand part, or even all, of the expense in order to have the street paved, because it is such a great improvement. All repairs are usually provided for by the city or other local government.

The country highway is still most likely to be a plain dirt



BRICK PAVEMENT ON A CITY STREET.

It seemed better to use brick than asphalt on this grade. See also the picture on page 163.

road. Sometimes this will pack down hard enough in the summer to make a very respectable surface for travel, but often it is sandy in spots, and muddy, sticky, or slippery in wet weather. Heavy trucks and wagons will cut it up badly, but by the use of the "stone drag" or "split-log drag" it can be smoothed off rather easily after a rain.

Many states have undertaken to construct and keep in order the most traveled highways outside of the cities and

towns. Some of them have borrowed sums of money reaching well up into the millions for this purpose. Such roads are usually made of concrete, macadamized, or surfaced with a preparation of tar. The national government is now giving the states some money to help in constructing highways.

In small cities and villages we find all kinds of street surfaces. Brick is common in many of them as well as the



Courtesy Forest Service

ROAD CONSTRUCTION IN THE MOUNTAINS OF COLORADO.

Excellent highways have been built in some of our western mountains. On one side of the Arkansas River is the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad.

other kinds we have mentioned. It depends entirely upon the public spirit of the community whether it keeps its streets in good repair. Nothing will advertise a community much more effectively than the condition of its streets.

Make a list of the kinds of street construction that can be found in your part of the state. Try to find from a street commissioner or other public officer how much the different kinds of paving cost. What kind is most suitable for your neighborhood?

Observe several roads in your neighborhood with reference to the

following points: Ditch, as to depth, width, openness, drainage; road bed, as to width, curvature, top surface, holes and ruts; grade; extent of use.

On a map of your neighborhood indicate which roads are in good condition and which are not. If any of them are in bad condition, try to find the reason and determine whether they can be repaired.

So important is this work of roadbuilding and repairing that usually a special department looks after the work. The state has a Department of Highways, or Highway



AN ATTRACTIVE STREET IN A SUBURBAN VILLAGE.

Brick is often used for pavement on residential streets in the smaller cities and towns.

Commissioner, or both, under some such titles. The county imposes such duties on the County Commissioners, County Engineer, County Surveyor, and similar officers. Every town or township has Road Commissioners, Supervisors, or similar officials. In larger communities there will be a full-fledged Department or Bureau to look after the work. Sometimes it is a branch of the Department of Public Works.

There was a time when everybody was supposed to look after the road in his own neighborhood, and when men were

allowed to “work out” their taxes by putting in time picking stones out of the road or making other improvements. You can imagine what kind of roads were secured by that method. No up-to-date community uses it any longer, but the responsibility is put upon people who have had at least a little experience in doing this kind of thing.



TROUBLE FOR THE STREET DEPARTMENT.

Heavy snows such as occurred before this picture was taken in New York City furnish a serious problem for several days—both to those whose duty it is to clean the streets and those who wish to use the streets for travel.

The lighting may also add much to the beauty of a street or detract seriously from it. The old fashioned lamp post, or the arc light suspended from a telegraph pole is often an eyesore on a street. But we can have lamp posts that are ornamental as well as useful. Cluster lights have come into

How does your community do it?

81. Street Lighting.— We have already spoken of the way streets are kept clean, of the “white wings” and sprinkling wagons. Besides being an important factor in health, keeping the streets clean adds wonderfully to civic beauty.

Street lighting has a big place in the attractiveness of a city. In the first place, a well lighted street does not encourage crime and lawbreaking as a dark street does. Our bright thoroughfares tend to make us feel safe when we are out at night.

favor. These are very pretty by night, and attractive to look at in daylight, and they give a very good light. Some of the boulevards and drives and parks in our cities have splendid lights that look very beautiful when the current is turned on.

Compare the style of street lamps which you have seen or read about.

Somebody has to look after the street lights. In the old days, the lamplighter went around with a ladder over his



A BEAUTIFUL RESIDENCE STREET.

This is Orange Grove Avenue in Pasadena. Notice the parkway on both sides, the decorative lamp posts, and the palms, pepper trees, and other attractive features.

shoulder and set the lights burning one by one. A large city now has a Bureau of Lighting as a branch of its Department of Public Works, and may operate an electric light plant of its own. More likely, however, the community will make a contract with some private company and pay for the current which it uses, in the same way that we do for the electric light in our houses, if we use it.

82. "The City Beautiful." — If care is taken soon enough, a city can be made beautiful as easily as it can grow up ugly. This has come to be an important matter in city growth. Instead of thinking only of the money they can make, people are beginning to take pride in making their city attractive. They want visitors to have a good impression of the city when they see it. There is no sense in putting up extravagant public buildings and monuments,



A BEAUTIFUL WATER FRONT.

Harrisburg, Pa., has taken good advantage of its opportunities in laying out this park along the Susquehanna River.

just so that we can brag about them, but we can at least make attractive what we do have.

In this connection, there is nothing that makes a worse impression on people than the appearance of the railroad station. So many cities have dirty, dingy stations, where no pains have been taken to make them attractive. No matter how beautiful the residential section of a city may be, there are many people who will form a bad opinion of it if the station is unattractive.

Cities situated on a body of water have another opportunity for beauty. Many of our water fronts are used entirely for industry, and are completely spoiled for the use of the public. In European countries, the banks of rivers and lakes are beautified and made into recreation spots for the people, and the industries are required to keep within a certain district. It is right that the people of a community should be able to enjoy the water fronts instead of having them monopolized by the industries as they are in so many of our American cities.

We have spoken of the important part that attractive streets, lights, and buildings play in city beauty. Besides these the City Beautiful has trees and parks, well-kept homes and buildings. It provides in every way for the comfort and happiness of its people, as well as of the promotion of its own business interests. It is unfortunate that more of our cities can not be called the City Beautiful.

Is your community or your part of it in that class? If not, why not? How much can it be improved and in what way?

Can we improve upon nature in making a city beautiful? What features of natural beauty in your neighborhood ought to be preserved?

83. Trees and Parkways. — There is perhaps nothing that makes a street look more beautiful than shade trees. Many cities plant trees along the streets, and in some places they are cared for by the municipality. Besides making the city attractive, they add wonderfully to the people's comfort in sheltering them from the hot sun in summer. Many communities find out what kinds of trees thrive best in a certain climate, and are most beautiful and useful, and they provide for the planting of such trees. The wonderful palms and eucalyptus and pepper trees of Los Angeles could not last long in the chilly winters of the North. But the noble elms and maples on the campus at Brown or Yale or many another college, or which line the streets of many a historic New England town, have a beauty all

their own. The roads, too, are often very attractive because of the trees that line them and sometimes arch over them.

It is now becoming common for builders to save as many trees as possible, when erecting a new house, instead of cutting them down wholesale as was formerly the custom. It is much better to do this than to plant rows of poplars, which grow fast, but whose roots soon become a ruinous nuisance to sewers and sidewalks. People are beginning to realize how really important and valuable our trees are.

Another way of adding to the beauty of a city is by pro-



THE COMMON AT WEST BROOKFIELD, MASS.

A number of New England towns were laid out around a common.

Today such a little park is one of their most attractive features.

viding for parkways, or grassy places, with perhaps trees and flowers, on the sides or in plots or circles in the center. Driving on these streets so adorned may be reserved for automobiles and other pleasure vehicles. Some features of this kind add much to the appearance of a civic center.

What kinds of trees does your community have? Why? Make a plot or plan of an ideal residential street.

84. Unsightly Places. — It is natural for all of us to put our best foot forward. To visitors within our gates, we are apt to show the beauty spots of our city, and care-

fully avoid and conceal the parts that are unsightly. Nevertheless, these places usually exist.

There are dark, dirty, unpaved or poorly paved alleys where all sorts of things are thrown, and where disease and vice breed with marvelous rapidity. There are dumps where rubbish, garbage, tin cans, and other "junk" are cast. These places are not necessary, and certainly not desirable. Their existence is due to carelessness, or ignorance, or gross defiance on the part of citizens, or willful



ON THE CITY DUMP.

A crude arrangement for baling the waste paper is shown here.

neglect of duty on the part of officers. Public sentiment is the only thing that will help to eliminate these places, and it belongs to us to stimulate this sentiment in our community.

Why does a community tolerate a dump? Does yours have one?

For some people, nothing detracts from city attractiveness as much as the big, awkward, glaring billboards. They

appear everywhere, in business sections and on residential streets. They confront us as we come out of our homes, churches, libraries, public buildings, and business houses, throwing in our faces "Bull Durham" or somebody's cigarettes, or some kind of gasoline or tires, which we have heard of many a time before. Along all our railroads, and at the turns in country highways or by the side of the road, we are faced by the same kind of thing. Business concerns seem to feel that by advertising on these large, gaudy



BILLBOARDS ON A CITY STREET CORNER.

Do you think they improve the neighborhood? Notice the safety platform for people waiting for street cars.

boards, they will surely attract people's attention and increase their patronage.

It is a shame to mar otherwise attractive places with these eyesores, even though the signboard man declares that they actually improve the scenery. If people would simply refuse to patronize the firms that advertise their chewing-gum or breakfast food in this offensive way, good might be accomplished. Perhaps, too, if a heavy tax were laid on these boards they would not be profitable. People do not usually spend money for things which bring in no profit in some form.

Have you seen any advertising signs which really improved the appearance of the neighborhood? What and where were they? Do you buy things which you see advertised in this way?

85. Buildings and Their Appearance. — The buildings of a city also make or mar the beauty of it. When our cities were small, the people did not use foresight in laying out the streets, and as a result, the main thoroughfares of some of our big cities are very narrow. The commercial interests all want to be in the business district, and the result is that this section is very crowded and property very expensive. And so, in order to get their business interests in the heart of the city, tall “skyscrapers” have been built. These high buildings on the narrow streets completely overshadow the street and the smaller buildings, and give an appearance of irregularity that does not add to the beauty of the city. They often make the streets look like narrow caverns. Indeed, people sometimes humorously refer to the “cave dwellers” of New York or Chicago.

The appearance of some streets is spoiled because the buildings are at such varying distances from the streets. Overhanging signs on the buildings produce a similar effect. When buildings, both large and small, are built with regard to appearance as well as to utility, our streets are much more attractive.

Do you think beauty was considered when your school was built? Are its rooms, halls, and grounds attractive? If not, can they be made so? Are they kept clean?

Who gets the benefit when a house is painted? Does the principle of civic beauty apply to your own house? If so, how? Can *you* add to the beauty of your neighborhood?

86. City Zones. — A plan first adopted in European cities, and now becoming popular in some large American cities, is to divide the city into sections or zones. One zone is given over for factories, one for business interests, one for residences, and the like. New York was the first great

city in this country to adopt such a plan, but many others have now done so or are considering the idea.

In the factory zones, all factories must be erected. It is important to have this section of the city easily accessible to either water or railroad transportation, and to make enough allowance for growth. It is advisable to allow for several business zones that will be needed as the city grows, because it would be very inconvenient if everybody in a large city had to go into one business section for supplies.

Zoning is important in keeping up the stability of pro-



AFTER THE GARAGE WAS BUILT.

Do you think the people living on this street welcomed the garage, or would they have been glad if zoning laws had prevented its construction?

erty. To build a factory or a garage in an attractive residential section is disastrous to the value of the home property, and makes the neighborhood undesirable for residences.

Does a small city or village need to be zoned? Does the location of business centers in a city change? Why? What people might be opposed to zoning your town?

87. Locating Railroads and Bridges. — Our big cities could not live very long without the railroads. They

bring all our food supplies, and transport our commercial and industrial products to other places. Because railroads are so important, they have been permitted to do almost anything they chose, and have sometimes been a menace to life, property, and comfort. They were very dirty and dangerous.

But much has been done to improve them. Freight going from one place to another goes around large cities instead of through them, and smoke consumers are now used on the engines. These are economical to the railroad and they help keep the community clean. On some roads, notably the New York, New Haven, & Hartford, electric engines are used extensively. Where there were formerly dangerous grade crossings, large sums of money have been spent to raise or lower the tracks to prevent loss of life.

Street railways are important in a community to enable the people to get from one section to another. Plans must be made to construct these railways where they will be convenient, and at the same time will not interfere too much with business or other traffic. The street railways enable people to live at some distance from the city and go in to work every day.

Because almost all the car lines must go through the business section of the city in order to get their passengers, certain streets are terribly congested, especially during the busy hours. To relieve this congestion, some cities—Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago—have established subway or elevated systems, or both. In Boston and Philadelphia some of the surface cars run underground through the business centers.

What is the effect of an elevated road upon the street where it runs? Are there any objections to the subway? Why do not more cities have one or the other?

Communities situated on rivers are confronted with the problem of bridges. Some cities, like Pittsburgh, have

grown up on both sides of rivers. They must have bridges to get from one part of the city to the other, because the old-fashioned ferry would be very inadequate at the present time. New York has gone the other cities a little better by having tunnels constructed under the Hudson and East rivers to take care of much of the suburban travel. But not many cities can afford to do this.



THE POINT, PITTSBURGH.

A city situated like this finds many bridges necessary. At this point the Allegheny and the Monongahela unite to form the Ohio.

Some of our bridges are very beautiful structures and are an addition to city beauty. Most of our bridges accommodate both pedestrians and vehicles. There are also street car bridges and railroad bridges. The old-fashioned toll-bridge has nearly passed out and most bridges are now open and free to the public. Many old bridges have been destroyed and splendid new ones constructed in their places. If the rivers are navigable, the bridges must be built high

enough so as not to interfere with navigation, and yet low enough so that they will not inconvenience traffic unnecessarily.

Show on your local map the steam railway lines and principal street railways, subways, and elevated lines. Is a union station desirable for a large city? How many cities that you know have them? Are they possible in every city? What means do you have for carrying freight or passengers from docks to railroads or from one railroad to another? Can these facilities be improved?



UNLOADING FREIGHT.

This shows a somewhat worn block-stone street, as well as different forms of local transportation. It would not be particularly pleasant to live in this neighborhood.

88. Unnecessary Noise. — Those of us who have lived in cities all our lives do not notice how terribly noisy they are, and how much their attractiveness is reduced thereby. But the city noises day by day wear on our nerves and tell upon our health. Rough block paving or cobble-stones cause trucks and wagons to jolt and jar heavily over them. They should not be used except where absolutely necessary.

Automobile horns blow all through the night, and street cars run over uneven or broken tracks, trucks clatter along our streets, whistles shriek and bells ring, and our neighbor's victrola or player-piano grinds out its "jazz" without rest or ceasing.

In Europe, ordinances have been passed prohibiting unnecessary noise. In Berlin these are especially strict. Loud talking is forbidden, windows and doors must be kept closed when music is being played, and anything that would disturb the people is forbidden. In America we lay so much stress on the rights of the individual that it is hard to get any laws passed to keep our cities more quiet and restful. We think we have a right to be noisy, wholly forgetting the other fellow's right to be quiet. True, we do see "Quiet Zones" established around hospitals, but there are many other ways in which this source of discomfort and loss of rest can be remedied.

Is the neighborhood where you live as quiet as it could be? Some people assert that noise means life, and that a city's noise is one of its notable vital qualities. What do you think?

89. Smoke Regulation. — Smoke is a nuisance with which all manufacturing communities have to contend. It comes from burning fuel only partially. Bituminous coal makes a great deal of smoke, and places that use it to any great extent are very smoky.

Whether or not smoke is always injurious to health, it makes the community very dirty. The soot and dirt settles on shops and office buildings, and on our homes inside and out. The cost of cleaning the outside of buildings and the windows is enormous. Many of our skyscrapers have to be cleaned regularly, and this requires hard work and the expenditure of a great deal of money. Housewives find it very difficult to keep their houses clean, and the smoke increases our expense for soap and our laundry bills.

Fortunately there are ways of diminishing smoke. One way is to use only fuel which does not give off smoke, such as oil and hard coal, but this can not always be done. Another is to employ smoke consumers, and still another is to use certain furnaces that burn soft coal entirely, and yet give off very little smoke. Many cities compel manufacturers to use one of these methods, in order to prevent the city's being continually under a cloud of smoke. Of these, the smoke consumer is the most practical, because oil is expensive to use, and in some places soft coal is more abundant than hard. But smoke consumers on factories



BACK YARDS CAN LOOK ATTRACTIVE.

and on engines use up a great deal of the smoke, and prove a source of economy to the manufacturer and the railroad.

90. **Who Is Responsible?** — Public officials have, of course, a great deal to do with keeping the community attractive. They should enforce the laws and report any cases of disobedience. It is their duty to see that streets are kept clean, and noise prevented as far as possible, and that everything in their power is done to keep the community attractive. Let us see who some of these officials are.

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Mayor	Governor	National officers can do very little directly to promote this element of welfare.
Department of Public Works	Department of Highways	
Bureau of Highways		
Bureau of Parks	Park Commission (perhaps)	
City Planning Commission		
—————		
County Commissioner		
County Engineer or Surveyor		
—————		
Street Commissioner		
Supervisor		

Make over the table as may be necessary to fit your own community.

But whether public officials do their duty or not depends upon public sentiment. If the people insist upon it, officials will do all they can to keep the community looking its best. If public sentiment is lax in this matter, the officials are likely to be lax too. They will not see the rubbish in the alleys or the dirt on the wind-swept streets or smell the fragrance of the public dump if they know the people do not want them to do so.

The individual can do much himself to make a community attractive. A person who does not respect another's property is not a very good citizen. Every individual can do his part in keeping public buildings, libraries, streets, parks, and playgrounds in order, and he can respect other people's rights. Never mind if you think you could make money by opening an auto accessory store in that fine residence district. "Have a heart" and don't spoil their neighborhood forever by breaking up their happiness and beauty, even if your thoughtless government permits you to do so.

If every individual takes a personal pride in the way his own property looks, the appearance of the whole community will be attractive. And who threw that paper or apple core into the street? Was it you? Somebody did. So the white wing had it to pick up and your father perhaps

had to use some of his money to pay the white wing's salary. We should not need to spend so much if we were not so careless. Probably you have seen a park after a crowd of picnickers or even a single family had been out there for lunch. You would think they had tried to see how many greasy papers and "crumby" boxes they could bring out with them and leave around. We can not keep our self-respect and let the rubbish lie there, so we must hire somebody to go and pick it up.

And then those people who must write their autographs or carve their initials in some public place! "Fools' names and fools' faces—" you know the rest. Let us not do such things. It is our community. Let us keep it attractive for ourselves and for other people to see and enjoy.



A LESSON IN CLEANLINESS.

This inspector from the city fire department is trying to tell the children about the dangers from fire in leaving things around and is urging them to keep even the back alleys as clean as possible.

QUESTIONS

Give examples of American cities that were planned and that were not planned. What considerations ought to govern community planning? Is there any difference between planning a small community and a large one? What difficulties may have to be overcome in planning some communities? What is a civic center?

What will you think of in trying to decide on a particular kind of paving for a highway? Mention the kinds of paving in most common use. Who pays the cost of constructing highways? How wide should streets be? What officers are responsible for highway construction?

In what way are lighted streets a benefit to the community? By what agencies is the light furnished?

What special locations in a community are noted for beauty or ugliness? Mention the most common kinds of street trees. In what localities does each grow best? How do bill boards affect civic beauty? How do the buildings on city streets affect the beauty of the community?

What is meant by zoning cities? Of what good is it? What considerations should govern the locations of railroads in a community? How do street railways influence the life of the city? Of what importance are bridges?

What is the effect of noise on city life? Can it be abolished? What is the effect of smoke on a city? How may this be corrected? What public officers are responsible for the appearance of a community? To what extent may the individual settle this matter?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Street Names.

The City of Washington.

Resolved, that the government of . . . should have control of all advertising within its limits.

The Planning of Our Community.

The Growth of Our Community.

Getting Rid of Eyesores.

Railroads and Community Attractiveness.

Ideal School Grounds.

Attractive Dwellings.

Monuments and Statues.

Beautiful Public Buildings.

City Planning in San Francisco.

Types of Street Lamps.

The Waterfront of Harrisburg.

Trees for North and for South.

Resolved, that no community should maintain a public dump. .

Noises that We Can Avoid.

Keeping the Community Clean.

Resolved, that bill boards should be abolished.

The Back Yards of Our Community.

Vacant Lots of Our Community.

My Ideal Park.

Sky Scrapers.

A Zoning Plan For Our Community.

CHAPTER VII

TRADE, TRAVEL, AND NEWS

Many shall run to and fro, and knowledge shall be increased.

—*Daniel 12:4.*

91. **Conveniences Our Forefathers Did Not Know.** — We are so accustomed to reading yesterday's news from all over the world in our morning papers, that we can scarcely realize that it used to take weeks and even months before the people of one country heard what had happened in another. Our mails travel with such great rapidity that we receive letters only a few hours after they are written—a hundred years ago, it often took two or three weeks for mail to travel from one town to the next place of importance. The journey between Philadelphia and New York, which we now make in two hours, was a two days' trip by stage. The telephone, the telegraph, the wireless, and the airplane, were unheard of and unthought of. It is not strange that there was a lack of community spirit and of feeling of mutual interest—it is remarkable that our people were able to hold together at all.

As far as possible, all transportation was done by water. When they had to go, people travelled by stage-coach or horseback between cities. The roads were terribly rough, and the coaches uncomfortable, and the inns where the people spent the nights were often very crowded and undesirable. The coaches were also used to carry the mails. People did not travel for pleasure in those days. They left home and comfort only when it was necessary.

92. **What Modern Facilities Have Done For Us.** —

People nowadays lay great stress on convenience. They want convenience in their homes, in their business, and in their pleasure. Modern facilities have made convenience possible. We can travel from one place to another in cushioned coaches or Pullmans, or in sleepers if the journey is long. Food is served in the trains, the cars are warm and comfortable. We are able, by means of the telephone, to sit in our own homes or business offices and talk to our friends. The wireless enables us to flash messages across



ONE MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION.

This source of power was much more common a hundred years ago than today. Oxen were more often seen drawing a heavy rumbling cart. They are slow but this man can depend upon his team.

the ocean. We can easily hear from our friends or business acquaintances by letter, because of the safe, speedy mail service. Automobiles give pleasure to thousands of people or carry tons of freight on one load.

Rapid, efficient communication makes for unity among our people and among the nations of the world. Our great country could not be the union that it is if communities, and even families, were isolated as they used to be. Our

newspapers keep us informed of most that is going on in the country. People can easily travel from one section to another, and see the other parts of the country and the people who live there. Our government could not be the great, centralized, efficient force that it is, if we did not have our modern facilities for communication, and we could not readily think or work together, or act as a unit.

The whole world, too, is in some ways more of a unit



Courtesy Cunard Steamship Co.

LUXURIOUS TRAVEL.

Few of the tourists who cross the Atlantic have homes furnished as elegantly as this parlor of the *Aquitania*.

than our own country was a century ago. The ocean cable and the wireless tell us in a twinkling the things that are happening elsewhere. Men, carrying their ideas with them, move from one country to another in a few weeks. Commerce makes every nation have a material interest in every other nation. War in eastern Europe menaces the whole world. O, that some Americans would realize this

more keenly than they do! We used to be taught that God had placed us here by ourselves in a kind of "fortunate isle," where we could do as we pleased and look down upon less favored humanity. But after all, we are just human beings like other nations, and if we were isolated, we are so no longer.

A century ago, the great industries that exist today were unthought of, and at that time would have been impossible. The industries and businesses that used to furnish people with what they needed were small, because they supplied only small communities. With the growth of transportation and the increase of the market, have grown up the giant industries with which we are familiar. Our railroads and steamships bring us raw material from every land under the sun, and carry our industrial products all over the world.

Do not think that these modern facilities are invaluable to the manufacturer or merchant alone. They mean as much to the farmer. In former times it was not uncommon for people in cities to suffer from famines while grain and fruit rotted on the ground in the country. Now our railroads make it possible for many country people to ship their products into the city every day, and for the people in the city to receive these products very soon after they are picked, pulled, or gathered. There are refrigerator cars that keep foodstuffs fresh when carrying them a long distance. Milk trains bring milk fresh from the country every day.

The farmers also make use of other conveniences. In some farming communities, there is an automobile for every four or five people. Many of the farmers who live near enough to the cities take in their garden products two or three times a week in trucks. Rural mail carriers often do errands for farmers in town, and deliver all kinds of goods from town to the farms. Most farming districts also use telephones extensively, and the farmers are no longer isolated and alone as they used to be.

Our modern cities, particularly, throb with activity and

life. Trains roll in and out of the great stations. The streets are crowded with street cars, automobiles, and vehicles of all kinds. The telephone exchanges are busy day and night, and the great printing presses turn out thousands of newspapers morning and evening.

These modern facilities have had a wonderful effect on city life. It used to be necessary for workmen to live near their work. This resulted in the overcrowding of certain sections of the city, and poor living conditions resulted.



THE GRAND CENTRAL RAILWAY STATION, NEW YORK.

Almost 600 trains enter and leave this station every day. Such buildings as this add to a city's attractiveness instead of disfiguring it.

But with the invention of the street car, the workman was able to move farther away from the business center because the cars enabled him to get to his work quickly. Thus the people began to live in residential sections where conditions were much more comfortable and healthful. Now the elevated railways and the subway and the steam railroad all help to make possible the growth of the pretty suburban districts which surround almost every large city.

Are there any inconveniences or other objections to living in the suburbs?

We are so accustomed to all these modern facilities that we do not half appreciate their value. But if we were to try to do without them for a time we should realize what an important part they play in our lives.

What inconvenience would be caused if our telephones were to be taken away? What would happen to large cities if there were no railroads or street cars?

93. The First Real Highways. — The roads in the United States were at first nothing but trails for a horse or wagon. These trails were rough at best, and in bad weather were almost impassable. The old stage-coaches, bumping over these uneven roads, must have been a very uncomfortable means of travel indeed. Of course the first real roads were constructed between or out from the larger towns. The Lancaster pike from Philadelphia was opened in 1792. Stages traveled between New York and Philadelphia, and between others of the coast towns. The care of the roads was at first in the hands of each town.

In 1806, Congress passed a bill authorizing the building of the Cumberland Road, which began at Cumberland, Maryland, and was finally completed into Illinois. The states later obtained control of it, and then the counties. Presidents Madison and Monroe doubted whether the Constitution gave Congress the power of appropriating money for the building and improvement of roads; so they vetoed bills of that kind. Most of the responsibility for main highways rested therefore on the states. Pennsylvania constructed many "turnpikes" and the roads in the more populous sections of the country became fairly good.

Over these highways and over paths hardly passable moved thousands of Conestoga wagons or "prairie schooners," taking the goods of pioneer settlers moving to the West. "Corduroy" roads of logs, plank roads, and a few macadam roads were constructed by private companies

to make money. The traveler on these had to stop at a toll gate every little while and pay a few cents for the privilege of riding on them.

94. **Sailboats and Steamboats.** — Since travel by land was so difficult and unpleasant, water transportation played a very important part in the history of colonization. Our sea-coasts had many good harbors and the great rivers were highways into the interior. Beyond the mountains,



Courtesy Cunard Steamship Co.

THE AQUITANIA.

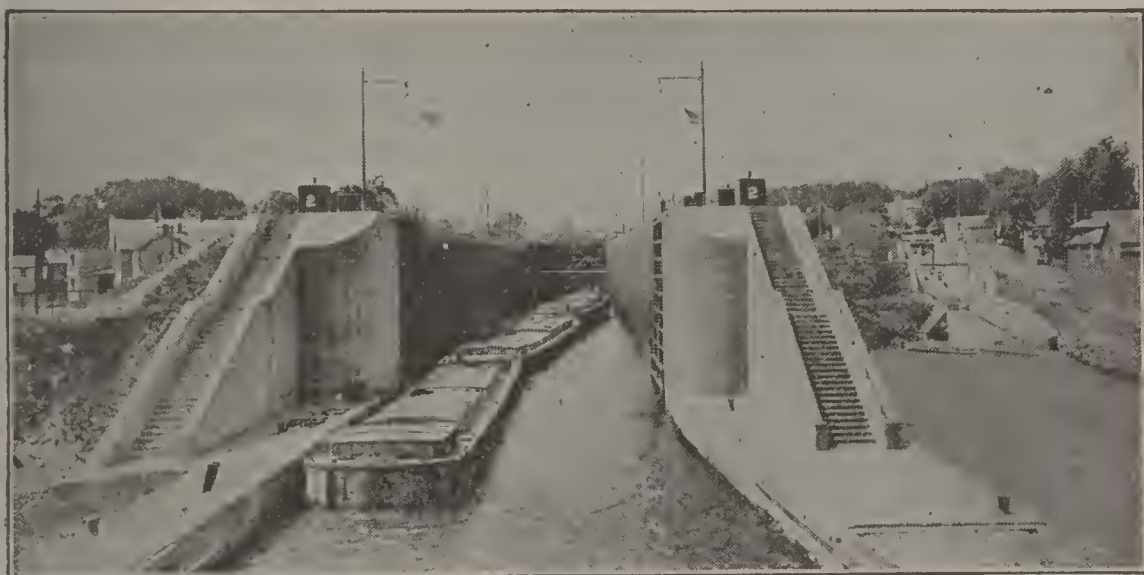
One of the great transatlantic liners of this company. The Cunard line was the first to establish regular steamship service across the Atlantic.

the settlers found the vast Mississippi system. Without this river, the settling of the West would have been very greatly retarded.

Of course in the early days sails and oars were the only motive power. The people never imagined any other suitable agencies for propelling large ships. In some of the less navigable streams, canoes were used to get into the

interior, and there were flatboats and barges on the rivers, but the sailboat prevailed as the most common means of water transportation.

In 1807, Robert Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, made its first successful trip up the Hudson. Four years later another steamboat started down the Ohio from Pittsburgh. The steamboat was at first a very crude affair, and upstream it moved slowly; but still it moved, and this marked a turning point in navigation. Improvements and inventions have been made with such rapidity that it is difficult



THE OLD AND THE NEW.

At the right is the old Erie Canal, with its locks. In the center is a lock of the new Barge Canal.

to keep ships up to date. The big ocean-liners that now cross the Atlantic in five to six days are very different from that first steamboat with the side paddlewheel, that slowly made its way up the Hudson against the current. These ships are sometimes as much as 900 feet long, with a tonnage of 54,000 tons, and accommodations for 1500 passengers, and enormous holds for freight. These ships are really small floating communities.

95. Canals. — As early as 1785, a charter was granted to the James River Company to build a canal, and many small canals were constructed during the next fifty years. But

the demand for better means of communication was supplied on a large scale first by the Erie Canal. This connected the Great Lakes with the Hudson River, and made continuous water traffic possible from the Middle West to the Atlantic Ocean. The Erie Canal immediately became a great success. Its tolls brought much revenue, communities began to flourish along its banks, and the commerce of New York increased enormously.

When the success of the Erie Canal became known, a sort of mania for canal-building came over the whole country. Almost every state had some projects in view for the construction of canals. Not wishing to be outdone by their neighbors in commerce, states built many canals which were of no value, as well as many that rendered great service. The Ohio Canal, joining Lake Erie with the Ohio River, was of much importance. Pennsylvania operated a very successful canal as a part of the route from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh. It required a unique railway portage over the mountains. Other states were about to build canals when the railroad appeared on the scene.

96. The Railroads and Their Expansion. — The first railroad in the United States was the Baltimore and Ohio, opened for traffic in 1830. Horse power and sails were first used as motive power, but before long it was found that steam was best for this purpose. In Pennsylvania the railroads developed rapidly. They were used to carry coal from the coal regions in the central part of the state to Philadelphia, and in 1832 there were 200 miles of railroad in the state.

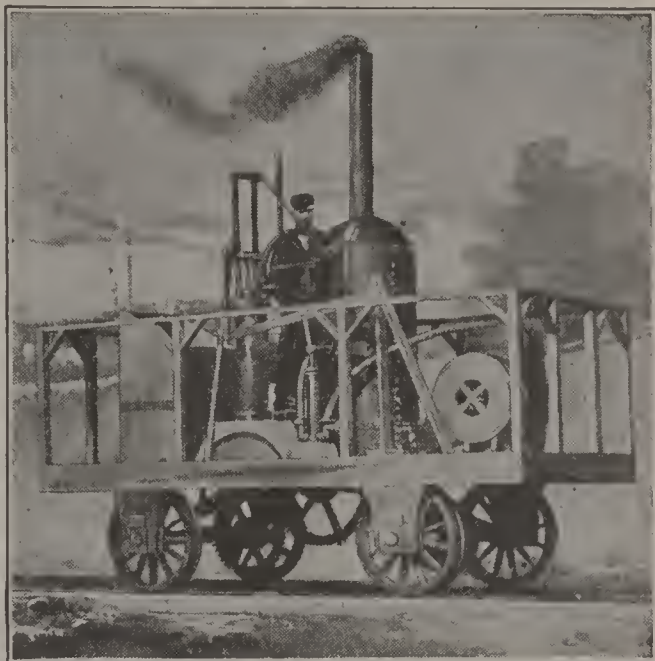
The Charleston and Hamburg was opened in 1833. It was 137 miles in length, and the longest line under one management in the world. In 1840, there were 3,000 miles of railroad in the country, and in 1860 this had increased to 30,000. Today there are 250,000 miles of railroad in the United States.

The first locomotives used in this country were English,

for the Englishman George Stephenson was the inventor of the locomotive; but they were found to be too heavy and not suited to the American rails and roadbeds. American inventors began to experiment and soon found they could improve upon the imported locomotives. The first rails were wooden beams placed end to end, with an iron strap over the top to prevent wear. After 1840, iron rails came into use, and made possible the carrying of heavier loads at a higher rate of speed than before. Railroads at that time were built and operated by private companies, although the states assisted them by lending them money, buying stock, and giving them grants of land.

97. Improvements in the Railroad. — It is hardly a century since the railroads came into use, but there is not much likeness between those first small, slow engines and cars, and the giant locomotives of today, which draw luxurious cars over a network of tracks.

Anything done on so vast a scale as our railroad system is bound to bring certain disagreeable features with it. The railroads, although they rendered wonderful service to the people, were found to be very noisy, dirty, and dangerous. But the better railroad companies realized that it would be for their own good to alter these conditions. They began to try to harm the natural beauty as little as possible, to



Courtesy Baltimore & Ohio R. R.

THE FIRST LOCOMOTIVE BUILT IN
AMERICA.

This is a copy of an old picture of Peter Cooper's "Tom Thumb," which ran first in 1830.

make their stations more attractive, and to render travel comfortable and safe.

The first roads were usually short lines, and people traveling short distances had to change cars many times. Beginning with the years following the Civil War, the combination of small roads into big systems was begun. We can go from New York to Chicago, and from Chicago to the Pacific Coast without moving out of our car. Congress



Courtesy Chicago, Milwaukee, & St. Paul R. R.

AN ELECTRIC ENGINE DRAWING A TRANSCONTINENTAL TRAIN

This railroad uses electric power to draw its trains over several hundred miles of its lines in the western mountains. Perhaps no road runs finer trains than that shown in this picture.

voted aid in several forms to the construction of a railroad from Omaha to the Pacific Coast, and in 1869 the last spike was driven near Ogden, Utah, with considerable ceremony. Since then even the railroad systems have combined into groups controlled by a few men, and are known as the Hill lines, the Harriman lines, the Gould lines, and the like. Some of the men whose names are so used have been real nation-builders as well as "railroad kings."

On a map of the United States, locate the great railroad systems. Make a map of your section of the country showing the railroads which serve it.

Many improvements have been made on the trains themselves. In addition to powerful, speedy, big locomotives, we have luxurious Pullmans, coaches, and sleepers. There are private cars, opulently furnished, owned by private individuals. The diners serve people with meals, while buffet cars supply them with light lunches. There are staterooms in the Pullmans. Many trains have observation cars at the end of the train with books, magazines, writing material, and the like. Some are even provided with small barber shops and manicure parlors. Every comfort and luxury a person could wish for is provided now by the railroads.



Courtesy Pullman Co.

LONG DISTANCE TRAVEL TODAY.

The Pullman cars make it possible for one to travel at night with reasonable comfort. In the daytime a sleeper looks like this.

Do you think these luxurious services are of much benefit to people in general? Who pays for them?

98. Street Railways and Interurban Lines. — Large communities must have some means of transportation from one section to another. The railroads could not possibly perform this service because they could not reach all parts of the city. For this reason, as we have seen, street railways have developed.

The first cars were very small, crude affairs drawn by horses. Candles furnished the light, and in order to keep

the people warm in winter, straw was piled up as high as their knees. These cars sometimes charged ten cents up hill and five cents down. Cable cars succeeded the horse cars. They were drawn by means of cables, moved by powerful engines. These were long used in a few cities, such as Kansas City and San Francisco, on steep hills.

In 1886, the electric car began to be used. This has proved by far the most satisfactory, and electric railways



THE SULLIVAN SQUARE TERMINAL, BOSTON.

You see both subway and surface cars here. The handling of traffic in the rush hours of the morning and evening at such places is a serious problem.

are now universal. In our large cities, there are large trolley cars, capable of accommodating many people, and running at short intervals throughout the day. There are many lines, making it possible to reach any section of the city from any other part, and enabling thousands of working people to live in pleasant districts, and go to work every morning.

When an electric road runs some distance between one

populous community and another, we often call it an inter-urban line. Such lines are of great value to the country people as well as those who live in the large towns served by the roads. These lines carry both passengers and freight. They often take milk and other foodstuffs into the cities. People can live in the country and still be convenient to the city because the interurban car lines generally make fast time.

The subway cars of a few large cities are big and heavy, and travel in trains of six or eight, at a high speed. These cars make few stops, and enable people to reach their destinations quickly. Elevated trains also make very good time, for, although they stop frequently, the stops are far enough apart to enable the trains to travel fast between stops.

99. **Keeping Railroads as Our Servants.** — Railroads, telephones, and the like, because they are used by so many people, and communities learn to depend upon them for certain services, are called *public utilities*. Control of such public utilities by the government is necessary, because the men who manage them hold the very life of hundreds of communities in their hands. Besides, these businesses tend to become monopolies. A *monopoly* means such a complete control of any enterprise or product by one person or group of persons that no one else can successfully engage in the same business unless the monopolist consents.

When a group of men monopolize any public utility, the public must put up with any kind of service they choose to give, unless some restriction is laid upon them. One railroad frequently occupies the only suitable route between one community and other. Often, too, while one railroad or telephone company can make a good profit in one section, if two of them tried it in the same district, both would go into bankruptcy.

Public utilities commonly have to obtain a *franchise* before they are allowed to do business. This is a grant of

power or privilege made by a government to an individual or a corporation. When public utilities, as the street railways, were first being used, the people were so glad to have a company establish them that they were willing to give it any powers it desired. Franchises were often given for 99 years, or even forever, and sometimes without any compensation whatever. A franchise is considered in law as a contract, and our national Constitution says that no state shall pass any law "impairing the obligation of a contract." Now a contract can not be set aside unless it has been broken by one of the parties concerned. In some cases railroad companies really have the public in their power because of the easy franchises they have obtained years ago.

Nowadays communities sometimes try to avoid such evils by providing in the franchise that a railroad or railway system can be bought and taken over by the government or municipality for a reasonable sum of money, and by granting the franchise for not more than twenty-five years. Some cities also ask for a part of the profits, or some other form of payment.

One agency for controlling public utilities is the Interstate Commerce Commission. This was established by act of Congress in 1887, to regulate and supervise the railroads running in more than one state. Its power has since been greatly extended. It deals now with telephone and telegraph companies, express companies, sleeping car companies, and oil pipe lines, as well as with railroads. It is a very important branch of the national government because such an enormous amount of business is done by the companies which it supervises. All rates charged by them must be approved by this Commission before they go into effect. It requires reports of accidents to be made, receives complaints in regard to violation of law by the companies, and in every way looks out for the welfare of the public.

The Interstate Commerce Commission can regulate only the commerce between states—it has no authority what-

ever over any utility entirely within a state. But most states have commissions with the same kind of supervision over *intrastate* utilities—that is, over such business wholly within one state. These are usually called Public Service Commissions, or Public Utilities Commissions, and are of great value to the people of their states.

Has anything occurred recently in your community or state that raised the question of franchise rights? What matters of general interest has your state Public Service Commission or the Interstate Commerce Commission been considering?

100. **Problems of Public Utilities Today.** — Some people believe that these great public utilities should be owned and operated by the government. In many European countries, most of them are managed by the government, including railroads, telephones, and telegraphs. One or two American cities own a street railway system, but this plan is much more common in Europe.

On the question of government ownership, there is much to be said on both sides. There are several ways of managing utilities. (1) One is private ownership with government supervision, which is what we have generally now. (2) During the Great War we had in this country government operation of railroads for some time, and the telephones and telegraphs for a shorter period, with their ownership remaining in private hands. This arrangement was made so that they could be used most readily in doing the business of the war, but it is perhaps a less desirable relationship than any of the others. (3) Another plan is public ownership with private operation, such as in part is the case in the subways of New York City. (4) And still another is complete government ownership and operation.

Those who believe in government ownership say, among other things: (1) It would do away with the expense of competition and keep the rates steady. Public utilities usually are better conducted as monopolies than otherwise, but it is dangerous to have such monopolies in private hands.

(2) If the government owned these utilities, it would be free from the corrupting influence in politics of the wealth possessed by their owners. It could no longer be said, as it has been said sometimes, that railroads spent their money to elect public officers who would "be good" to them. (3) The rates could be reduced, if the government did not wish to run the roads at a profit; or, if it preferred to do so, it



Courtesy of Pittsburgh Railways Company
OLD STYLE STREET CARS.

Note the horse car and the cable car. These have long ago been displaced by the electric car.

could make money out of their operation and use it to reduce taxes.

On the other hand, those who are not in favor of government ownership say: (1) The railroads now have competition, and competition is the life of trade. (2) If the government were to take over the railroads and other public utilities, it would have to pay a large sum of money for

them, and since the roads would not be run for profit, there would be a great public debt. (3) Politics would enter into the matter, and officials would be appointed without regard to their ability.

This is a question that will have to come before the public some day for settlement. But it is not likely that government ownership and operation of railroads, at least, will be considered seriously in this country for some time.

Railroads to-day are finding themselves in considerable difficulty in regard to finance. The war raised the cost of everything they have to buy, just as it did the cost of our food and clothes. At the same time it was not possible to give proper attention to keeping the roads in first-class condition when every effort was directed toward moving troops and supplies. At the close of the war, more repairs than usual therefore had to be made, in spite of the higher prices of materials.

Naturally the first step the railroads want to take is to get more money by raising the rates for carrying passengers and freight. But the public does not like to have such rates increased. Immediately the Interstate Commerce Commission or State Public Service Commission has a problem on its hands. It must decide whether the railroads' request is reasonable, and, whichever way it rules, it will displease somebody. The public, however, simply must sometimes be willing to pay higher fares if it is going to insist on having all the conveniences which the railroads could afford to give when prices were lower. But if railroad rates are very high, people will not travel or ship goods any more than they need to, and the road's business will suffer.

Street railways have often been completely "up against it." They could not pay higher wages to their employees, and higher prices for cars, rails, and everything else, unless they could get more money through higher fares. But if they raised the fares too much, it became about as cheap and much more comfortable to ride in an automobile. The

so-called "jitney bus" took much of their business away. Other people would walk rather than pay a ten-cent fare. In a number of cases, the roads simply quit trying, sold their wires, track, and other equipment, and went out of business.

In some communities they have been managed dishonestly or unwisely, with bad results to their prosperity.



A DOUBLE DECKER STREET CAR.

The streets of this city are too narrow to accommodate properly all the traffic that has to use them.

Oftentimes, though, the public has not understood the real difficulties of operation. Street railways in a hilly district, for example, cost more to operate than in a level district. A fare which is reasonable in one place may therefore be unfair in another. We ought to be open to the truth in this matter as in all others, and seek simply the square deal for our companies and for ourselves.

The Passenger Car and the Motor Truck 201

Are the street railways in your community municipally controlled, or managed by private owners? What are the terms of their franchises? Are your people satisfied with the way they are operated?

101. **The Passenger Car and the Motor Truck.** — The automobile is one of the newest and most important agencies for transportation. The manufacture of automobiles has increased enormously in the last few years, and now most



Courtesy Portland Cement Association
CONSTRUCTING A CONCRETE ROAD.

This road is near Fowler, Arizona. Most of the work of this kind of road construction is now done by machinery.

people who can afford it, and some who can not, own one or more. Like the street cars, automobiles enable people to live a greater distance from their work. They are a very rapid means of communication between parts of a great city. Most cities have boulevards that are used exclusively by automobiles, and the parks and driveways are crowded with “machine”-loads of pleasure seekers.

Besides passenger cars there are the big heavy trucks that have come to be so indispensable in the business world. Horses and wagons are very rapidly being displaced by auto-trucks for delivery purposes. They are much quicker and cleaner than the horses and wagons, and can carry more. Enormous trucks carry lumber, gravel, bricks, and stone for building construction. Trucks bring produce and milk from the country, and trucks deliver goods from grocery and department stores to our homes. In the Great War, the army trucks that traveled across the country in large numbers and those which were used by the "S.O.S." and the Red Cross over in France rendered an invaluable service to our nation.

The auto-truck, however, has made road-building more of a problem than ever. The automobilist wants fine, smooth roads which the public must be taxed to build and maintain. Then along come the trucks, often overloaded, and pound the costly roadbed to pieces, carving out deep and dangerous ruts. There are laws in many states forbidding trucks to carry more than a certain number of tons of freight, but these laws are difficult to enforce.

Can you suggest any remedy for this particular road problem?

Are roads more or less important today than one hundred years ago? fifty years? ten years?

Is the jitney bus a nuisance or a blessing?

102. **Travel in the Air.** — At last men are flying. As long as we know about them, they have been able to move on land and water, and now they have partly mastered the air. Among the foremost of those who risked themselves to experiment in this field were the Wright brothers of Ohio. The names of the Frenchmen Ader and Farman also stand out prominently.

During the war, airplanes and airships of all kinds were used extensively in dropping bombs, in scouting, and in actual combat above the earth. They have not, as yet, come into common use for travel and trade. But it is

predicted that in the future there will be as many airplanes as there are automobiles today. At present, however, most people either **cannot** afford airplanes or are afraid of them.

Already they are used for carrying mail between large cities. They travel very fast, and it does not take long for mail carried in this way to reach its destination. In 1919, a British "dirigible" made a flight across the Atlantic with-



Courtesy Air Service

A DE HAVILAND AIRPLANE.

out stopping, suggesting the time when freight and passengers may be regularly carried in that way, but it will doubtless be a good many years before the airship will relieve railroads and steamships of much of their burden.

If you have never ridden in a airplane, ask someone who has done so the sensations he felt. Will the element of great danger always be present in air travel?

103. Opportunities for Water Traffic. — Although the railroad has simplified the matter of transportation in many ways, water transportation still holds a place of great importance, and could be of much greater service than it is.

For the benefit of navigation, many improvements are being made. Every year Congress appropriates large sums of money for the purpose of widening and deepening rivers and harbors. Sometimes, unfortunately, this money has been wasted on streams that are almost dry part of the year. The River and Harbor bill was often nicknamed the "pork barrel," because so many Congressmen tried to get some money, or "pork," to be used in their districts, whether it was needed or not. The national government has established a *coast survey* which sees that all channels



Courtesy Department of Wharves, Docks, and Ferries, Philadelphia
VESSELS AT ANCHOR IN THE DELAWARE RIVER.

A considerable variety of water craft appear in this picture. Some use sails and some use steam.

and dangerous points are charted for the guidance of seamen. Lighthouses, buoys, and the like are also maintained for the safety of ships at sea.

Canals are still of importance, although not so necessary as they seemed when they were first constructed. The successful completion of the Panama Canal, which was built by the United States at a cost of about \$400,000,000, shortens the voyage from New York to San Francisco by about 8,000 miles. It joins the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and is one of the most wonderful engineering feats ever accomplished.

Many believe that the construction of more canals within the country would be a great help to business. Much freight which is not perishable could be carried just as readily by water, even though it takes longer, and this would relieve some of the strain on the railroads. A series of canals that would serve as an inland water route parallel to the Atlantic Coast has been planned, and in part constructed.

New York State has spent more than \$50,000,000 recently developing its Barge Canal, but has not been very successful in getting people to use it. Another new waterway, much talked of but not yet dug, is the proposed canal from Pittsburgh to Lake Erie, which might carry a considerable part of the enormous amount of iron ore, coal, and manufactured iron, that goes in or out of Pittsburgh.



THE POSTMAN COLLECTING LETTERS.

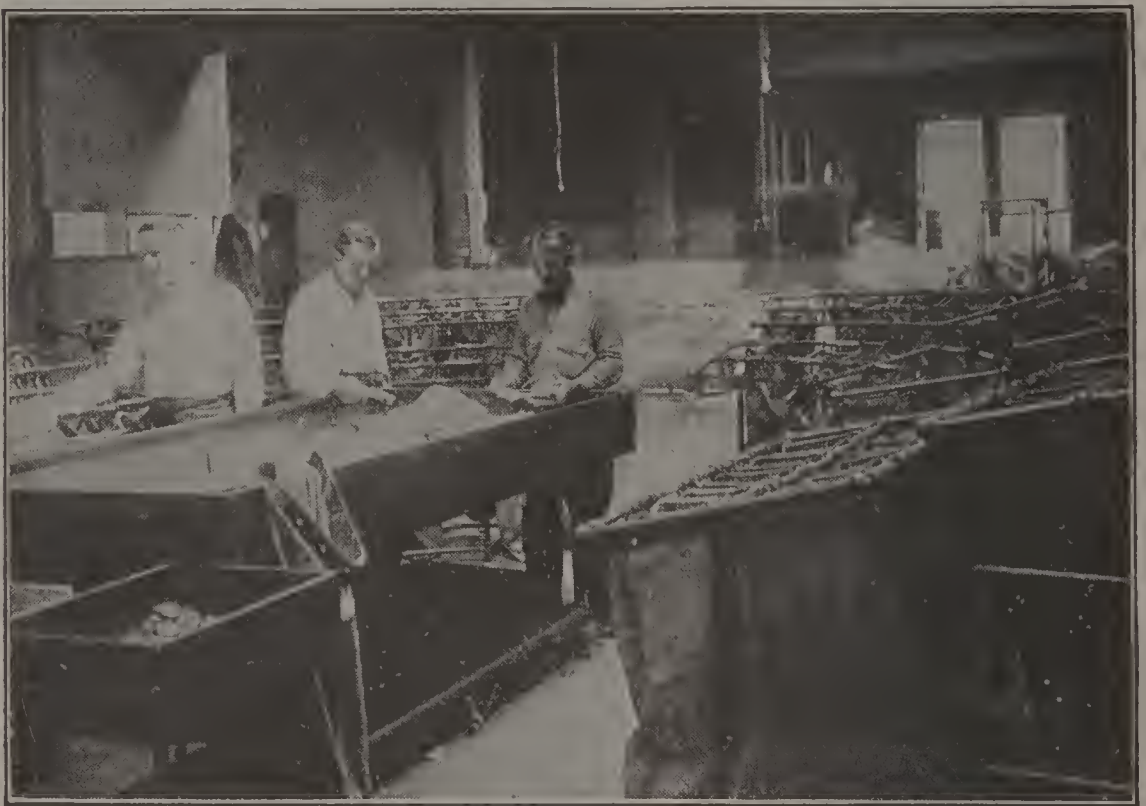
Make a list of ten things which could readily be carried by water; of ten which could not.

What interests or influences in a community might be opposed to canals? Why?

104. **The Postal Service.** — One of the public servants whom we all know is the postman. He comes to our homes once, twice, or perhaps even more times a day and delivers letters, papers, periodicals, and the like, and he collects the mail from the boxes and takes it to the nearest post office. In the country districts, the rural carrier, who

comes around once a day, takes the place of the postman. If we live in a village, we probably have to go to the post office for our mail, and meet the postmaster himself or one of his clerks.

The Postmaster General is at the head of the Post Office Department, and is a member of the President's cabinet. He has several assistants, and the work of his department is done through many divisions and bureaus. It takes 300,000 employees to handle the mail, and 20,000,000,000



DISTRIBUTING THE MAILS IN A CITY POST OFFICE.

These clerks are sorting parcel-post packages.

pieces of mail pass through their hands every year. The nations of the world are united in the Universal Postal Union and have arrangements for the sending of all kinds of mail to all quarters of the globe.

Stamps are cancelled and the mail sorted in the local post offices and started on its journey to various parts of the country. Speed and accuracy are important elements in the postal service. Motor trucks carry the mail between

the post offices and the stations. Pneumatic tubes and belts carry the mail bags from one part of the city post office to another.

Swift trains take the mail to its destination. At stations where the train does not stop, the mail bag is hung out by the track, and a railway clerk catches the bag as the train passes. To conserve time further, the mail is sorted on the train. The clerks must be familiar with the location of thousands of post offices throughout the country. They are very speedy and accurate in their work. Some clerks have put letters in their respective pigeon-holes at a rate of one letter a second.

The Post Office Department also carries on Postal Savings Banks, where people may deposit money at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent interest, with Uncle Sam as their banker. Many people who do not trust other banks are willing to deposit their money with the United States government. During the war, and since, the post office has done a very important work by selling Thrift Stamps and War Savings Stamps, to help supply our government with money to aid in carrying on the war. On this money the government pays four and one fourth per cent. interest.

In spite of the care taken with letters, there is a risk in sending money through the mails. So in order to insure the safe receipt of money, the post office issues money orders. These are a sort of check that may be obtained for a small fee, and which may safely be transported through the mails. A parcel-post service is also carried on, by which packages may be shipped through the mail. The country is divided into zones, and the amount charged for sending a package depends upon its weight and the distance it has to go.

In order to prevent fraud and swindling through the mails, the post office maintains a corps of inspectors to discover cheaters and see that they are punished. In this way the post office offers protection to the public.

The big business man sends letters by the score every day. The boy away from home can write to his mother and get messages from her. Friends separated by the width of a continent keep in touch with each other. Newspapers and magazines come to us at regular intervals from their publishers. Things to wear and even things to eat are brought to us through the post offices. It is a wonderful



A COUNTRY HIGHWAY IN MID-WINTER.

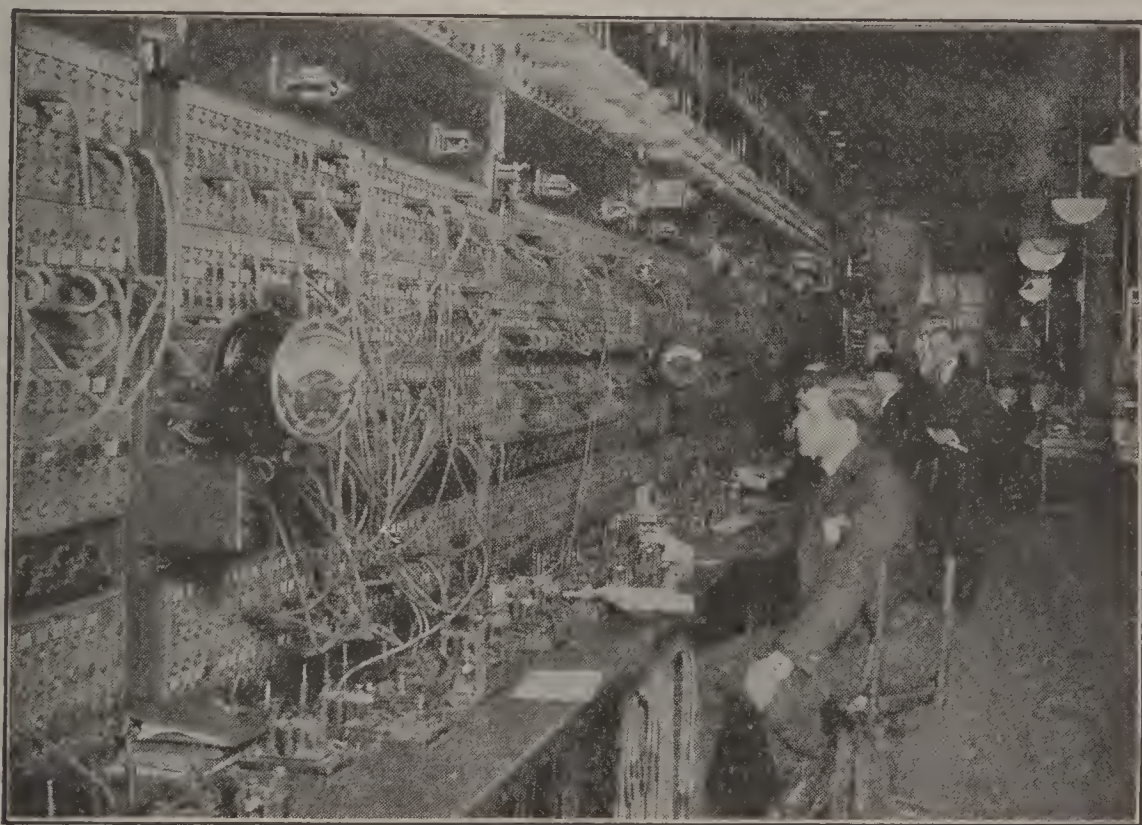
The rural street railway and the road commissioners both have work on their hands when a big snow-storm comes.

example of what a government may do for its people. Only by some such experience as being out in the country when the snowdrifts are piled so that the carrier can not get through for days, can we be made to appreciate how much we depend upon the service which the post office renders to us. Then we realize a little of what this great element of welfare—communication and transportation—means in our modern life.

Find from your post office or from some reference book the rates charged on the different kinds of mail matter. Test your classmates, imagining that you are sending five letters or packages of various weights, and get them to tell you the cost of postage.

Post offices are not all alike. If you have time to spare, study the regulations which determine how post offices are classified, and how the postmaster's salary is fixed.

105. **The Telegraph and Telephone.** — Some of us use the telephone many times as often as we use the mail. It has a place in every business house, and in thousands of



IN THE CABLE ROOM OF A GREAT TELEGRAPH OFFICE.

This enormous switchboard looks very complex but so carefully has it been planned that any wire connected with it can be located in a few seconds.

homes in city, village, and country. The modern business man would become nervous and anxious if he had to send a letter about every business transaction, or even to wait for his office boy to go with a message and return. By means of the telephone he can talk to somebody in another part of the city or even on the other side of the continent, with

less trouble, perhaps, than to hunt up in the same office building. The use of the telephone has saved life and property by summoning the fire department or a doctor or an ambulance, and may have prevented panics and business disasters.

This wonderful invention we owe chiefly to Alexander Graham Bell. Fifty years ago it was unknown. But today the Bell Telephone Company alone has 24,000,000 miles of wire, and 12,000,000 telephones in use, and there are a number of other small companies.

The telegraph is used very extensively when messages must travel quickly but when conversation is not necessary. The telegraph, too, is more expensive. Much business is transacted by means of the telegraph, and a number of business houses and newspapers have private wires by which they communicate with branch houses or correspondents in other places. The telegraph companies allow long messages to be sent by night letters, which cost less than the day rate, and are delivered the next morning. In this country most of the telegraph lines belong to either the Western Union or the Postal Telegraph system. In Europe, the telegraph and telephones are virtually a part of the government's postal services in most countries, and our government took the systems over during the war. The name of Samuel F. B. Morse means about the same to us in connection with the telegraph that Bell's does with the telephone.

What does the Weather Bureau owe to the telegraph?

The name of Cyrus W. Field is linked with the first successful laying of an ocean cable. Now these undersea cables cross almost every large body of water. They have been of the greatest importance in binding the countries of the world together and uniting them into one great community.

The wireless was perfected by Marconi, an Italian, in 1896. Messages are now sent for a distance of 1,000 miles

at a rate of 100 words a minute. The wireless renders a wonderful service to ships at sea. It enables them to send messages to other ships and to land, and in case of an accident they can call for help. It has saved so many lives that ships are now required to be provided with a wireless apparatus and operator. The wireless telephone was perfected in 1906 by Professor Fessenden. It enables people to talk long distances without any wires. Now the radio set has its place in thousands of homes. Concerts and speeches are heard hundreds of miles away. Both uses of the wireless—telegraph and telephone—were very valuable in army work. A man in an airplane, for example, could send a message to some one on the ground though he himself was thousands of feet in the air.

106. Collecting and Distributing the News.

--All these means of communication that we have discussed are used in collecting news from all over the world, and distributing it to us through the newspapers in our community. We may not realize what an agency the newspapers are in keeping us in touch with the vital matters that are going on.

The newspapers employ reporters who are active in their own communities, and some of them have special correspondents from all over the world. The reporters and photog-



International

WIRELESS STATION.

This great station at Sayville, Long Island, has sent and received many thousands of messages across the Atlantic.

raphers are usually among the first of a crowd to arrive at a fire or an accident, and they seem to be always near when an arrest is made. They attend public meetings and take speeches down in shorthand. Every means possible is used to get this news to the people without a moment's delay, so that the news that we see in print may be the latest that can be obtained.

In order that all papers, the large and the small, may



THE VILLAGE POST OFFICE, SUGAR HILL, NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Country post offices can often combine a grocery or stationery business with the postal service. The salary of a country postmaster would sometimes not keep a healthy man alive.

obtain full, accurate news of all that goes on in the world, organizations such as the Associated Press and United Press have been formed. Instead of each separate paper's having special reporters, the news associations have correspondents in every community of importance. They send to the headquarters of their association reports of various events, and then these reports are wired to all the papers which have arranged to get this service. These organiza-

tions try to be entirely disinterested in political matters, and the articles obtained from them are as unbiased and accurate as one can hope to get. Here is a fine example of the way coöperation promotes progress. In no other way could we bring such thoroughness and efficiency to the work of collecting and distributing the news.

Make a list of all the means by which news is circulated. Discuss the importance and trustworthiness of each.

107. **Responsibility for Good Service.** — As usual let us list the public officials who have to do with this great element of welfare. Many of them have already been mentioned in connection with Community Planning.

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Mayor	Governor	President
Department of Public Works	Department of Highways	Post Office Department
Bureau of Highways	Public Service Commission	Postmaster General
		Local postmaster and employees
County Commissioners		Interstate Commerce Commission
County Engineer or Surveyor		
Street Commissioner or Supervisor		

Adapt this plan to your own state and locality.

Upon these public officials rests great responsibility. Many of them have direct charge of constructing or operating some of the means of communication and transportation. Others have the particular duty of seeing that the managers of public utilities obey the laws, and, on the other hand, that all such companies receive a square deal. The officials should look out for the interests of the public and see that the people are not abused because of their absolute dependence upon the public utilities. Special responsibility in this connection rests on the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Public Service Commissions.

But we must not put the whole burden for good service on these officials. The managers and those in charge of public utilities should adhere strictly to the terms of their contracts and franchises. They should not exercise arbitrary power, even though they may be in a position to do so, and they should serve the best interests of the community. They generally have been given special privileges by it, and owe special service in return. They shape the policies of their business, and can make it popular or disliked, helpful or merely profitable.

The employees, too, have a great deal to do with the kind of service rendered by the public utilities. For instance, street railway crews in one city were accused of playing chess at the end of a car line, while the people waiting for the cars fussed and railed at the railways company for the poor service. The employees can be courteous and patient and should know as much as they can learn about the business with which they are connected. They have a duty both to their employers and the public.

Have employees on a railroad the right to quit work any time they please?

Although the individual citizen can not usually make street cars go faster or more regularly, nor decide how much he will pay, still there is something he can do. Often he can coöperate with other citizens and arouse public opinion so as to bring about improvements. He can show his approval of good service as well as his disapproval of bad service.

There is another side to this business, too. Most of us are familiar with the condition of street cars in the busy hours. At both ends and by the doors, the people are packed in, while there may be plenty of room in the middle of the car, and in spite of the conductor's "Move up front, please!" the people stay just where they are, and make it almost impossible for any one to get on or off the car.

Often it is necessary to have a little patience when using

the telephone, but this virtue is seldom seen. If the telephone operators roared at us as some of us do at them, we should be very indignant, and probably complain to the chief operator immediately. It is another matter in which we must coöperate.

When is it a person's duty to complain of poor service? How should he go about it?

How can a citizen help to make the work of the post office easier and better?



TRAVEL ON THE MISSISSIPPI YEARS AGO.

The flat boats and the vessels using both sails and steam for motive power have virtually disappeared from use. The picture is copied from an old school geography.

108. **The Movements of Our People.**—We have already spoken of the immigration of the foreigner to our country, but there is also a great, continuous movement within the country. For this the development of our means of communication and transportation is largely responsible.

The great westward movement in the nineteenth century is one of the biggest facts in our history. It would be hard to tell why so many people moved. Perhaps it was due to the “wanderlust” that we all possess to some ex-

tent. We all know the difficulties that these early pioneers had to overcome. Now we can travel comfortably and easily to any part of our country. If it were not for the railroad, the telephone and telegraph, the automobile, and the postal service, our western land would not be nearly so advanced and well populated as it is.

There are many motives today which prompt migration—climate, better employment, business, pleasure, or a desire simply to move or travel. Migration makes people progressive. If we stay in one place all the time, we may become narrow-minded, backward, and selfish. If we move around, we see people and places, and we hear other ideas and opinions. We are alive. People who travel all the time, however, who never stay in one place for long, miss a certain indefinable something in their lives. They do not grow to be a part of any community, to realize its interests, or serve its needs, or receive its benefits.

The “mobility” of labor, that is, the unceasing change and movement of the working people, is an important feature in industry. It makes the wages higher, because, in order to keep his men, an employer must pay them high enough wages so that they will not be attracted to work in other cities, or with another employer. Some laborers travel “light,” and can move easily from one place to another. If one is not satisfied with his work or his employer, he can go to another place to work without much trouble, unless he has a large family.

A serious problem that our country is facing today is that the farmer can not get help to do the farm work. The census of 1920 shows that more and more people are migrating from the country to the cities. There are more people to feed, and fewer to produce food. It is true, agricultural machinery has done wonders for those who farm on a large scale, because it does the work of many men in a part of the time. But there must be men to operate the machines. Yet very few are willing to work in the

country because the wages are usually not so high as in the cities, and there are fewer means of entertainment.

Have you ever moved? How often, and why? Do you think migration has any benefits that have not been mentioned?

109. **Incomers from Abroad.** — The motives that prompt foreigners to come to this country are sometimes different from those which cause migration within the country, and sometimes very similar. Many foreigners come here for employment. They know that higher wages are paid here than in their native country, and they want to lay up wealth. Others have heard that America is a land of opportunity, of advancement, and of democracy, and so they come. Some foreigners have relatives who have come to this country, and send back such glowing accounts of wealth and equality that they immediately want to leave the home country and come here. They gaze almost with reverence at the torch of the Statue of Liberty when they come into the great harbor, but somehow, it does not always seem to shine so brightly after they have been here a while. America is not Heaven.

The effects of immigration are not altogether desirable. Foreigners often live in overcrowded sections of the cities, where all sorts of disease and crime exist and spread. As we have already noticed, a great many of them never become Americanized in thought and customs, although they may become citizens in name. But the foreigners do manual labor which most Americans do not want to do, and in this way they have an important part in the country's industry.

Our immigration laws are more strict than they used to be. Foreigners are now required to be able to read in some language before they may come into this country. Every immigrant must pay a "head tax" of four dollars, and no one is admitted who seems to the officials "likely to become a public charge." Anarchists and people with dangerous diseases are also excluded.

We must find some way to distribute the immigrants after they arrive, else they will go to those parts of our cities which are already overcrowded, and increase the burden on their community. People from other countries will probably keep on coming here, and we usually find some work for them to do. If we are tempted to think harshly of them or to look down upon them, it might be well for us to



Copyright, Boston Photo News Co.

THE COMING OF THE IMMIGRANTS.

This is a scene on the steerage deck of a vessel that has just arrived from Europe.

remember that unless our ancestors were Indians they were immigrants themselves at one time.

As soon as the fighting of the Great War was over, and the people in European countries realized what a task was before them in the way of rebuilding their lands and homes, thousands of them undertook to come to the United States. But as business was becoming less active here, we did not seem to need so many newcomers. Some of our Congressmen became very much alarmed, and an act was passed

which forbade the admission in one year from any country of more than three per cent of the number of immigrants from that country who were here in 1910. The quota was reduced to two per cent on the basis of the 1890 census by the Act of 1924.

Let each member of the class trace his "family tree" back to his great-grandparents, and then tabulate the results by nationalities. Find out the percentage of ancestors belonging to the nations most largely represented.

QUESTIONS

What means of travel existed a century and a quarter ago? How do modern facilities for transportation benefit the world? How many kinds of industries could exist today without modern transportation? How does modern transportation affect city and country life?

What were the earliest types of highways in the United States? How were they supported? What means of travel by water existed in George Washington's days? What did Robert Fulton do for the world? How did canals influence the early history of this country?

Describe the first railroads in the United States. Trace the development of railroad systems in the United States. What improvements in railroad transportation have been made in recent years? Sketch the development of the street car system. What is an interurban line? Define *public utilities*, *monopoly*, and *franchise*. How does each of these terms apply to a railroad? What is the Interstate Commerce Commission? How do states regulate railroads?

What ways of managing public utilities have been tried? Give the principal arguments in favor of government ownership; against government ownership. What financial problems have vexed the railroads in late years? Why have street railways had financial difficulty?

How are the automobile and the motor truck influencing transportation? Discuss the accomplishments of air travel. Name varieties of waterways that exist. What was the "pork barrel"? What improvements in water transportation are being considered?

Outline the work of the post office department. By what means is the mail carried? What does the post office department do besides carry mail?

Explain the significance of the names Bell, Morse, Marconi, and Field. Give facts that show the importance of the telephone and telegraph today. Of what special service is the wireless? the ocean cable? What is the Associated Press? How does it operate?

To what extent are public officers responsible for the operation of

public utilities? How are the employees responsible? Are the public to blame when they do not get good service?

Define migration. Why do people move? What are the effects of the mobility of labor? How does migration affect farm life? Why do foreigners come to the United States? Mention the principal effects of their coming. State the principal features of our immigration laws.

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Great Railroad Systems of the United States.

The Experiences of a Letter.

The Troubles of the Railroad in Winter.

Great Inventors Who Have Helped Communication.

The Trials of Cyrus W. Field.

How a Telephone Exchange is Managed.

The Life of a Train Dispatcher.

Resolved, that the United States government should own and operate the railroads.

The Public Service Commission of Our State.

The Interstate Commerce Commission and What It Has Done.

Great Railroad Kings.

The Making of a Newspaper.

Rescues by Wireless.

What Our Community Owes To the Railroad.

Travel and Transportation in Washington's Day.

Travel and Transportation in Jackson's Day.

Travel and Transportation in Lincoln's Day.

Things We Ought to Know About Our Local Post Office.

Classifications of Post Offices.

Civil Service Examinations.

The History of Our Local Street Railway System.

Freighting By Motor Truck.

A Modern Ocean Liner.

National Highways.

Flying in War Time.

Future Travel in the Air.

The Life of a Newspaper Reporter.

Why Men Went West.

Our Immigration Laws.

Why Foreigners Come.

CHAPTER VIII

LAYING UP WEALTH

Blessed is he who has found his work; let him ask no other blessedness.
—Carlyle.

110. **What Does It Mean to Be Wealthy?** — Wealth is mainly an economic problem—that is, it concerns directly the earning of a living or the conduct of business. Students in high school or college often spend a whole year discussing it under the name of economics, and even then make just a beginning of understanding it. But it has a place with the elements of welfare because it is an essential to the well-being of every community and to the progress of the country. We shall therefore take a little time to discuss some of the relations of wealth to the local community and to the nation.

But what is wealth? It is not merely money, for if we could not buy clothes, food, and other things, all the money in the world would not do us any good. Money is valuable only as a means of exchange for other things. Wealth is the amount of material things—that is, the things that can be measured by money, in the possession of an individual or a community. To be “wealthy,” therefore, is generally considered as meaning the possession of an abundance of the things which help to satisfy our desires.

Unfortunately, brains, knowledge, character, and other qualities of the mind and heart, can not be classed under wealth. They are exceedingly desirable possessions, and help mightily toward real success. But because they can

not be measured by a standard of value, such as money, we have to omit them from this discussion.

Are these wealth; base balls, books, strawberries, watch fobs, carbon paper, oratory?

111. **Why Do We Want Wealth?**—Almost all of us have a desire for wealth to some extent, though not everybody craves great riches. But the motives back of this



THE VILLAGE STORE.

This store-keeper does not seem to be very busy, yet he makes a comfortable living.

desire are by no means always the same. Our desire may be chiefly to possess the necessities of life—the things that every one must have in order to keep alive. Most of us, however, want some comforts and luxuries beyond mere necessities. We may have, in part, an altruistic motive, a desire to obtain wealth to use for helping others. Many people want wealth so that they may provide something as a sort of financial umbrella in case of a “rainy day,” as we sometimes say. Other people want the social standing and

prestige which they think wealth can give them. A few, perhaps, strive for wealth just for the selfish pleasure of thinking that they have it, or of sensing the power of being able to gather it. There are perhaps as many reasons as there are people, for each of us is prompted by a motive or combination of motives that may not influence anybody else in just the same way.

Would you like to be wealthy? Why? What would you do if you had as much money as Henry Ford? Give examples of classes of people who, you think, are inspired mainly by each of the motives mentioned here. What combinations of motives might influence various people?

112. **Public Wealth and Private Wealth.** — A community as well as a person may be wealthy. Public wealth comprises streets, parks, public buildings, libraries, schools, and the like, and land not occupied by private individuals. The national government's wealth consists of the national parks, the navigable rivers and waterways within the country, the land belonging to it, as well as the money in its possession, and the Capitol, the White House, and many custom houses, post offices, and similar buildings in all parts of the country. Public wealth is generally used for the benefit of everybody in the community. These buildings, land, and the like which are owned by the whole community may be called *public property*, in contrast with the things owned by private citizens or companies, which we know as *private property*.

Private wealth belongs to individuals or corporations and is controlled by them, as long as they do not interfere with the rights of others in using it. It enables them to have more than a mere existence, to improve themselves by travel, reading, and right recreation, and to get more pleasure out of life. Best of all, if they will only use it rightly, it gives those who possess it the chance to make the community in which they live and the people who live after them happier and better.

Wealth, therefore, does a great deal of good for the community in many ways. The government taxes the people in order to accumulate money to provide the community and those who live in it with means for improvement. It establishes and maintains schools, keeps up parks for the recreation of the people, and provides playgrounds for the children. The streets are paved and repaired by the use of money from the public treasury, and these make transportation much easier than it would otherwise be.

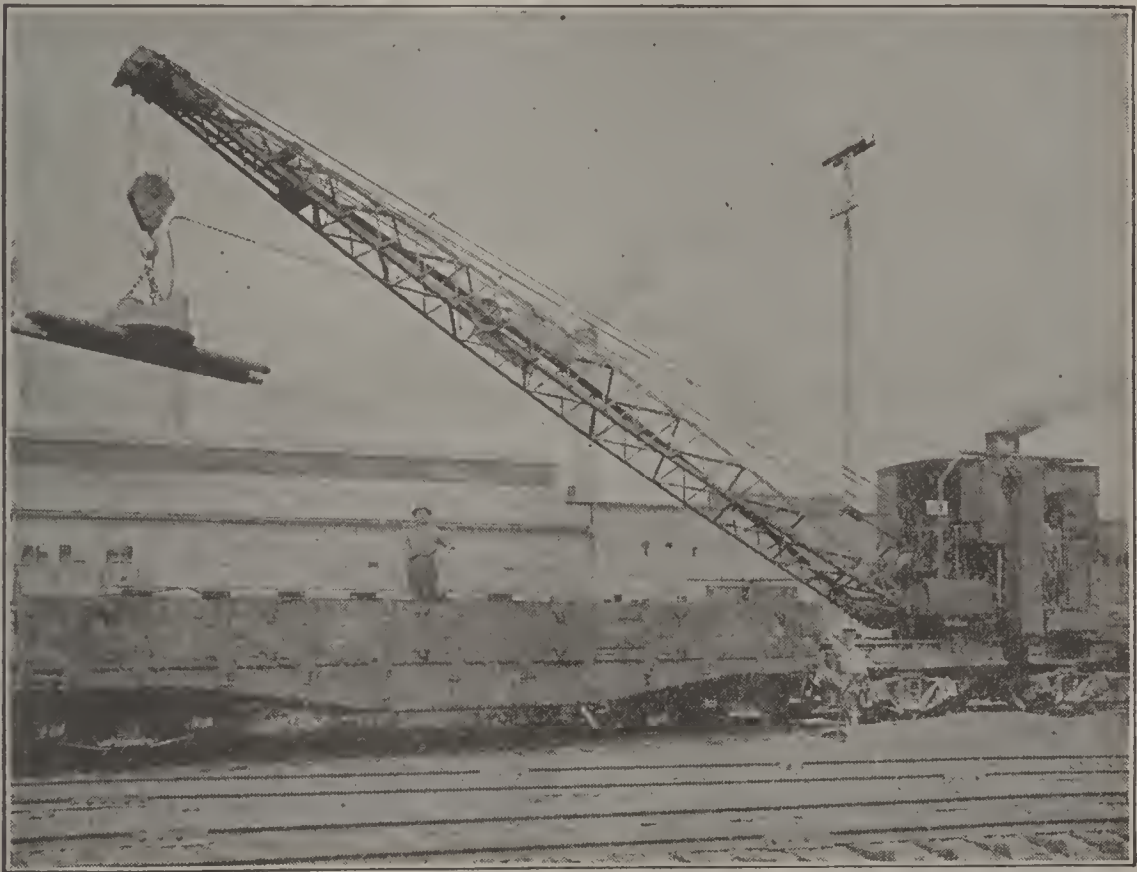
Wealthy individuals have also done much good in similar ways. They have endowed libraries, museums, and colleges. Many people could not or would not give freely of their own private means for such purposes, if their incomes were small or moderate, but the rich man can do so out of his abundance and not miss the cost. Moreover—and here is perhaps the chief excuse for accumulating wealth—thousands of large enterprises could not possibly be started without wealth in considerable abundance as a foundation. Think of the railroads, the steel mills, and the department stores. Wealth must be used freely before they can be made ready to do a single stroke of business. Wealth so used, as we shall see, is called capital.

113. **The Process of Getting Wealth.** — The foundation of a country's wealth, and incidentally of the wealth of the people living in the country, is its *natural resources*. The timber, the waterways, the oil, gas, and minerals, the fertile soil, and the like, are all sources from which wealth is derived. When a country has great natural resources, its people usually become rich.

But that these resources may be of the greatest service, they must be prepared for the people's use, and this involves *labor*. Coal, gold, silver, copper, and the like must be mined, timber must be cut in various sizes, the soil must be cultivated, the rivers and harbors kept in condition for navigation, and desert land reclaimed. All this work takes a

multitude of laborers. And when we speak of laborers, we must consider not only manual labor—that actually done with the hands—but mental labor, which is just as important. Our great industries could not exist without laborers, both of hand and of brain.

A third factor, equally necessary to modern life, is capital. *Capital* is that part of the products of past industry which is



Courtesy Brown Hoisting Machinery Co.

LIFTING HEAVY MATERIALS.

We have here what is really a great magnet for handling any form of iron. Do you see land, labor, and capital all employed here?

used in producing more goods. All the enterprises, big or little, must have capital. And capital need not be money. It may be factory buildings, machinery, or tools. Be sure to distinguish between wealth and capital. Homes, parks, streets, and most public wealth are not used for further production and therefore are not capital. Large industrial enterprises, mills, and even farms must have considerable capital to begin with, or they will not succeed.

Wealth, then, is obtained by making use of labor upon natural resources, and employing capital as a means of developing them. These three sources of wealth are dependent upon one another. If there is no labor, capital is of no use. If there is no capital, labor can accomplish little. Capital could not exist without natural resources to begin with, and both labor and capital depend upon natural resources for the material to work upon.

Are these capital: garden seeds, flower pots, pictures, a jack-knife, baseball bats, post offices, typewriters, electric lights, forges?

Suppose a city should be wiped out by a great fire or earthquake. Show how the different sources of wealth would be employed in rebuilding it. If no wealth had been saved up, what would the town have to do?

Take some particular commodity, as a shirt, a chair, or a shoe, and trace it back to its beginnings, showing the different sources and applications of wealth in connection with it.

114. Community Organizations to Encourage Industry.—As with the other elements of welfare, the community plays a part in promoting wealth. There are, for instance, such organizations as Chambers of Commerce and Boards of Trade. These are made up of business men who aim to promote the welfare of the community as well as their own business interests. They publish booklets and advertisements, and work through bureaus or committees, each with its particular duty to do. A National Chamber of Commerce has been formed out of those in the cities. It undertakes to obtain expressions of opinion from its members on matters of national interest, and discusses problems of labor and capital and the like.

Has your community a Chamber of Commerce or Board of Trade? What does it do?

In order to promote the interests of the various businesses, those engaged in them often form associations. We may find, for instance, a Retail Grocers' Association, a Milk Dealers' Association, the California Fruit Growers' Associa-

tion, and even a National Association of Manufacturers. When they work together in this way, with certain aims in view, they can accomplish a great deal more than an individual firm could do. Professional men, such as lawyers, doctors, and teachers, also have their associations, by means of which they can promote their especial interests and often do a great deal of good for the community.



Courtesy Ford Motor Co.

A ROOM IN THE FORD FACTORY.

What a wonderful amount of intricate machinery is needed in a place such as this!

It would be almost impossible for any individual worker to control the conditions under which he works. So in order to resist unreasonable authority on the part of employers, and to promote the welfare of workers by getting higher wages, shorter hours of labor, and the like, many laborers have formed *unions*. At first these were not very effective, but they have been steadily growing and improv-

ing their organization. Now there are unions in virtually every trade. Most of them are united under the American Federation of Labor, which is a very large and powerful organization. They have accomplished a great deal. Once a dollar a day was good pay for a man, but now the same kind of labor can often command at least four or five dollars a day. The working day has been shortened from twelve and fourteen hours to eight, and the working conditions revolutionized. The unions have undoubtedly done a great deal of good.

When workers are not satisfied with conditions, the unions may use several means to change them. *Collective bargaining* is always a feature which they emphasize. Its idea is to have the employer deal with the officials of the union only, instead of hiring each man separately. The members of the union are all expected to stand by the arrangements which their leaders make. If this method does not get what they want, the workers may *strike*, that is, refuse to work until the employer makes some concession to their demands. There is often destruction of property or even loss of life connected with a strike, though the leaders of the unions always insist that they do not encourage violence of any kind. If the quarrel is prolonged, the workers may establish a *boycott*, that is, get people to refuse to patronize their employer until he complies with their demands.

Has there ever been a strike in your community or which affected your community? What caused it? How did people in general feel about it? How much was gained or lost by it? What else are labor unions interested in besides higher wages and shorter hours?

To enable workers to find employment, and employers to find workers, employment bureaus have been established in most communities. People who want work may apply here, and when a position is found for them, they will be notified. The same is true of those who wish to obtain help. A certain amount of money is paid by one party or the other to the employment bureau.

These agencies have done an important work, but there is so much chance for them to misunderstand matters, and even misrepresent conditions, that many people do not trust them. Under the Department of Labor, our national government supports national employment bureaus in various cities. Different parts of the country are kept in touch with each other, so that employers may obtain workers, perhaps from another part of the United States, and there is little need of people's going without work in one place while employers lack workers in another. Many states and even some cities maintain similar bureaus or departments.

115. **How the Government Encourages Industry.** — Understanding the importance of sound business conditions our governments do all they can to promote industrial activity in the country. In the first place, they realize that a man can not carry on a business wisely unless he knows the conditions which affect it. They therefore distribute various kinds of information. The national Department of Labor, for instance, sends out circulars and pamphlets containing many facts about the industries of the United States, statistics about the loss in wages and dividends caused by strikes, copies of laws regulating labor, and the like. The Department of Agriculture distributes bulletins to farmers giving them advice and information about crops, getting rid of insect pests, and many other vital problems. The Weather Bureau sends out bulletins twice daily, telling the probable weather, and this helps farmers, gardeners, fishermen, and those who transport perishable goods. Our government also stations consuls in all the important foreign cities. They look out for business opportunities, study trade conditions, and make reports about matters of commercial value to this country.

The government encourages some industries in particular by means of tariffs and subsidies. A *protective tariff* is a tax collected on goods brought from foreign countries,

which makes it necessary for an importer to raise the price of foreign goods brought to this country. The home producers of these taxed articles can then charge more for their products. This encourages people to go into certain industries, whereas, if there were no tariff, they would not consider it profitable enough to do so. Many people have believed that a high protective tariff was necessary because in Europe wages were so low that foreign goods could be made and sold much more cheaply than American goods.



RIVER BOATS ON THE ALLEGHENY.

One of the many steel mills for which western Pennsylvania is famous also appears in the picture.

Others have argued that, since the protective tariff caused goods to cost more, it was better for everybody in the long run, to buy goods wherever we could get them the most cheaply, and not try to encourage industries which did not develop naturally here.

For a long time the Republican party has stood for a high protective tariff, and the Democratic for lower rates. But now the question does not seem so prominent a subject for argument as formerly. It is generally agreed among intelligent people that while some tariff is needed to protect

some of our home industries, a very high tariff is seldom necessary and in many cases would be of no benefit to anybody except a few manufacturers. A Tariff Commission has been established whose duty is to investigate conditions and make recommendations to Congress as to desirable changes in the tariff laws.

Some other governments do more than we in the way of granting subsidies to special industries. A *subsidy* is a direct gift of money from the public treasury. In this country it has been most talked about in connection with our foreign commerce, because American ships were for a long time few in number in proportion to the amount of goods which we exported and imported. During the Great War we changed our policy on this matter, and under the government's direction many ships were built, so that our "merchant marine" is now second only to Great Britain's.

We have already told how our government protects life and property and the means of travel, so it is not necessary to go over this matter again at this point. But we may rightly notice that without this protection the obtaining of wealth would be difficult. No one's savings, home, tools, or shop would be safe. Because manufacturers, farmers, and everybody else are so completely dependent upon transportation, we shall not need any argument to show us how closely related is this feature of the government's activity to the acquiring of wealth.

In another way our government gives direct aid to industry. In the city of Washington there is a Patent Office, with the Commissioner of Patents in charge. This office grants patents to inventors, giving them control of the manufacture and sale of their inventions for seventeen years. This encourages people to invent, and do something original and new. The copyrights, granted for the same reason to those who write, compose, or publish something new, have already been mentioned in connection with the Congressional Library.

In spite of everything, people will get hurt. But instead of making the worker and his family suffer all the expense and want that might result from the accident, "workmen's compensation" laws are now common. These require the employer to continue to pay a considerable portion of the workman's wages when he is out of work by reason of injuries received when he was on duty. Often he is allowed



Copyright, Harris & Ewing

THE PATENT OFFICE, WASHINGTON.

Here are kept the records and many models of the more than 1,000,000 patents granted to American inventors.

to insure them in some company that makes a business of insuring people. Sometimes the State helps to operate insurance funds. The employer really makes the people pay for this service by charging more for the things he produces, but the added cost which is then imposed on any one person is very small.

Do you think there is any danger that these laws will be abused? If so, how would you remedy the situation?

The national government pays pensions to veterans of

the army and navy. An enormous sum of money has been spent for this purpose. Private firms and companies may also pay pensions to employees after they grow too old to do hard or steady work any longer. Sometimes the employee contributes one or two per cent of his own income into a pension fund. These pensions enable people to live



Courtesy Carnegie Steel Co.

BESSEMER CONVERTERS.

There is something awe-inspiring about the big things done in the manufacture of steel, though the place where such work is done cannot look very attractive. Would you like to work here?

comfortably during the latter years of their lives after working hard for many years.

Most big business is carried on by corporations. These are organizations which, in order to obtain money to invest in some business, issue stock, and pay dividends on it if the business prospers. An immense amount of capital is used and business conducted on a large scale. In this

way, corporations sometimes gain entire control of a big industry.

Corporations sometimes form combinations called trusts. Because of these big businesses, small firms are often forced to drop out of the competition. So, in order to protect small companies, and restrain large ones from doing harm by unfair methods of business, the government passed the Sherman Anti-Trust Act in 1890. This made any "combination in restraint of trade between the states" unlawful. In 1914, the Clayton Anti-Trust Act was passed. This defined certain points more clearly in regard to the things that a corporation might or might not do. The Federal Trade Commission was also established in that year to supervise methods used by business corporations, and to make and publish reports setting forth their findings.

Our railroads and telephones are largely in the hands of a few large corporations. But the systems are so vast that they can really be managed better as they are. And although our government discourages monopolies, they often can, if properly controlled, serve the public better than wasteful competition does. The Interstate Commerce Commission and the Public Service Commissions, as we have seen, regulate utility corporations throughout the country.

The national government does not actually own many public utilities except the postal service and the Panama Canal. It can oversee and in a measure control railroads and large corporations, but the management is in the hands of private companies. During the Great War, as we have noticed, the government took over the railroads, telegraph lines, and other utilities, but at the end of the war these were returned to their owners. By a system of licenses the government also controlled the prices and sale of sugar, flour, and the like during the war.

Some people known as Socialists believe that the government's control should be greatly extended, and that it should own and manage all public utilities and other great

industries. They think that these industries concern the public welfare so vitally and directly that it is not safe to leave them in private hands. Others have proposed that the government should always undertake to fix prices for the necessities of life as it did during the war. But such ideas will not be adopted in the immediate future, and perhaps we had better leave the discussion of them until we take up the study of economics as a subject by itself.

116. Conveniences of Trade. — Another way by which our government encourages industry is so important that we must deal with it separately. We could not hope to carry on the industry and business of this country unless we had some medium of exchange—that is, something that could be accepted anywhere by people who had something to dispose of. If we did not have money for this purpose, a man who wanted a new suit and had a horse to trade, would have to find a tailor or storekeeper who wanted a horse, and this might be hard to do.

Neither would it be practicable for companies or cities, or even states, to have their own mediums of exchange, because we could not be sure that they would be of value except in the particular place where they were issued. So our national government issues money which we accept as a medium of exchange throughout the country. The value of all commodities is measured by money.

Gold is the standard of coinage in the United States. The gold dollar was established in 1900 as the standard coin. Before that time, both gold and silver were standard. The gold dollar contains 23.22 grains of gold. This is nine-tenths of the whole weight; the other one-tenth is alloy. But, curiously enough, the gold dollar is too small for use and though it is the standard of our currency is not coined at all. We have gold pieces in larger denominations, and silver, nickel, and copper are used in making coins to represent the value of one dollar and under.

There are four mints in the country, at Philadelphia, New

Orleans, Denver, and San Francisco. All mints except that at Philadelphia mark their coins with a little letter.

Look up and make a list of all the coins now issued by our government. Do you think any other denominations would be useful?

Since our coins are heavy in comparison with their size, it



International

WEIGHING GOLD.

At the time this picture was taken at the United States Assay Office in Wall Street, New York, the building contained a billion and a half dollars worth of gold in bars or coin. This would weigh about 250 tons.

would be inconvenient to carry a great many of them around. So we have our paper money, which is all printed at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing in Washington. This paper money is of different kinds. *Gold certificates* and *silver certificates* represent actual gold and silver in the United States Treasury. *United States Notes* are our government's promises to pay, and people are willing to take these in payment because they are backed by Uncle Sam.

These were called greenbacks during the Civil War, but they had no stability of value at that time, because our government was not in a position to exchange coin for all of them. Then there are *National Bank Notes*, issued by the national banks, and *Federal Reserve Notes* and *Federal Reserve Bank Notes* issued by the Federal Reserve banks. These are partially backed by gold and silver, but people hardly ever ask to have coin in exchange for them.

Get samples of the different kinds of paper money and see how differently the wording on them reads. What is the biggest bill you ever saw?

In order to encourage us to save, and to make the money we save useful and safe, banks have been established. Although banks are private institutions working under charters, they are very closely related to the government. National banks are organized under the direction of the government and inspected by it. State banks and trust companies are chartered by state governments and inspected by them. So rightly the banks have a place here with the things our government does for industry.

There are banks in all communities of any size. In the savings banks we may deposit our money in savings accounts, which usually pay about four per cent interest, or in checking accounts, which are carried on more as a convenience than anything else, and do not pay much interest, if any. People may write checks drawing out money from a checking account, while they must give notice a certain time in advance if they wish to take any considerable sum of money out of a savings account. The money deposited in banks is not merely locked away for safekeeping. It is used. It is loaned, or placed in investments which draw interest and enable the bank to obtain a profit from its business. People should learn to save, and the banks encourage them to do this.

To be of the greatest service to the whole country, banks need to be organized under some centralized control. In

1913, Congress passed the Glass-Owen Act, providing for the establishment of our great Federal Reserve system. The country is divided into twelve districts, and a Federal Reserve Bank is located in a large city of each district. All national banks are required to join. Other banks are encouraged to join, and most of them have done so.

The Federal Reserve Board is in charge of the whole system, and is made up of eight members appointed by the President, two of whom are the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency. The Federal Reserve Banks issue currency to other banks in return for deposits made by them. This system has proved very good, and has helped many banks through a tight place.

Where is the Federal Reserve Bank located to which the banks in your community belong?

The banks receive so many checks daily, from so many different banks, that to straighten them out for themselves would mean hopeless confusion, and, indeed, would be almost impossible. So in every large city we find a *clearing house*. Here the banks send the checks that have been deposited during the day, and these are sorted and without much difficulty distributed to the banks to which they belong. The clearing house is a wonderful convenience to the banks.

Trust companies do the same sort of work as the banks. They pay interest on money deposited with them, and invest it in various enterprises. They also look after estates and various kinds of property put in their care. Since national banks are not permitted to do this kind of business, such institutions have to be supervised by the states.

117. **Restrictions on Workers.** — For their own good and that of other people, the government sometimes places restrictions on workers. Those who are affected by these restrictions do not always like them, but in the long run

such regulations are a help to industry. Examples of these are the so-called "full crew" laws on the railroads, and the laws prohibiting a railroad employee's working more than sixteen hours at a time.

One class of citizens that particularly need protection are the children. They are not old enough, wise enough, or strong enough to look out for themselves. Because it is so very injurious to health and growth of body and mind, the employment of young children in industry is now forbidden by law. An age limit is set below which no child may work regularly. This is usually fourteen, but in some trades it is higher than that.

When manufacturing began in this country, especially in the New England states, the factory owners employed children because they would work for very small wages. Very young children often worked as many as fourteen hours a day. Of course the inevitable result was poor health and stunted bodies and minds. The evils of child labor were not seen at first, but when they were, the states began to take action against it, and now almost every state in the union has its laws concerning the employment of children.

In most states children under fourteen can not work regularly at all, and if under sixteen, they must attend the continuation schools which we have already mentioned. Forty-eight hours a week, including the time at continuation school, is the longest time for work permitted by the states which have good child labor laws. Some states where selfish and short-sighted mill-owners had political influence, were slow about making reforms.

Since most of the child workers of the country could be reached only by state laws, Congress thought it would set them a good example by trying to prevent the carrying in inter-state commerce of goods made by child labor. The Supreme Court declared that such laws were unconstitutional. Congress finally proposed to amend the Constitution so as to give it the right to pass child

labor laws. That amendment is now (1924) before the states for their consideration.

What reason would any children have for wanting to work in a mill or a mine or a canning factory? Would it ever be justifiable for them to do so? What harm might they get into?

Women as well as children are protected by labor laws.



OPERATORS IN A BIG TELEGRAPH OFFICE.

These girls receive the messages which are transcribed on a typewriter to be transmitted to different places.

These are similar to the child labor laws in that they limit the number of hours and the conditions under which work may be done. Women are physically unfit to do certain kinds of labor, or to work too many hours at a time. But they have become very proficient in some positions, such as stenographers, clerks, saleswomen, and teachers. Now many women are studying medicine, law, and such subjects. There are thousands of women employed in factories, but so long as proper working conditions exist, little harm is done.

Perhaps you do not yet see how these laws are of any use to any one except the children and women who are protected. But it is they who will be particularly responsible for happy homes and healthy lives in the years to come. If their health and morals are not properly cared for, the time will soon

be here when our workers will be weak and sickly, unable to do first-class work of any kind. If their standards of life and conduct are not hopelessly ruined, at best we could expect them to be no better than harmless drudges, without sufficient energy or intelligence to lift themselves or any one else to a higher standard. Such people would do poor work in industry and would be a drag on society.

118. **Problems that Wealth Brings.** — You may have heard people say that they would not like to be rich because there are so many worries connected with wealth. Perhaps you thought they were joking, but there is much truth in the statement. It is not all fun to be rich. Just as truly for a community or a nation, problems of wealth are great and very serious.

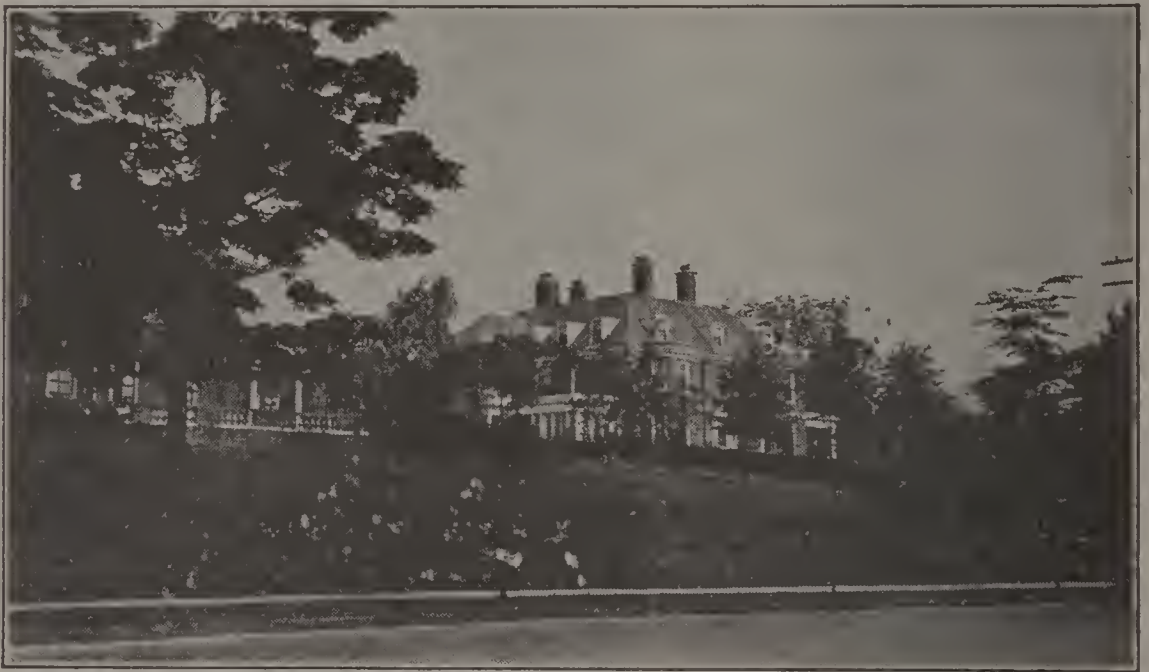
What are some of the worries and troubles of a rich man which a poor man would not experience?

We like to think of America as a democratic country, where all men are equal. But in some respects this is far from true. To be sure, we have no nobility, nor a peasant class, but there are class distinctions, and these are largely due to wealth. A person who is rich will sooner or later acquire social standing, no matter what his previous position was; for ancestry is not an essential to social position in this country, except possibly in the older communities and states.

Wealthy people sometimes feel superior to others, and look down upon them, though the poorer people may be more deserving than the rich. They probably work a great deal harder, and yet they never get ahead. This thought suggests to us what is sometimes called the problem of distribution. The wealth of a community is really produced by the efforts of all the people together. Now, how can we arrange matters so that everybody will get what he really earns?

It is not strange that a man who works hard all day long,

every day, feels a little discontented when he sees another man spending two or three hours in the office, and receiving a very large salary. He thinks that this is not fair. Sometimes people who never did a stroke of work in their lives inherit enough money to keep them in luxury all their days. They will say, "Well, my father worked hard for it. Why shouldn't I get the benefit of it?" But to a poor man this view does not seem fair. He does not see why the person who works hardest should not have the highest



A RICH MAN'S RESIDENCE.

It takes the entire time of at least one man to look after these grounds. Is the community better off because of this expense? Is a man who can afford to maintain such a place under any obligation to the community?

salary. He becomes discontented, indifferent, and unwilling to do his best.

Some people think that, if it were not possible for a person to get an abundance of riches which he did nothing to earn the good things of life would be more evenly distributed. They declare that a very high inheritance tax would help to solve the problem. They also believe that big incomes should be taxed very heavily, with a higher

rate per cent collected as the size of the income increases. Under such laws a person who inherited a large sum of money or whose yearly income was high would have to give a great deal of it to the government. It would then be used for public expenses, and the tax on the other, poorer people would be very much less. Of course, such inheritance laws could be evaded in part by a man's giving his money and property to the people to whom he wishes to give it, before he dies, instead of making a will.

“Money means power” seems to be the viewpoint of most Americans. And too often this is really true in a bad sense. Money has many evil influences. It is used wrongly in business. People use it to corner the market on various commodities, and in this way to dictate their own terms to the public and make enormous profits for themselves. It is said that half the wealth of the United States is owned by two per cent. of the people. J. Pierpont Morgan and those who were associated with him in business are said to have controlled wealth to the amount of \$9,000,000,000—considerably more than the entire wealth of the United States in 1850. How completely dependent we are, then, on a few men! What an awful responsibility rests on them to use their power rightly!

Money has been used to bribe public officials. To be sure, an honest officer with a backbone will not be bribed, but all too many of them are not able to resist temptation. Enormous sums of money are spent, sometimes dishonestly, to get certain men in office, the kind of men who can be induced to do things not for the good of all. People have paid policemen not to see or hear certain things, or to stay away from a certain place. In political campaigns, the evil influence of money is easily seen. It costs money to tell people how good you are or how bad the other fellow is, and the poor man can not afford such expense. Of course, then, when people spend a great deal of money to get a poor man an office, they expect to be remembered

after the election. If he is a law-maker, they expect him not to vote or any laws which will inconvenience them.

Few of us realize the forces at work to do wrong. We should think that when people see the evil of a thing, they would right it; but instead of this, many of them will either use every influence to get this evil power for themselves, or sit quiet and say, "What's the use?" Money gets special favors for people in hospitals, railroad trains, hotels, and even churches. Newspapers, as we have noticed, will often refuse to print anything unpleasant about a firm which advertises in them, for fear of losing their patronage.



A WEALTHY MAN'S GIFT.

The Carnegie Museum, Music Hall, and Library, at Pittsburgh.

A wealthy man may own the one newspaper in a town, or even a string of them in great cities clear across the continent. If he can get a brainy and unscrupulous person to edit them, he can give his readers false views of the events of the world and inspire in them unworthy prejudices and ideals of selfishness. Thus, as it has been put, "the fountain of knowledge is poisoned at its source."

Yes, there is a great deal to be done to abolish the evils which money brings. The general public—which means you and me—must do this. Selfish men who want to get still richer by their selfishness, and cowardly men, who are

afraid to do what they know is right, will never help much to make the world or our part of it happier.

Is tipping justifiable?

119. **Relations of the Employer and the Employee.** — It sometimes seems as if employees and the people who employ them are miles apart. Because both of them are necessary to any industry and each depends on the other, they ought not to regard each other as enemies. Of course



PORT SUNLIGHT.

This is a model industrial village in England built by the Lever Brothers for their employees. The houses are rented for a few shillings a week, and facilities for all kinds of recreation and culture are afforded.

it is for the employer's interests to get as large returns as possible from the money he has invested and from the work of those whom he hires to labor in his shop or factory. Yet very often when an employer undertakes to introduce some new system of scientific management or some method by which the worker will accomplish more in the same length of time, the employees look upon it as an attempt to get more out of them.

Of course it is true that some employers have been guilty

of trying to see how much work they can get done and how little they must pay for having it done. On the other hand there has sometimes prevailed among the workers the notion that there was a certain amount of work that had to be done anyway, and that if this could be divided among a sufficient number of people nobody would need to work hard or very long. To prevent an employer's setting up an unreasonable standard of work, in many cases a labor union adopts a rule that limits the amount of work a member may do a day. For example, a member of a bricklayers' union will lay a certain number of bricks and no more in a hour, even though he might be able to do considerably more than this without hurting himself.

Sometimes when the workers are particularly ill-disposed toward their employer they will indulge in what is known as *sabotage*. This is deliberately doing poor work or damaging the material that is used or harming the machinery, or in some other underhanded way hurting their employer's business. Sometimes they endeavor to induce workers who have no grievance against their own employer to go out on strike, in order to induce that employer to advise a fellow employer to yield in some labor dispute in which he is concerned. This kind of thing is called a *sympathetic strike*. Many people who think that a strike or even a boycott is sometimes justifiable do not believe that it is right to make an innocent employer suffer on account of somebody else's trouble.

The employers also sometimes use harsh methods to gain the upper hand in a labor quarrel. They will sometimes close their doors and proclaim a *lockout* until the workers will come to terms. If some particular individuals are troublesome, the employer may establish a *blacklist*. Then if a worker whose name is on this list tries to get employment in some other place he will find it difficult to do so, because his former employer will advertise the names of those on his black-list.

The better type of employers honestly wish to avoid quarrels with their employees and even to treat them more than fairly. In a good many factories *welfare work* has been undertaken. By this we mean the establishment of club houses, gymnasiums, reading rooms, social parlors, and the like, which the workers may use whenever they are not engaged in their daily toil. Sometimes employers even build tenements and rent or sell them at reasonable



A PHASE OF WELFARE WORK.

This factory operates a cafeteria where the workers may get lunch of good quality at a lower price than they could buy it outside.

figures. Sometimes systems of *profit sharing* are introduced. Where these are in operation the workers have a share in the business if the profits go beyond a certain point. Measures of this kind are meant to make the worker feel that the business is his business as well as the employer's.

Often a labor dispute occurs because one side does not understand the other. To remove any possibility of any such misunderstanding and to give the workers an actual

voice in the operation of the business, some interesting systems have been started which are spoken of as *industrial democracy*. The workers elect some of their own number to serve in a "house of representatives" or an "assembly"; and matters concerning conditions under which work is carried on, the hours of labor, or even the wages are referred to the representatives of the workers. It is said that in at least one place the representatives of the workers voluntarily voted for a reduction of wages.

In almost every state there is a state bureau or commission which has the right to offer its services in helping to settle a labor dispute. But nowhere in this country has any system been adopted that will require parties in an industrial quarrel to arbitrate before a state board, except that the state of Kansas has established a court of Industrial Relations and practically made it compulsory that labor quarrels be brought before this board.

Is it better for labor disputes to be settled by the parties themselves if possible? Would you feel any differently toward a business in which you were employed if you had something to say about the conditions under which you worked? If the employer is a fair-minded and open-minded man, will a system of industrial democracy add anything to the success of the business?

120. **The Farmer as a Wealth Producer.** — Many thoughtful people have been greatly disturbed by the fear that the farms were going to be deserted. We have seen statistics showing the rapid growth of cities and villages and the reduction at each new census in the proportion of people who live on farms. In speaking of our country's food supply we noticed the importance of the farmer. We can not get along without him. Why is it, then, that so many of our people either make fun of the farmer or are not willing to try farm life for themselves? In late years farmers have found it almost impossible to get the help necessary at certain seasons of the year. As a result apples and potatoes have rotted on the ground even when they

were selling for high prices in the city. Even at that, farm children have sometimes been kept out of school for months in order to do that part of the farm tasks which was within their power.

One reason why some people have no liking for the farm is that at certain times, as in the haying and harvesting seasons, the hours of work are long. At these times the farmers work almost from sunrise to sunset. There seems to be the impression, too, that farm life is terribly lonely



A TRUCK GARDEN IN EARLY SUMMER.

This owner grows vegetables for the city market. Scenes like this are common a few miles outside of our large cities.

and that even when there is no work to do there is no way to spend one's spare time or to have any enjoyment.

The labor question on the farm is most serious because there are certain times as in winter when there is relatively little to do. The farmer does not want to pay as high wages all the year as he pays in the busy season. And so the farmer has had to take a poor quality of workers who were willing to come for low wages the year round or take chances on the uncertain character of people whom he could employ in busy seasons. In the great western farms the managers

have sometimes had to depend upon men who would move from one farm to another during the harvesting season.

But, after all, farming offers some advantages which no other business possesses in the same degree. The life in the great outdoors surely must be more healthful than any indoor occupation can be. Except at the rush seasons the farmer is pretty nearly the master of his own time. He does not fear famine, unless conditions of soil and climate have been so poor that everybody else will have to suffer with him. He is doing a work which everybody knows that



Courtesy International Harvester Co.

HARVESTING AND THRESHING ON A BIG WESTERN FARM.

How many men and how much more time would be needed to do this work in the old way!

the world cannot get along without. Farm life is no longer the monotonous lonely existence which so many of us think it to be. We have already referred to the farmer's automobiles, telephones, rural mail delivery, and to the programs for good roads which are of more importance to the country districts than to the city. There are very many of the labor-saving conveniences like washing-machines, vacuum sweepers, and gasoline engines which most farmers can have as well as city people. More and more atten-

tion is given each year to the country school and in some states programs are already in operation which are intended to serve the rural community as well educationally as any other neighborhood.

Best of all, the farmer is taking himself more seriously. He knows that it takes brains to run a farm and he is trying to make his own brains count as much as possible. A budget system for keeping accounts; the planting of crops in rotation and the use of proper fertilizers so as to get the most good from the soil; the usefulness of national and state departments of agriculture in giving advice and instruction to guard against insects and wild animals—all these things are helping to make farming a real business. The farmer still has to depend upon the railroad for carrying his crops to market. He still must make use of the commission agent or some kind of middleman to help him sell his goods. But the numerous coöperative movements for marketing farmers' products are helping the farmer to become more independent of the middleman. As the means improve for getting the farmer's goods in the easiest and quickest way to the consumer, the farmer becomes more and more his own master. Whatever tends to keep the farmer happy is likely to promote the interest of the whole country.

121. **The Right Use of Wealth.**—The American people are noted for their extravagance. Most of them do not realize the value of wealth or understand how closely other nations have had to economize in order to be prosperous. The whole nation, as well as every individual American, must learn to use wealth to the best advantage.

As we have said, the natural resources of a country make up a large part of its wealth. We, as a nation, have ruthlessly destroyed and wasted these resources. It is only recently that much thought has been given to the problem of conservation, but we now find it one of the biggest questions confronting us, and the people are beginning to wake up to the fact that it is very serious. Do you ask what *conserva-*

tion is? It means using the resources that we have in such a way that we can turn them over to those who come after us in good condition, instead of wasting and ruining them.

When the first settlers came to America, over forty-five per cent of the United States was covered with forests. These have been wantonly destroyed. Of course, wood was needed to build cabins, to use for fuel, and to make



Courtesy Forest Service.

A FINE FOREST OF YELLOW PINE.

In the Bitterroot National forest, Montana. Notice how tall and straight the trees are and how free from underbrush.

furniture. Clearings had to be made in order to build the houses, and the trees cut down were seldom used. People were, and still are, very careless, and as a result thousands of square miles of forest have been destroyed. It takes very little arithmetic to show that unless the greatest care is used, it will not be long until there will be practically no forests in the United States.

Our national government has therefore set aside forest reserves, where the timber can not be cut or the land used in any way without special permission. The Forest Service also grows trees to be planted to make up the loss of those which are cut down. As we have seen, it keeps watch also to prevent fires started by foolish campers or other means, from sweeping over acres or miles of valuable timber.

Some states have their own forest reserves, conducted under the direction of a state forester or department of forestry. New York and Pennsylvania are notable examples of this policy. It is much to their credit.

What is the condition of the forests in your state? Do you have state forest reserves or officials to deal with the use or growth of trees? Does your state have industries which make use of the forests of other states? Find out what states produce the greatest amount of lumber. What is the object in observing Arbor Day?

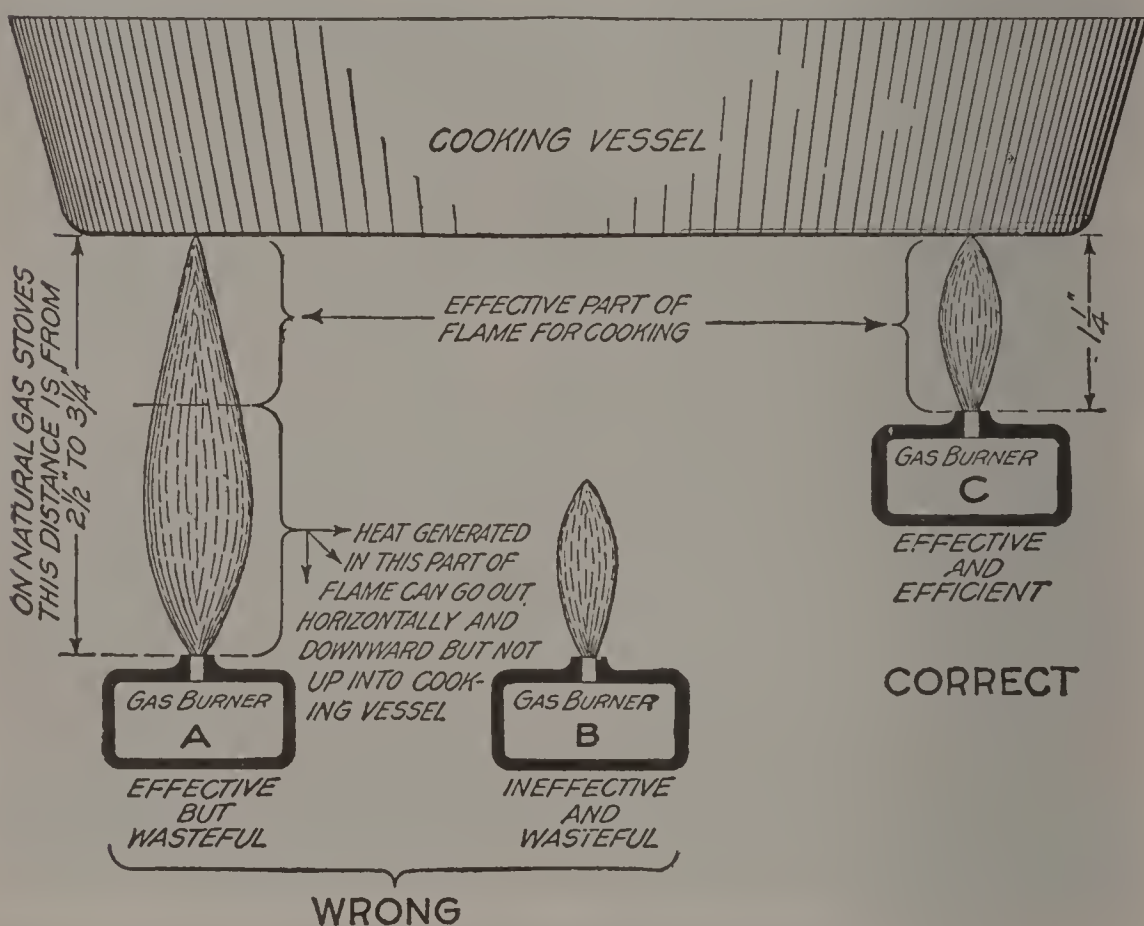
The United States was endowed, too, with such a bountiful supply of minerals that little thought of carefulness and economy in using them entered the people's minds. Miners have left quantities of valuable ore in the mines, taking only that which was richest and easiest to get. Coal has been used wastefully by factories, railroads, and people in general. Careless mining has sometimes caused the surface to cave in, destroying streets and buildings, and ruining the ground above and the mines below.

To prevent or remedy these evils, where it is not too late already, strict laws have been passed by many states where mining is common. They often establish a Department of Mines or Bureau of Mines with authority to enforce the laws and to recommend measures for improvement. We have also a national Bureau of Mines in the Department of the Interior. It does the same kind of work as the state mining officials, preaching conservation whenever it has the opportunity, and conducting experiments to promote the safety of workers in mines.

In all probability the Creator put these metals and

minerals in the earth for men to use. Sometimes it is hard to decide just how it is best to handle the problem of using them wisely and still not wasting them. Alaska, for instance, is said to have rich coal fields. Shall we let private individuals who have money and enterprise go into these fields and help themselves?

It seems like a kind of "dog-in-the-manger" policy to keep

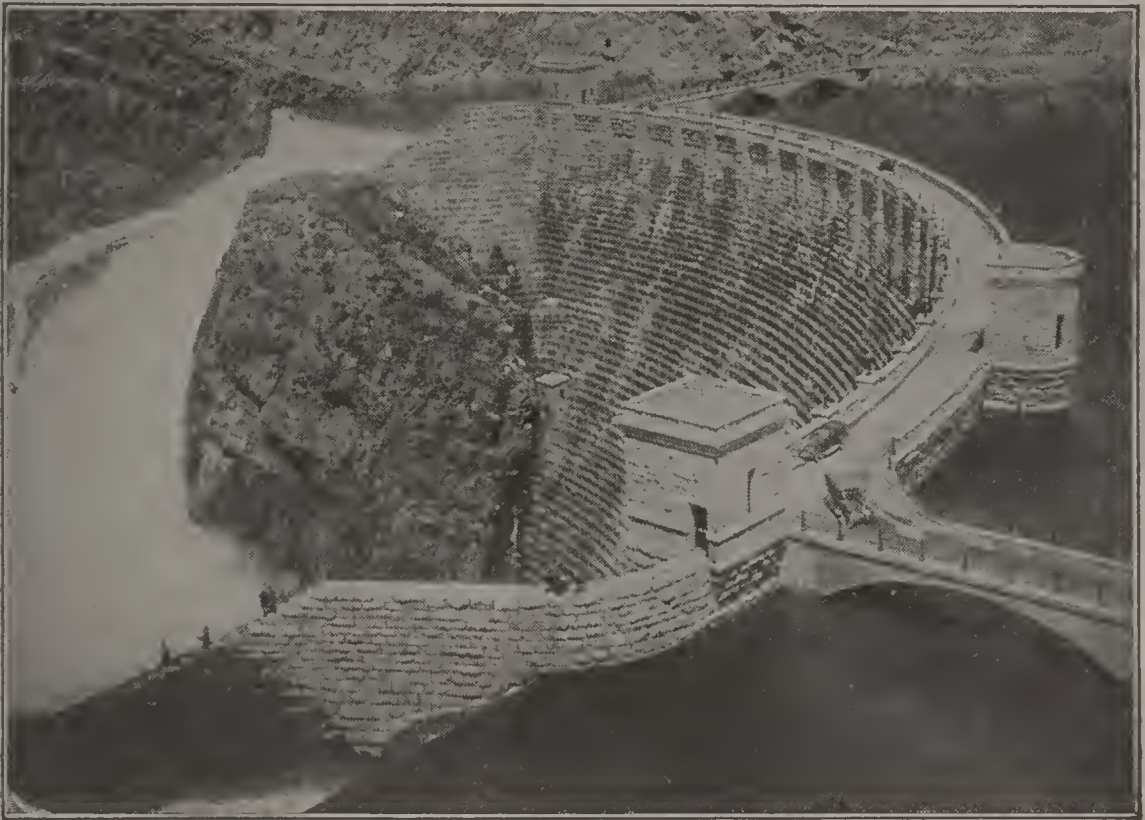


ONE EXAMPLE OF THRIFT OR WASTEFULNESS.

This may seem like a small matter, but in the course of a year considerable gas would be wasted by improper placing of cooking vessels on burners.

everybody out for fear they might not do their work rightly. Still, this wealth belongs to the people. Should not all of us get some benefit from it instead of letting a few people become still richer just because they have the necessary wealth to start work getting out the wealth beneath the surface?

Our national and state laws have been very generous in letting people "stake out claims" and work them or sell them as they see fit. Many people believe it is wiser and fairer to rent such privileges rather than give them away, and to require the payment of a "royalty" to the government of a certain sum for each ton mined. Then all of us could get some benefit from the natural wealth which the Creator gave our country, and we could easily take away the license



Copyright, McCulloch, Phoenix.

THE ROOSEVELT DAM.

This was the first great irrigation dam to be constructed by the Federal government. It helps to store up 200,000,000 gallons of water.

or privilege of a company or a person who did his work carelessly or wastefully.

Does your state have mines or quarries? Of what kind? What states lead in the production of the most common metals and minerals? To what extent are the industries of your state dependent upon mining? Does it make any difference to you what the mining laws of other states are? Make a map of the United States showing the natural resources for which the various sections are notable.

In the West are vast regions of desert land. The soil here is exceedingly fertile, but nothing can grow because there is no water. But let this land be "reclaimed" by bringing water to it, and the words of the old prophet are fulfilled—"the desert shall grow and blossom as the rose."

It costs money to do this. Here we have the same



ONE KIND OF WORK FOR WOMEN.

This girl is putting cement on the edges of uppers on tennis shoes. It is remarkable to what extent machinery has been made to do these minor features of manufacture.

old question, "Shall we let people who are rich become still richer because they have the money to construct great reservoirs and systems of irrigating canals, or shall the government do this work and supply the water to the small farmer and the big rancher alike?" Many wonderful things have been done by private companies, as when they took the water of the Colorado River out into the Imperial Valley of California. But fortunately our government has not left it all to be done by private means. It has constructed great dams and reservoirs from which water flows to some millions of acres which otherwise would never have been cultivated.

The irrigation of this land has made it wonderfully productive. Large orchards and farms have grown up where formerly there was nothing but the dry desert. Oranges,

apples, cantaloupes, and cotton are among the many products of the "Great American Desert" which once stood out so prominently on the maps of the West in the old geographies.

The giving away of public land or selling it at a low price is another example of the community's doing things for the benefit of its members. Perhaps we were too generous in disposing of it. Certainly we were not careful enough to see that the land we gave away was used by the people who received it and not grabbed by rich corporations.

From very early days our government has followed the policy of encouraging people to occupy the free land which once existed in such abundance in the Middle West and Far West. This land was in part given to veterans of our various wars, and for a time the government sold to anybody as much land as he cared to buy.

But since our government's intention was to get people settled on this land, the plan just mentioned was not dependable. Many people would buy the land merely that they might sell it again at a higher price. In 1862 therefore Congress passed the first Homestead Act. Any settler who had the nerve to go in a new country and live on a piece of land for five years could become the owner of it by paying a very small fee. This policy is still in force, though the time required has now been reduced to three years. The most frequent size of homesteads under these laws is a quarter section—one hundred sixty acres. Even these laws have been evaded by greedy speculators. However, if it had not been for the encouragement given to our pioneers, much of our great West might still be as wild as in the days of Columbus.

How to make the best use of the water power which can be of so great service to the country is another difficult question. It is not desirable for it to be serving the people in no way at all, yet it is not fair to have a few rich corporations get hold of all of it. Sometimes, as in the case of

Niagara Falls and the marvelous waterfalls in some of our national parks, there has been lively argument between the people who wish to preserve the falls to be admired by



ONE OF AMERICA'S SCENIC WONDERS.

Tourists from all over the world come to see marvelous Niagara. There is a great temptation to use waterfalls like this for power in such a way as to destroy their beauty, but thus far Niagara has been sufficiently safeguarded. The state of New York has set aside the neighboring ground as a public park.

lovers of nature and those who do not care what happens to our natural resources so long as they can make some money out of them. Thus far it has been possible to save our famous waterfalls from any material damage. A federal water power commission, consisting of the Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Secretary of the Interior, has been given power to pass judgment on all applications for the use of water power on our national public land.

Our animal life has also suffered greatly at the hands of both white man and red man. People tell us that when the passenger pigeons used to migrate north and south they traveled in such large flocks that they darkened the sky. Today there is not a passenger pigeon in the country. Other animals, like the buffalo, have been killed in large numbers, and fish have also been destroyed. There are now laws in every state regulating hunting and fishing, and mills are forbidden to put anything into streams that would kill the fish.

Because some women and girls are vain and thoughtless, Congress has found it necessary to pass a similar law which forbids the transportation of the plumage of certain birds in interstate commerce. Otherwise it would not be many years before they would all be killed. We also have a treaty with the British government to protect birds which migrate back and forth between the United States and Canada.

All these—the forests, the metals and minerals, the land, the water power, the animals and the birds—are our country's wealth. What are we going to do with them? Shall we be careful in the treatment of them, and conserve them for future generations to enjoy and appreciate, or are we going to continue to use them selfishly and blindly?

To use wealth wisely is just as important for the individual as for the nation. The work of the nation is, after all, what the individuals do who compose it. Many people

use their money only for personal gratification, and spend nothing except for selfish interests. They spend it extravagantly, and do not realize the value of it. Some expenses for personal pleasure are, of course, allowable, but we can see to it that in such cases we do not encourage anything that harms us or the community. Money used for the endowment of libraries, museums, colleges, and the like, does the people real, lasting good. There are also very worthy objects and institutions which can be helped by small contributions.

What would you do with Rockefeller's wealth if you had it? He has a staff of helpers who do nothing else but give away his money. Why is this?

122. **Saving and Spending.** — Perhaps you have known people who would be very angry if you accused them of extravagance, yet who could not for the life of them tell where the money had gone which they had received during the year. One of the best ways of handling expenses so as to make such ignorance impossible, is the family budget. A *budget* is simply an estimate of the probable expenses for any group of people for a certain length of time. It is usually accompanied by an estimate of the ways to meet these expenses. By keeping a family budget, the head of the house can find out the items which cause the greatest expense, and can judge where economy can be used. Expenses can be regulated and cut down by this means.

Does your family use a budget system? If not, why not? How many families in your acquaintance do so?

In its budget every family ought to try to make an allowance for savings. Some people simply put money away in a box or even an old stocking, it is said, and of course, that is better than no savings at all. One of the best ways, however, to save wealth is by making good investment, for then your money is not idle. It is being used in some way to promote the business of the community

and is earning something for you at the same time. You can at least put it on interest in the savings bank.

It is always safe to buy government bonds. Billions of dollars' worth of Liberty Bonds were bought during the war. These are in many ways the best investment we can make. We know that they are backed by Uncle Sam and are perfectly safe. A great many Thrift Stamps and War Savings Stamps were also bought. The boys and girls in



RECEIVING DEPOSITS IN A SCHOOL BANK.

These folks are learning while at school to save and be thrifty.

school helped wonderfully along this line. They gave up some of the things they wanted in order to help their country, and they incidentally laid something aside for the future.

Besides government bonds, people may buy the stock or bonds issued by a substantial business corporation. People will usually be able to get their money back if they wish to sell such securities, and will have been getting

returns from them besides. Many people put their money into real estate and mortgages, and these are generally good investments. But we should carefully avoid all "get-rich-quick" schemes, and stock in an enterprise of which we know nothing. For in spite of the "Blue Sky" laws which, as we have mentioned, several states have passed, there are some people who manage to sell fraudulent stock, and avoid the penalty of the laws. Oil companies, gas companies, and mining companies that never did and never could amount to anything, have stolen the savings of many a poor man or woman.

Did you buy Liberty Bonds or War Savings Stamps during the war? Did your school do anything to help in the sale of these?

Bring in specimens of advertisements that seem suspicious; of others that seem straight.

In order to get the full value of our wealth, we must consider seriously this problem of saving and spending. How much shall each of us save and spend? Perhaps we do not realize it, but during the war, the individual saving in food helped largely toward the maintenance of our army and the aid we gave to the countries of Europe.

We must spend some money. There are certain commodities which are essential to life, and others that make our lives comfortable. There is no doubt that a person who earns money appreciates the value of it more than one who does not. But if we keep account of our expenditures, and analyze that account, we realize how easy it is to spend money.

Now we do not wish to be miserly. A tight-fisted person, one who holds to his money as if it were glued to his hands, is not an asset in any community. But we should try to spend our money wisely. We must ask ourselves, when we are considering the purchase of any article, whether we need it, and, if so, whether we need it at once. Some people can not resist buying a thing if it is offered at a

bargain, even if they do not need it. A purchase of that kind is just so much money thrown away, because the article is useless. Then we must consider what we need most. If we spend our money on unimportant things, we can not buy what we really need.

It is important that every person, as well as every family, should learn to save. When we are young, we must provide something for the future, for the time when we shall not be



PROFIT IN WASTE MATERIALS.

This junk dealer specializes in bottles which other people throw away.

able to earn a living. Boys and girls in school should learn to follow some definite plan for saving. Banks often send a representative to the schools to get the money the pupils wish to deposit. This makes it unnecessary for the pupils to go to the bank, and enables them to save small sums of money.

Savings should be planned for as regularly as rent, or food, or clothing. Systematic saving will accomplish

much more than intermittent fits of it. After all, common sense is the "one thing needful" in these matters. If we think carefully before we spend, and reason out our probable needs, we shall not make many mistakes in the use of wealth.

Do you have a bank account? Do you keep account of the money you spend? How much money do you spend for things that are not important? Where does your spending money come from?

123. **Responsibility for Prosperity.** — A part of the responsibility for a community's prosperity rests upon public officials. There are a great many officers who handle public money. It is their duty to spend it honestly, and to see that it is used for the good of the community. They should be efficient and economical in this matter, because the money is the public's and is to be used in serving the public. Officers who enforce the laws pertaining to industry that we have discussed in this chapter, should feel their responsibility. Unenforced laws are of no value, and those which regulate our industries for the benefit of everybody should certainly be carried out.

If we should try to make a list of all the public officers who have any influence upon the wealth of the community, we should need to mention all there are, from the street sweeper or the country postmaster up to the President himself. But let us confine our table to those whose positions are rather directly connected with the encouragement of the occupations by which people earn a living.

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Mayor	Governor	President
Department of Docks and Ferries	Departments of Agriculture	Department of State
Board of Education	Banking	Consular Service
or School Directors	Forestry	Department of Treasury
		Mints
		Post Office Department

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Caretakers of Public Property	Fisheries	Department of the Interior
		Bureau of Public Land
	Mines	Reclamation Service
		Geological Survey
	Insurance	Patent Office
		Bureau of Mines
	Labor and Industry	Bureau of Pensions
		Department of Agriculture
	Public Service Commission	(all bureaus)
		Department of Commerce
		(all bureaus)
		Department of Labor
		Interstate Commerce Commission
		Federal Trade Commission
		Tariff Commission
		Federal Reserve Board

Why should the list of local officers be so few and that of state and of national officers so large?

Business men, too, play a big part in our prosperity. Altogether too few business men follow a farsighted policy in their transactions. So many of them, when their selfish interests conflict with those of the whole community, are likely to look out for Number One. Nor is this strange. It is only natural to try to promote our own good, and our government could not ask people to carry on business for charity. But if a man really has the condition of his community at heart, he will not let selfish motives entirely govern his actions.

The business man should play fair. He should practice the square deal toward those whom he employs, and toward other business men. If he does this, others will be benefited. His employees will be rewarded according to their efforts.

and they in turn will want to promote his business and his good name.

Public opinion, here as always, counts mightily. Almost every step toward higher standards has been taken on account of it, and it is a greater force than anything else. Public sentiment was at the back of the laws passed to protect workers, to control large business, and to insure the people the rights and privileges which should be theirs. Public



AN ATTRACTIVE OUTSIDE VIEW OF A GREAT DEPARTMENT STORE.
Business buildings need not be ugly if their owners take an interest in the appearance of their neighborhood.

sentiment regulates the actions of the law-makers, and those who carry out the laws. Let us see to it that neither our own selfishness or ignorance, nor the greed of other people, shall permit any lower standards to prevail in business than in our dealings with men and women in any other respect.

Why do some people seem willing to practise sharp tricks in business which they would not think of doing in other relations of life?

And the individual has his place, small though it may seem, in prosperity. If we are careless and wasteful ourselves in managing our own private affairs, we are likely to get the habit and act the same way in working for some one else or in doing public business. If we do not insist on the practice of the square deal by others, some of them will be sharpers and thieves. The wealth of the country is made up of yours and mine and John's and Mary's and Henry's put together. If every boy or girl, man or woman, would use his own particular share of wealth honestly and wisely, our towns, cities, states, and national government would be happy, prosperous places indeed.

124. **Preparing for Usefulness.** — Let us be sure to remember, too, that before any one can have wealth, somebody must produce it. Not one of us has a right to be a loafer or any other kind of slacker. Not even Rockefeller would try to excuse himself from working.

To be able to provide for himself properly, no one ought to wait until he is thrown upon his own resources before he undertakes to learn to do something. No matter how rich the family to which any boy or girl belongs, the time may come when every member will have to earn a living. For most of us there is no "may" or "perhaps" about it—we know we must do so. We ought, then, to think often and earnestly about the trade or profession which we are best fitted to enter. In school we ought to have opportunities to study and talk over the various occupations, not with the idea of finding the easiest one, but the one best fitted for us. "No square pegs in round holes" would be a good slogan for any class.

The community is also much concerned in preparing its members for usefulness. If everybody is doing what he can do best, few people will be poor and everybody will be contributing as much as possible to the community. Citizens who are happy will have no excuse for complaining or trouble-making, and workers who have chosen their occupations wisely are not likely to find themselves out of a job.

Now how can wise advice be best given and this vital choice be made most intelligently? In the first place a pupil must discover his own qualities. Sometimes he inherits certain likings. Sometimes a chance incident brings out interest in some kind of work which remains permanently. These personal qualities and interests should be given first consideration. The financial conditions of a person's family sometimes make it necessary to direct his studies into some particular field. He must know what special traits of character are essential in any occupation in which he is interested, and, if he does not possess them, whether he can develop them. For instance, a boy who lacks perseverance and can not wait or work hard without getting returns promptly should not undertake to prepare himself to be a physician. But one should not be led astray by opportunities to make a few dollars in an occupation in which little training is required. That kind of thing is often called a blind alley job. You can get in it all right, but you get nowhere from it.

If a person is obliged to go into a position for the sake of earning money, when he would like to train for some higher occupation, he does not need to drop all hope of being in the other position. There are so many chances of studying in night schools or trade schools or with the help of correspondence schools that if a person has good health and uses his time wisely he can keep on learning while he is earning a living for himself and perhaps for others.

Make a list of the ideals that every worker ought to set for himself no matter what occupation he enters upon. Make a list of the occupations for which it would be easiest to prepare in your community. Pick out the qualities which are most needed in connection and decide which of these occupations are suited to you and which are not. Remember not to look merely for a soft snap.

Why do state governments often require special education and training for vocations like law, medicine, industry, pharmacy, or teaching? What are the requirements for these in your state?

In how many occupations that you would consider worth while would a high school education be of little or no use? A college education?

QUESTIONS

What is wealth? Why do we want wealth? Distinguish between public wealth and private wealth. Mention some beneficial things which we enjoy but which we could not have unless some one had laid up wealth.

Explain the three factors used to obtain wealth. Mention the different kinds of organization which a community may provide to encourage industry. What is a *chamber of commerce*? A *labor union*? An employment bureau? By what methods do labor unions seek to obtain their object?

In how many different ways does our government encourage industry? Explain the work of the Weather Bureau. Define *protective tariff*; *subsidy*; *patent*; *corporation*. Mention some of our laws to restrain corporations. What do Socialists believe in regard to the government's control over industry?

Why do we have money? Mention the different kinds of money used in the United States. What services do the banks render? What is a clearing-house? Explain the Federal Reserve system.

What classes of people are protected while at work? Why do we have special laws in regard to child and women workers? Mention the principal features of these laws.

Mention some of the unpleasant features resulting from the accumulation of money. Why do workers often show ill-will toward their employers? By what means do some workers attempt to get the better of their employers? What have some employers done in return? How many of these things do you think are justifiable? Mention ways by which well-meaning employers try to benefit their employees. What is meant by *industrial democracy*? To what extent does the government undertake to settle industrial quarrels?

Why do some people dislike farm life? What difficulties does the farmer have to contend with? What advantages does the occupation possess? How should the rest of the country feel toward farmers?

Explain *conservation*. In connection with what particular natural resources is conservation specially important? By what means does the government try to protect our mineral resources? Our forests? What is meant by irrigation?

Explain the family *budget*. What are some safe kinds of savings? Why is saving desirable? What are the principal officers in your local, state, or national government who have to do with the saving of wealth? How do business men influence the prosperity of a country? In what ways does the individual citizen affect the course of events?

Why is the study of vocations in school helpful? Does it make any

difference to the community what your occupation is? What considerations must a person take into account in choosing his life work? What opportunities for education are available to one who is already employed?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Public Property of Our Community.

Men Whose Wealth has Benefited the Nation.

Our Chamber of Commerce or Board of Trade.

The American Federation of Labor.

A Strike in Which We Were Directly Interested.

The Patent Office and Its Work.

Our Mints and What They Do.

A Visit to a Clearing House.

Factories Where Children Work.

Summer and Winter on the Farm.

Our National Forest Service.

A Homestead in the West.

The History of the Imperial Valley.

Our National Reclamation Projects.

The Story of the Buffalo.

The Job I Want to Hold.

The Jobs I Should Not Care For.

The Banks of Our Community.

Building and Loan Associations.

School Gardens.

Workers in Prisons.

Resolved, that it is wrong for a worker to do less than his health permits him to do.

Resolved, that children while attending school should have no regular work to do.

Land in Our Community Which Could be made More Useful.

My Ideal of a Successful Man or Woman.

Resolved, that the government should put in prison every person in good health who is not regularly employed in any beneficial occupation.

CHAPTER IX

CARING FOR THE UNFORTUNATE

*O thou who art careless of thy fellow's grief,
It fits not thou shouldst bear the name of man.—Saadi.*

125. Those Who Need Help. — In every community there are some people who not only contribute nothing to the progress of the community, but have to be cared for by it. These are sometimes spoken of as the dependent, the defective, and the delinquent. The dependent include the aged, the poor people, the sick, and the children. The defective include the physically afflicted, the deaf, the dumb, and the blind, and the mentally afflicted, such as the insane and the feeble minded. The delinquent are those who have gone astray from the right path and have violated the laws or established customs of the community. All these people must be cared for by the community, so that they may not harm themselves or others.

There was a time in the early ages of society when some of the sufferers were put to death or cast out of the community, as the easiest way to dispose of troublesome citizens. But we have become more humane, and try to care for unfortunate people, to relieve their sufferings, and to let them get as much enjoyment and do as much work as they can. We do this by means of various agencies and institutions, some of which were established by private charity and others by the government.

126. Why Some People Are Poor. — Some of the dependent classes are not only poor—that is, without sufficient

wealth to permit them to have an adequate amount of the necessities of life, but they are down in the class of paupers—those who for some reason require material help from their community even to live.

Now the causes of poverty are many. With the saloon out of the way, perhaps the chief cause is sickness, which makes people unable to earn a living or to provide for those dependent upon them. Accidents, too, either reduce people's wages or cut them off entirely. Natural misfortunes like the San Francisco fire and the Johnstown flood, also cause a great deal of poverty for the time being. Old age makes others unable to work. Plain laziness is the trouble with many. Extravagance and poor management account for many others. Bad habits like gambling and intemperance have brought disaster to many families.

Now it is true that "the poor we have always with us," but much of the poverty which exists can be alleviated. The community will then be far better off, and the public, which must bear the burden of the poor, will be in part relieved. But the policy which does the most good seeks to prevent poverty as well as to remedy it.

Make a list of the cases of poverty with which you are personally acquainted, giving whatever causes seem to be responsible for each case. Refer to them as No. 1, No. 2, etc., without mentioning any names.

127. How Shall They Be Helped? — Of course, those who are in actual need must be helped, but how? The relief must be given in a way that will really help the poor to get ahead, and not make professional paupers of them, as giving at random is apt to do. If they can be changed from a burden upon the public into helpful citizens, real lasting good has been done both for the poor people and for the community. Gifts of foods, clothing, and money afford only temporary relief, although, of course, they are sometimes very desirable.

But too many gifts of this kind make people unwilling to

try to work, knowing that they can live on the charity of others. Professional beggars have been known to make a very good living by playing upon the sympathies of the public. Supporting tramps, beggars, and idle people who misrepresent their condition in order to obtain money or "hand-outs," is certainly unwise charity. Relief can be given in other ways. Any one whose pride is not so great as to hinder him from begging, ought not to object if you



Courtesy of Junior Red Cross

MAKING GARMENTS FOR REFUGEES.

These girls, who belong to the Junior Red Cross are sewing for the benefit of European children who were sufferers from the Great War.

ask him to call upon the institutions which have been established for the purpose of relieving suffering.

When, if ever, would you advise giving money to a beggar? to a poor family?

The terms "indoor relief" and "outdoor relief" are often used in connection with public and private charity. When a person is helped by taking him to live in a charitable

institution, he is said to receive indoor relief. When he is aided in his own home by money, goods, or otherwise, he is getting the "outdoor" variety.

128. **Private Agencies for Relief.** — In all our large cities we find, under various names, charitable societies for the purpose of alleviating poverty. These societies investigate the conditions of those who apply for help, and give aid to those who are worthy. It used to be the case that people could live comfortably on help received from several charitable societies at the same time, while other needy ones perhaps received none at all.

So in order to prevent duplication of help, which certainly encourages poverty and laziness rather than does away with it, organizations called the Associated Charities or United Charities have been established. Card indexes are kept, containing the name of every person who asks for charity. Thus a sort of clearing house is established to which all cases can be reported. Any charitable society can find out here whether a person has received aid from any other source.

When an individual is asked to give help to somebody, it is often best not merely to give money, but to report the case to one of the charitable institutions, which will look up the situation and give aid if the people are worthy. If a person is interested in some special kind of charity, he can give money to the society which works in that particular field. He will seldom have much trouble in finding some organization with which he can connect himself. We need not excuse ourselves, however, from helping the needy by saying that some society can look after them.

These charitable societies give medical aid in sickness, find work for people, and really give them an opportunity to get a new start. Then they follow up the case, making regular visits and giving help and encouragement. The Salvation Army does a wonderful work in charity as well as in strictly religious lines. "A man may be down," they

say, "but he is never out." During the Great War, many of its members went abroad, and became very highly esteemed by the soldiers. The "boys" will probably never forget the Salvation Army's doughnuts.

The Red Cross is not primarily a charitable organization, in the usual sense of the word, but it does relief work in time of calamity such as fires, floods, and earthquakes. During the Great War, as in previous conflicts, the Red Cross



International

DISTRIBUTING NEW YEAR'S GIFTS.

Mr. and Mrs. F. J. Shepard are assisting Mrs. Mott and Miss Booth of the Salvation Army in presenting gift bags to four thousand poor children in New York.

established hospitals, and sent nurses and doctors abroad. Their work in peace times is less dangerous and public, but in aiding the uplift of people along all lines its service never ceases.

Besides charitable societies, the social settlements, which we have mentioned, are exceedingly beneficial. People can go there and receive help from doctors, dentists, and teachers, as well as entertainment and recreation. Social

workers make their homes in these houses. They investigate conditions in the slums, and give all the help they can to the needy and the sick. The churches also give much to charity, sometimes by making contributions to various charitable institutions, sometimes by actually maintaining such places through the kindheartedness of their congregations. Sometimes a church will center its interest on one orphan asylum, for example, and partially support it.

During the war there were many "drives" for money to use in the support of charitable work by means of relief funds. These were largely for the suffering countries of Europe. Belgian relief, Armenian relief, "bundle day" and the like, followed one another at short intervals. People sometimes got tired of being asked for so many contributions, but very large sums of money were often contributed for these worthy causes. And America with all her wealth could easily afford to give! We can not begin to realize in this country the distress from which many parts of Europe and Asia suffered. Perhaps we did not suffer enough for our own good!

Mention some of the private charitable institutions in your community. What work do they do? Have you ever given anything to them or worked with any of them?

129. Public Agencies for Relief. — Although a great many charitable institutions are under private management, the government also takes care of many of the poor and afflicted. In some New England states, every sizable town has its poor farm where those who can not support themselves and have no relatives or friends to take care of them may go. But outside of New England, this work is most often done by the county, though the large cities also have their "homes" for their own poor.

These homes, while they do provide an existence, are at best cheerless places for their inmates. Most children are taken care of in private institutions, although some are

taken into the county and city homes. Children's aid societies try to get good homes for the children with private citizens, and their efforts have been to a large extent successful.

The various governments also contribute and help to maintain other institutions. A State Board of Charities or similar body has the power to inspect these places as well as those actually carried on by the government. It makes certain requirements, and receives regular reports from them. The local charity officers also frequently aid with "outdoor" relief to those in need.

Find out all you can about the public charitable agencies in your community. Do you have a town farm, a county farm, or are the poor "boarded out"?

We must not forget that to prevent poverty is better than to cure it. The workmen's compensation acts prevent a great deal of the poverty which would otherwise come from sickness or accident. There are also, in several states, mothers' pension acts, which give a small sum weekly to mothers who have no means of support, and must care for small children. The amount varies according to the number of children and their age. By this means families can stay together and get the benefit of home life, which they could not get in any institutions. Some European countries grant pensions to all poor people beyond a certain age, but this policy has never been adopted in the United States.



BLIND BOYS STUDYING.

These boys are working an arithmetic problem.

We should not overlook the services of insurance companies in the matter of preventing poverty. They are carried on by private corporations as money-making ventures, but have been of great aid in times of sickness or accident. Especially if a person who spends his money easily carries insurance, he feels compelled to save at least enough for his premiums. Then when accident or sickness occurs, if he carries that kind of insurance, he probably gets enough to live on if no more. Life insurance has been a "friend in need" to many a mother or child when the father was taken away. Some wealthy people carry large policies, counting up even to hundreds of thousands of dollars. So valuable is such insurance felt to be that a few states have established state insurance systems.

Do any members of your family carry insurance? What forms? What different kinds of life insurance policies are there?

Unemployment is one of the most important causes of poverty. To remedy this, the employment bureaus have done a great deal. Sometimes a person needs work only a little while when he is out of a regular job for some reason. We have already noted the ways in which bureaus are carried on by the government, and private employment agencies help people to get work.

130. The Blind and the Deaf. — Until the latter part of the eighteenth century, no attempt was made on the part of communities to take care of the blind. The first American institution for the blind was established near Boston. Now there are over a hundred such institutions throughout the country, many of which are carried on by the state governments, and maintained by taxation.

These schools have done wonders for the blind. They have proved that such people are not useless even though they are dependent. They can do something both for themselves and their community.

The institutions for the blind educate their people. Their

books have raised letters which the blind people read by passing their finger tips over them. They have also a system of writing. They are taught almost as many subjects as other students. In fact, some of them are sent to public high schools and even to universities.

They also receive industrial training which prepares them for certain trades. Typewriting, piano-tuning, broom-making, chair-caning, plain and fancy sewing, knitting, and



GOOD FUN.

This kind of recreation is healthful and interesting. Would you guess that these boys are blind?

basketry are taught. Blind people become very proficient, and the articles which they make are well formed and handsome. Music is also taught in the blind schools. They engage in outdoor exercise and athletics. On the grounds of some blind institutions we see slides, swings, and see-saws, and many are equipped with gymnasiums and even swimming pools.

There are about fifty schools for the deaf and dumb in

this country, and they have at least 7,000 pupils all told. There are comparatively few deaf mutes in the country, but because we learn to talk by hearing others, deaf people usually do not talk, although they are not mute. In the deaf and dumb schools, the pupils are taught to talk with their hands, though they read and understand regular writing. They learn to read the lips of speakers. Many of them do this so well that they can understand everything that is said, even when the speaker does not enunciate clearly. These schools have done a great deal for the deaf people, enabling them to learn trades and become self-supporting citizens.

Are there any institutions for the blind or deaf in your community? Have you ever visited one anywhere?

131. The Sick and the Crippled. — People who have been hurt or are physically deformed are sometimes kept in private homes for cripples, and are taught to do certain kinds of work which they can do in spite of their handicap. Usually not much can be done for them physically, but they are helped and made as comfortable as possible. To soldiers who lost one or both eyes, legs, or arms during the war, or were otherwise badly injured, our government gave pensions which enabled them to study in colleges or trade schools.

There are some people who are dangerously sick and need special care and treatment. These are the tubercular and the epileptic. In the United States more than 150,000 people die every year of tuberculosis. It is certainly necessary to do something to deal with the "white plague," as it is sometimes called.

Once people who had tuberculosis were treated just the same as others. They lived in the same houses and used the same dishes and towels. This was very bad for the people who lived with them. Instead of being kept in the air as much of the time as possible, they stayed in close.

stuffy rooms. As a result, the disease became worse, the patients died, and others caught the infection from them.

But all this has been changed. Now tuberculosis sufferers are to some extent kept apart from normal people and from other sick. At least they are not allowed to use the same dishes or clothing. There are special hospitals for these people, where they live practically in the open air. If the cases are treated early enough, they can be cured, and at any rate they can be helped a great deal. This isolation also protects well people from catching this danger-



THE MAIN ENTRANCE OF A GREAT HOSPITAL.

ous disease. Some of these hospitals are maintained by the state or the county, but most of them are private institutions.

The dry air of the far Southwest does much good to such sufferers. But unfortunately they often move out there too late. The native Westerner does not welcome the "lungers," and their distress, if they have little money, is sometimes pitiable. Anti-spitting laws really mean something out there, and are thoroughly enforced.

In this connection we must speak of the hospitals. Often conditions in the home are such that a sick person can not possibly be so well cared for there as in a hospital. In the

private hospitals, inmates must pay for their room and the service, and they can have private nurses and their own doctor. In hospitals which are financially helped by the state, there are wards for people who can not afford a private room and nurse. A very small sum or nothing at all is charged in these wards.

Many hospitals were founded by church organizations, though they may be helped by the state or local government. In addition to these, most cities have a hospital maintained entirely by the municipality, where people may go free of charge for treatment and medical care. Sometimes only those who are sick with very contagious diseases are sent there.

Make a list of the hospitals in your community. Are any of them maintained by the government? If you were seriously sick, would you rather be at home or in a hospital?

132. **The Insane.** — People who are mentally afflicted also need special care. Insane people are those who have once had ordinary mental powers but have lost them through some accident or misfortune. These were formerly allowed to go free, to exist as best they could on the charity of other people and to be laughed at by the thoughtless. Or, if they were violent, they were locked up with all sorts of criminals. But people have come to realize now that these people need to be separated from others and given special treatment suited to their misfortune.

Institutions for the insane are generally called asylums. These are usually maintained wholly or partly by the state. Many cases of insanity can not be cured, although some sufferers seem to be fully restored to their right minds after a time. All patients are given expert care and are made as comfortable and happy as possible. Often they take great delight in dances and athletic sports. Sometimes patients can do some kind of work, either outdoors or indoors. This is very good for them besides helping a little toward their

support. In connection with poor houses, there are often insane departments.

133. **The Feeble Minded.** — People sometimes do not understand the difference between the insane and the feeble minded. The insane, as we have learned, have been mentally normal, but lose control of their faculties; the feeble minded are those whose mental powers never develop fully. There are three grades in the class of the feeble



EPILEPTIC PATIENTS AT WORK.

These are members of the Craig Colony at Sonyea, New York. Their work appears to be of high quality.

minded: the idiot, whose mentality corresponds to that of a child not over two years, the imbecile, whose mind reaches the ages of three to seven, and the moron, who may advance to the mental age of twelve years. Feeble minded people have never been normal and can not be entirely cured. There are institutions for these people, some private, and some maintained by the states. They can do certain kinds of work, and, under proper supervision, can be of a little use instead of leading entirely dependent lives.

Find out about the institutions in your locality for the insane or feeble minded. Who maintains them? What do the patients do?

134. **Those Who Are Unwilling to Work.** — We have all seen the tramp or “hobo” who, although he may be physically able to work, will not do so, but expects the community to feed him. It is not fair that a person who can be of some use to a community, but will not, should be supported by it, and therefore these people should be discouraged. Many communities have laws forbidding begging, but these are not always enforced. In some cities there is a municipal stone quarry or brick yard where people who wish to be fed must work. In other places, the police just tell them to “move on” to the next community. It is hard to know what to do with such people, for many of them simply refuse to work, and, while they are probably dishonest, they do not do sufficient law-breaking to warrant locking them up on that account. But the practise of feeding tramps or giving them money is not a good one.

How do you account for the existence of tramps? Why do you think they live such a life?

135. **How the Responsibility is Distributed.** — We have seen that these unfortunate people must be cared for, in part, by the community, but who shall be responsible for looking after them? A few public officials in town, city, and country bear most of this responsibility.

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
<i>City</i>		
Mayor	Governor	President
Department of Charities	State Board of Charities	Veterans' Bureau
<i>County</i>		
Directors of the Poor		
<i>Town or Township</i>		
Directors of the Poor		

Modify this, as usual, to suit your own state and locality.

Make out a complete list also of all the charitable institutions, pub-

lic or private, with which the people of your locality are likely to have anything to do.

These officers should see that the public institutions are properly managed, and that the inmates are well treated and given the best care possible. They have the responsibility of handling the money obtained from the people for



A DORMITORY IN A DAY NURSERY.

This is at the Morgan Memorial Free Day Nursery in Boston. Children are cared for here while their mothers are at work.

the maintenance of these institutions, and they should see that it is used properly.

Charitable institutions carried on by the state or helped by state money are under the oversight of a State Board of Charities. In some states these Boards have more power than in others. They can inspect the institutions under their supervision and see that the rules laid down by them are obeyed. They can withhold state money from

private institutions which do not maintain satisfactory standards.

In caring for the unfortunate, we, as individuals, have both an opportunity and a responsibility. We can give money to help support orphan asylums, homes for the aged, hospitals, the Salvation Army, associations for the improvement of the poor, and similar institutions. Sometimes we may become interested in special cases and find a family to whom we can render aid which they will particularly appreciate. The friendly word and the smile that shows personal good will and interest mean much more to a "shut-in" than the best intentioned services of a paid social worker, who sometimes can not help showing that her aid is paid for by somebody and is given because it is a duty. A Christmas treat for the "kiddies" in a so-called "Home" can be afforded by the members of classes in a day-school or Sunday-school, and in many other ways we may have numerous chances to bring joy into the life of unfortunates, in or out of institutions.

But one thing that we sometimes need to learn is how charity and service can be given wisely. Social workers are needed who will study the conditions where help may be required. Perhaps you would like that kind of work yourself. And when there are such workers and charitable societies who can give us advice, we ought to seek it before being reckless with our charity.

The American people are really very generous about these matters. They submit to tag day upon tag day for the benefit of institutions which they never heard of, especially if pretty girls do the "tagging." They still have much to learn about some of the big problems connected with the care of the poor, the sick, and the defective. To help without making people lazy or needlessly dependent, and to give just the right kind of care to the afflicted, are undertakings much easier to talk about than to perform.

Suppose a member of your class stays away from school, and when

the truant officer hunts her up, he finds that she has no clothes that are fit to wear in public. Think out thoroughly all that ought to be done in her case. Perhaps there may be several reasons which you could imagine for such a situation, and each one might lead to a different line of action. Several members of the class might each write a story founded on this suggestion, and read the stories to the class.

What do you think of tag days as means of getting funds for charity?

QUESTIONS

What classes of people need to be cared for by the community? Distinguish between poor people and paupers. Mention the most common causes of poverty.

What kind of relief is best for the poor? Mention some harmful kinds of aid. How do charitable societies work? Name some of them. What other agencies also try to help the needy? What is the Associated Charities and why is it organized? Distinguish between *indoor* and *outdoor relief*.

By what means does the government try to help the poor? What are mothers' pension acts? How do insurance companies help to relieve poverty?

Explain the work of institutions for the blind and deaf. How are the insane cared for? How do the insane differ from the feeble minded? How should the feeble minded be cared for? How are hospitals supported? What is meant by the white plague? How should sufferers from it be treated?

For what are officers of charitable institutions responsible? Explain the work of a state board of charities. How may private citizens aid in the support of the unfortunate? What does a "social worker" do? What can be done with tramps?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Work of Our State Board of Charities.

How Our County Home is Conducted.

Making Toys for Needy Children.

Fresh Air Funds.

Resolved, that tag days should be abolished.

The History of the Care of the Poor in England.

Salvation Army.

Our Local Charitable Societies.

Visiting Homes and Hospitals.

Tramps and What To Do With Them.

The Care of the Insane.

Institutions for the Feeble Minded.

The Social Service Worker.

A Visit to a Settlement House.

Life in an Orphan Asylum.

Nursing the Poor.

The Work of the Junior Red Cross.

Homes for the Aged.

Resolved, that one should never give money to a beggar.

How a Sufferer from Tuberculosis Should Live.

Open Air Schools.

CHAPTER X

PROMOTING RIGHT LIVING

He that ruleth his spirit is greater than he that taketh a city.—Solomon.

136. **What Can the Community Do Through Its Government?** — High moral standards are necessary to nations as well as to individuals. Those who do not have them can not rank high in the estimation of others. The leaders of our United States have always preached high morals and right living, and our government has almost always dealt with other nations in such a way as to gain their good will. This is one reason why our country is one of the greatest in the world.

You scorn individuals or business concerns whose moral standard is low, and governments of that kind could not hold the respect of their own people or of other nations. But how shall we promote this essential element of welfare? Does the responsibility rest on the government or on the people? After all, a government will not very long be any better than its people. To make a government good and a nation good we must see to it that as far as possible every citizen is what he ought to be, and those who will not of their own accord do the right thing are prevented from harming others. Nothing is safe unless law and order are maintained. If everybody does just as he pleases without regard to anybody else, things will seem as if “every man’s hand is against his brother’s.”

In some respects, the government takes a negative attitude in this matter. It tells the people what not to do, and

restrains wrong rather than compelling the people to do things that are positively right. This is often the only way in which it can act, because it is practically impossible for it to teach morals directly to the people. Americans believe the government should not teach any religion, and these two, morals and religion, in the minds of many people go hand in hand. But the government sets up standards of conduct and makes laws according to these. It punishes those who break the laws, and thus discourages wrongdoing.

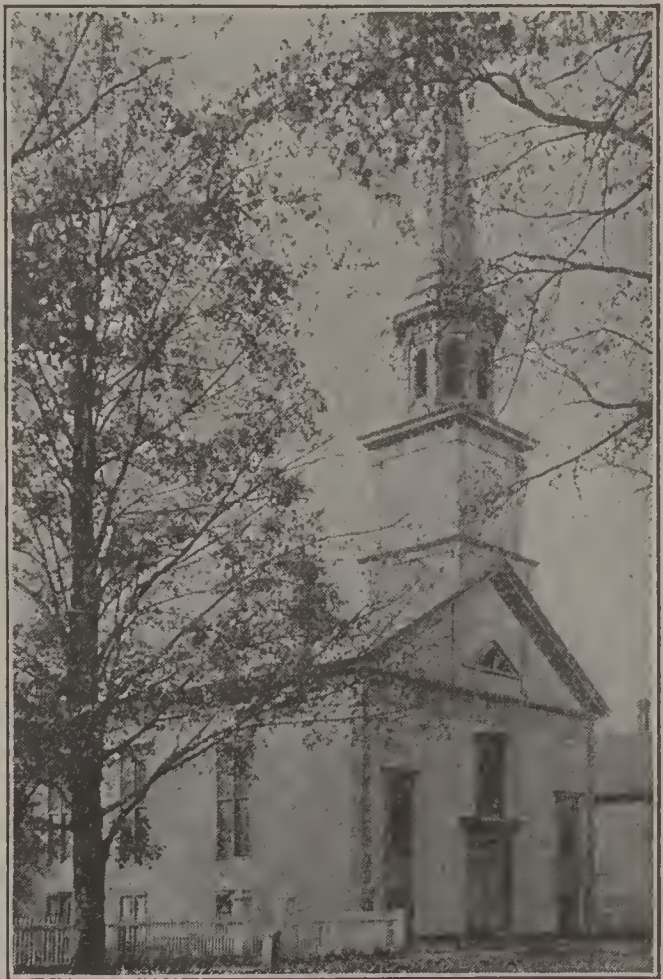
Some things, like stealing, circulating lies about people, or murder, we should consider wrong, whether there were laws against them or not. But some people will do things that they know to be wrong unless they fear that they will suffer in some way by doing them. This fear the government supplies by providing policemen, constables, and such officers to be on guard against these wrongdoers, and by making offenders pay fines or go to prison when they are convicted. The customs of old English courts in dealing with many offences came to be rather definitely settled. We have inherited these practices and principles under the name of the *common law*. By contrast, the laws which are made by legislatures and similar bodies are called *statute law*.

The government also declares certain practices to be subject to punishment because it believes their influence to be bad, although nobody may be directly injured by them at the time except the people who indulge in them. In the list of such things are gambling, drunkenness, the smoking of cigarettes by children, and the like. Some people need to be protected against themselves. Of course, such practices as we have mentioned do often bring disgrace, discomfort, or suffering upon others as well as upon those who are guilty.

Since there is less excuse or temptation to do wrong when people are comfortable and happy, our governments can promote right living by aiding to abolish conditions that

make people unhappy or cause them to suffer. Everything that it does to maintain good health and proper living conditions, to provide wholesome pleasure and recreation, to make people intelligent, or to aid them in earning a decent livelihood, helps to encourage right living. Private organizations of many kinds also help in carrying out this same purpose. In fact, the positive force that directly promotes right living must be exercised almost wholly by private agencies.

In what ways can a nation show whether it believes in doing right? Give some examples of distinctly right or wrong conduct on the part of nations. Make a list of ten acts which you would consider wrong if there were no laws against them; five which the law forbids but which might be right under some conditions; five which are wrong but which are not punished by law. In each of these cases can more be done in the line of protection by the government or by private agencies?



A COUNTRY VILLAGE CHURCH.

137. Churches and Their Teachings.—

Religion is directly associated with high moral standards, and the churches have a wonderful influence on the lives of the people. Religion differs from morals in that it connects our ideas of right living with our thought of a Power outside of ourselves to Whom we owe reverence and obedience. There are a large number of religious denominations, not to mention the millions of people in many parts of the world who accept religious beliefs that we consider heathen.

These divisions were caused by differences of opinion in regard to the form of worship, the observance of ceremonies, the organization and government of the church, or the way parts of the Bible should be interpreted. But they are all similar in more ways than we sometimes realize, and they are all important factors in promoting morality.

Whether the churches are Christian or Jewish, Protestant or Catholic, they try to give the people high standards and ideals. No doubt there are more different denominations than we need, and sometimes, especially in country districts, the community is distinctly better off when its people worship in one church instead of dividing into several small congregations. Churches teach honesty, honor, and truth, fair play and a respect for the other fellow's rights. In the matter of charity, the churches practice as well as preach. They help those who have gone wrong and are in need either physically or morally, and set them on their feet again.

Since members of different churches often completely misunderstand one another, it may be helpful to find out what particular features of belief or church organization distinguish the various denominations. Look in the encyclopedia, or consult persons who are qualified to tell about their own churches. There should be no arguments in a public school, however, about the correctness of any church's teachings. The class must limit itself to the *facts* about *what* each church believes.

They teach people ideas of a future life and of their relations to God which may not directly concern their relations to other people, but at the same time are not separated from moral teachings. There was a time when they did little else than this, but most churches of today are very greatly interested in helping men and women to live good lives now. They study the social needs of their communities and take an interest in advancing all kinds of causes that improve the conditions under which people live. Some churches furnish their people, young and old alike, with almost every opportunity for good times socially, and for healthful and uplifting recreation. The missionaries, too, whom the churches send out to convert people to their faith have done

a wonderful work in teaching these people, healing their diseases, and helping them to live more comfortably and happily.

People sometimes refuse to join a church on the excuse that there are hypocrites among its members. Possibly this charge is true. But at the same time, a community without churches would be a place that few would care to live in.

138. Churches and the Government.—The United States government is not related directly to any church as the government is in some countries. In England, for instance, the church corresponding to our Episcopal Church is the established church, and is closely related to the government, although everybody in England is perfectly free to worship as he pleases. Our Constitution says, "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion."

This has always been the policy of our government, and the churches in this country are absolutely independent.

Some state governments do, however, sometimes help church work. They may, for example, give money to a college or a hospital that was founded by one church, though when they do this, they usually require it to render



A GREAT CITY CHURCH.

some service to the public in return. Practically everywhere in this country churches are not required to pay taxes on the property which they own.

The American colonies in the early days were sometimes as intolerant and narrow-minded as anybody in the mother country. Roger Williams at Providence gave the first opportunity for complete religious freedom. Now every state gives the same opportunity, and his ideas on the entire separation of government from the churches are accepted throughout the country.

What objections would there be to setting up a state church here? Why do you suppose almost every country has had one at some time? Should church property be taxed?

139. Other Private Agencies for Moral Betterment. — In connection with both education and recreation we have discussed the work of the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., K. of C., Y. M. H. A., and other such organizations. These are agencies in right living also. In fact, their first aim is to promote the moral welfare of men and women, and in developing them physically and mentally, they believe they are aiding moral improvement as well. They endeavor to fit people to lead good, useful lives, to make them realize the dignity of work, and to develop in them virtue and high moral standards. There is no doubt of their success in this undertaking. In offering a good, safe place for recreation, they seek to offset the evil influences of undesirable places. Many of these organizations give financial as well as moral aid to those who need it.

Do you belong to any of the organizations mentioned above? If so, has it done you much good? In what way?

The scout organizations were established for the purpose of promoting higher morals among boys and girls. They teach truth, honesty, and courtesy, and are not content with mere words, but really carry out the virtues for which they stand. They make the work and the play very inter-

esting to boys and girls, and through all their activities they endeavor to implant high ideals and a true conception of right and wrong.

Can you mention some specific things which the scout organizations have done and are doing? Do you think they receive proper credit?

Social service helps greatly to promote right living. Social service is any work done by persons or organizations for the good of society. Help given to the poor, for example, is social service. Social workers investigate conditions, and try to remove the causes of disease, vice, and crime. They give help, often temporary, sometimes lasting, to people who need it, and they stir up public sentiment for the removal of evil influences and bad conditions. Social settlements are exceedingly helpful in furnishing places where amusement and diversion can be afforded in surroundings that uplift rather than harm.

140. **Moral Teaching in the Schools.** — The schools do a great deal to promote right living. Education is necessary if the citizens are to be wise and good and patriotic, and the schools provide this education. Schools teach honesty, truthfulness, respect and obedience. They develop the character of the pupils and prepare them for life. The schools are laying more and more stress on ethics, and teach morals as well as history and mathematics. The pupils learn to respect law, order, and authority, and these are very important in good citizenship. The schools not only punish those who do wrong but try to promote right and establish high ideals.

There is a great deal of dispute about the matter of religious teaching in the schools. Teaching the beliefs of any denomination is out of the question in the public schools because all religions are represented in them. In some schools, time is set aside for priests and ministers to give religious instruction to members of their own churches. This, however, tends to emphasize religious differences, and divide the pupils into groups and sects.

Some people object to the reading of the Bible in schools because they say it is sectarian. Others declare that the morals and ideals set forth in the Bible are fundamental principles of all religious faiths, and do not deal with any one sect in particular. Some states provide for the reading of a certain number of verses, usually eight or ten, every

day. These are generally taken from parts of the Bible that are accepted by all sects.

What does your school do in the matter of religious instruction? Mention some of the things taught in school which promote right living.



UNDER ARREST.

The policeman is "booking" his prisoner at the station.

141. **Why People Do Wrong.** — If there are so many influences to encourage people to do right, why do so many people do wrong? As "Bobby" Burns wrote, perhaps from experience, "One point must still be greatly dark, the moving why they do it." If a wrong act is contrary to a person's conscience, we

call it a sin; if it is harmful to a person's health or morals, we call it a vice; if it breaks a law, we call it a crime. You can see that any particular act might not always belong under all three heads. But whatever we call it, why do people do it? Something is wrong with Americans. It is hard to tell what—but our records in regard to the number of crimes committed are worse than those of other great civilized nations.

Some causes of crime are very similar to the causes of

poverty. Perhaps the same cause would reduce one person to pauperism and send another to jail. Unemployment causes many crimes, such as stealing and housebreaking, and crimes from this cause are usually much more numerous in winter than in summer. Low wages also cause people for the same reason to break the law.

Environment has a great deal to do with crime. In large cities, and especially in the very crowded sections, immorality and crime are more common than in the less densely populated places. The home environment is an important agent in crime. A low standard of home life makes criminals of people. Going with bad companions makes people do wrong who would otherwise do right. The saloon, which was one of the greatest causes of crime, has now been done away with, but it would be very unfortunate if the people who used to be frequent visitors to the saloon should be allowed now to defy our laws in order to get liquor or to sell it.

Weaknesses in government encourage crime. Where lawbreaking is not severely punished, crime flourishes. Defects in education often cause people to have difficulty in finding work, and therefore turn to crime as a means of existence. A tendency to commit crime may "run" in a family, but sometimes crime is thought to be inherited when it is really the result of bad influences in the home.

Can you think of any cause of crime not mentioned in this section? If you know of any people who have been found guilty of crime, can you think of any motive which probably induced them to commit it?

From the report of your county jail or penitentiary, find out the causes for which the prisoners were sent there. How many of them had been there more than once?

142. How the Courts Help to Assure Justice Between People. — In order to prevent one person from infringing on the rights of another, and to assure justice in case this does occur, we have our courts. If a person thinks that another has violated his rights in any way, he may bring

his case before a court called by various names in different states, such as the County Court, District Court, or Court of Common Pleas. This action is called a *civil* suit.

The person who brings such a suit is known as the *plaintiff*, and the person who is sued is called the *defendant*. Since only a few people know the fine points of law that may be brought up in the case, or are familiar with the ways of court business, each party usually hires an *attorney*, or lawyer, to conduct his case for him. Evidence is brought by

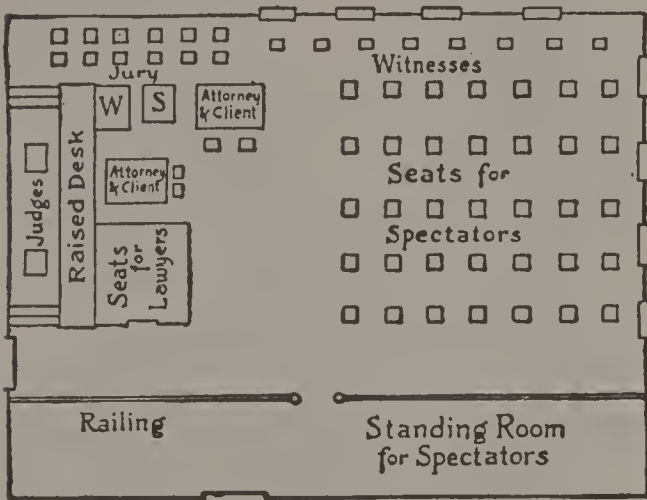


DIAGRAM OF A COURT ROOM.

W is the chair for the witness. S is the table for the court stenographer and clerk.

bringing the suit, it will order him to pay the costs for both sides.

When the case involves only a very small matter, it will usually be tried before a justice of the peace, a magistrate or alderman, instead of the county court. In some states, certain cases, like divorce suits, are turned over to a lawyer who is called a "master." This person will then investigate the case, and his report will usually be accepted by the court.

It is by means of the courts that every person is assured his rights as a citizen, and protected in person and property. The courts attempt to render an unbiased and un-

witnesses on both sides, and heard by a judge and a jury of twelve people. After the case has been heard, the jury considers and makes a decision in favor of one side or the other. If the defendant loses, he usually must pay "damages" to the winner, or at least pay the costs of the case. Sometimes if the jury thinks the plaintiff had no sufficient reason for

prejudiced decision in disagreements between people, and to give justice to every one. In a real democracy, such agencies are necessary. Otherwise it would be a case of "might makes right" and the stronger would always take advantage of the weaker. With the courts in operation, the weaker side, if it is in the right, has the whole force of the government put back of it, so that its rights may be protected.

Have you ever attended a trial of a civil suit? If so, describe the proceedings to the class.

Some people will advise you never to "go to law." Do you think this is good advice?

143. **How the Courts Deal with Law Breakers.** — Besides administering justice in disagreements between people, the courts punish lawbreakers. A policeman or constable who sees a person committing a crime or acting suspiciously may *arrest* him. Any one who believes a person has broken a law may go before a justice, magistrate, or alderman, (the proper title of such an officer depending on the customs of the state) and cause a *warrant* to be issued. The policeman or constable will then make the arrest. In trivial cases, the offender may be tried before the magistrate or justice of the peace, and this officer may decide the penalty. Neither he nor any other judge can impose any sentence he pleases, but the law generally allows him to fix the exact penalty within certain limits.

If the defendant is accused of committing a serious offence, the justice or magistrate will simply give a *hearing* to the accused, and if he thinks there is a chance that the person is guilty, will hold him for trial before the county or district court which tries criminal cases. Until time for the trial the accused may be confined in jail or released on *bail*. If responsible persons will agree to pay a certain sum of money to the court if the accused does not show up when the trial occurs, he will be allowed to go free till then. Persons accused of murder are seldom allowed out on bail.

The case must next be laid before a *grand jury*. This is a body of persons numbering in most states twenty-three, who hear a summary of the evidence against the defendant. If at least twelve of them think he ought to be tried, they will bring an indictment or "find a true bill" against him.



TAKING FINGER PRINTS.

The man shown in this picture was not a criminal but he is having his finger prints taken to illustrate how it is done. It is said that no other means of identifying a person is so sure as the finger prints.

are brought into court, and see that they get a square deal. Witnesses bring evidence on both sides. A *petit jury* of twelve persons listens to their testimony, and after the case has been heard, the jury makes its decision.

Most states require the decision to be unanimous. If the jury is unable to reach an agreement, the case may be

If they think there is no chance of his being guilty, they will "ignore the bill" and the accused will be set free.

When the case comes to trial, the *district attorney* or *county attorney* represents the state, and the accused may have his own lawyer or one provided by the state. Often when the defendant is too poor to hire his own lawyer, judges have been in the habit of letting some young fellow just starting out as a lawyer get a little practise by handling such cases. In some places a *public defender* is chosen as a regular officer of the city or county, to look after poor people who

dismissed and perhaps brought up again later before a different jury. But if the jury finds the accused person guilty the judge then decides what the penalty shall be, within the limits fixed by law. If its verdict is "not guilty," the accused can not be tried again for the same offense. The policy under English and American law is that it is better for nine guilty persons to escape punishment than for one innocent person to be punished. This system is kind, but some might say it is not the most effective in preventing crime.

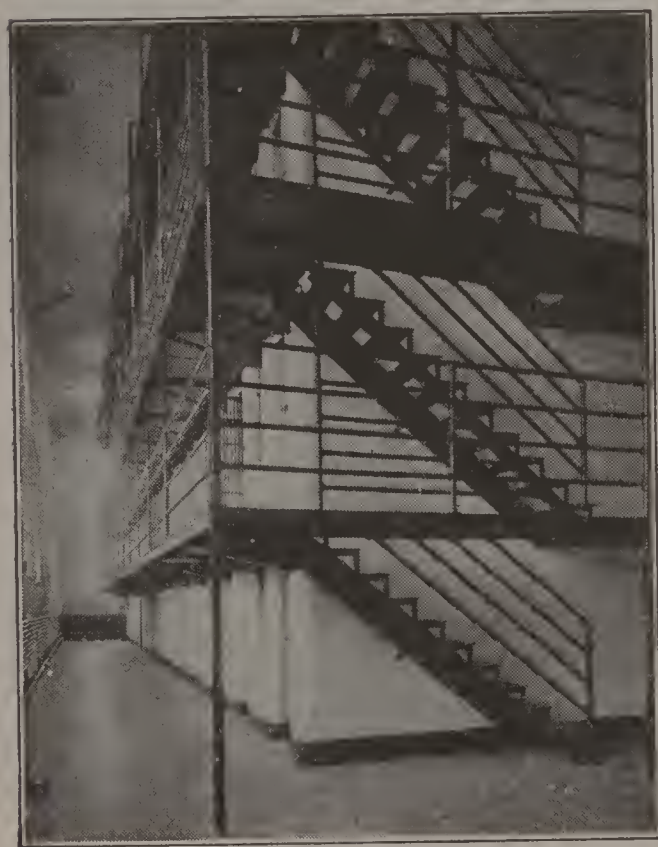
If you were being tried for committing a crime, would you rather have the judge alone or a jury decide whether you were guilty?

144. **Wrong Doers Who Try to Escape.** — Criminals can not evade the law by leaving the community in which they committed the crime. If a criminal goes from one state to another, the governor of his state can send a *requisition* to the governor of the state into which the criminal goes, asking him to send the criminal back. The same thing may be done with foreign countries, except that then the negotiations must be carried on through the State Department of the national government. We have treaties with almost all the other governments in which each country agrees to extend this courtesy to the other.

Such arrangements as these make it difficult for a law-breaker to escape punishment. Sooner or later he is likely to be found. "Murder will out," as the saying is—and not only murder, but most other crimes of importance. The Secret Service of our national government, and the detective bureaus of our cities are very well organized and skillful. There are also private detective agencies which have been helpful in discovering wrong-doers and bringing them to justice.

145. **How Criminals Used to Be Treated.** — We have become much more humane in our treatment of criminals than people were formerly. Long ago, criminals were subjected to all kinds of torture, and they were burned at

the stake, drawn and quartered, or beheaded for the most trivial offences. Even children were put to death. In fact, in some countries people enjoyed watching executions. Until comparatively recent years, the pillory was a common source of punishment for offenders, and afforded great amusement to the people.



PRISON CELLS.

At the State Prison at Windsor, Vermont, the cells are arranged in tiers.

All kinds and conditions of people were cast together, and disease and vice spread rapidly from one to another. The prisoners were very cruelly treated. Sometimes they had scarcely enough food to keep them alive. People were thrown into prison for debt and for political reasons. In our own American colonies, as you have probably read, harsh punishments were imposed upon "witches." Often a person accused of witchcraft was thrown into water. If she

The chief idea was punishment, and punishment long meant simply vengeance—getting back at those who had done wrong—"an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth." Later the main thought was to protect society by separating criminals from other people. To build jails and prisons for them seemed the easiest way to do this.

The prisons of olden times were indescribable. There were filthy, dark, unventilated dungeons where all forms of vermin and crawling things lived, and criminals were often thrown in these places to die.

drowned, she was innocent; if she did not, she was guilty and was put to death. So, whichever happened, there was little choice.

Can you give any explanation for this brutality toward people suspected of wrong doing? What state of mind would a person be likely to possess who had been through a term in an old time prison?

146. **Modern Ideas About Dealing with Criminals.**— But we do much better now in dealing with criminals. We still punish petty offences by imposing a fine or a sentence of thirty or sixty days in a jail or workhouse, according to the seriousness of the crime. We send people who commit greater crimes to a state penitentiary. But the conditions in most jails and penitentiaries are good. They are clean, well lighted and ventilated, and sufficient food is provided. The cells are large enough for a person to stay in them comfortably. But the best change of all is in our attitude toward the whole matter.

The criminals are not treated as utter outcasts, but attempts are made to reform them. We make some distinction in treating criminals, too. Young offenders are not thrown in with hardened toughs; "first offenders" are handled differently from life-long law-breakers. We have not lost sight entirely of the thought of punishment, but reform, if possible, must be considered first. Sentences are often shortened on account of good behavior. Indeed, when a prison term is imposed, it is often in the form of an *indeterminate sentence*; that is, its length beyond a certain number of months or years will depend upon the prisoner's behavior. Many prisoners are set to work, either on some public work or something for which they receive small wages, so that when they are released they will not be absolutely penniless.

In some cases, especially with first offenders, a system of *probation* is carried on; that is, they are permitted to work, and are practically free, but are visited regularly by probation officers or required to report regularly to some officer.

They may remain at large only as long as they behave well. This system prevents the bad effects that prisons often have on the prisoners, and gives them an opportunity to prove that they can do right. Perhaps some folks are more sentimental than sensible about people who go to jail. We need not waste tears on a willful criminal who is simply waiting his next chance to rob somebody, and we may



THE DINING HALL AT MASSACHUSETTS REFORMATORY PRISON FOR WOMEN.

err in making a prison an attractive place for a loafer. But we should encourage every one who wants to become a real man or woman again.

What is meant by the lockstep? Is it an improvement to abolish this from the prisons? Does the wearing of striped clothes have any effect upon the wearer? Why is it good for the community to try to reform wrong-doers?

Efforts are now made to teach prisoners some trade that will be useful to them after their release, and the articles

they make are sold. Outdoor work, sometimes on roads, sometimes on farms, is good for the prisoners and helps make the prisons self-supporting. Some prison officials have let entire gangs of men go out to work on road building and the like, with almost no guards to watch over them, and many of them are entirely satisfied with the results of the "honor system."



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A PRISON WORKSHOP.

This shop at Sing Sing prison gives employment to many of the inmates of the institution.

Making use of "convict labor," as it is called, meets with some difficulties. Labor unions object to having convict-made articles put on the market like other goods because they say these are sold for a lower figure and hurt the sale of goods made by free labor. This in turn, they say, lowers the standard of wages. To satisfy this argument, goods made by convicts are sometimes used by the asylums, hospitals, and other institutions managed by the state itself.

But if a prison makes more brooms, for example, than these institutions need, what is to be done with them? A prison can not afford to conduct too many kinds of factories.

Criminals can now find employment after they are released more easily than they could formerly, because employers are willing to give them an opportunity to show what they can do. Some churches and charitable societies make a specialty of helping such people. There is no sense in marking a person forever as a "jailbird" merely because he went wrong once.

Can you imagine how a repentant burglar might feel when he was released from jail? What would be the best way to help him?

147. **Young Criminals.** — Nowhere is the reform in handling criminals more evident than in the way we deal with young offenders. Once we threw them into jail with tramps and toughs, and what they did not know when they went in, they did know when they came out. But now we have in every well-governed community a juvenile court for all law-breakers under eighteen years of age. Here the method of procedure is different from that in the regular courts. The judge tries to get at the heart of the child and discover what is wrong with him. He wants to reform the wayward boy or girl and set the offender on the right path.

If the offence is small, the judge sometimes merely rebukes the wrongdoer and lets him out on probation. He continues to go to school or to work, and is watched and directed by court officers. Sometimes home conditions are such that it is next to impossible for anybody to do right there. Sometimes bad company outside is responsible. All that is needed in some cases is a change of surroundings, and the court tries to find families who are willing to receive boys or girls and look after them.

If the offence a young person commits is serious, he is sent to a reform school. This should be situated away from the large cities. Here the young offenders are given

work to do, and taught trades, and efforts are made to give them higher morals and prepare them for good citizenship. In dealing with young criminals, wise officials try to give individual help. They investigate the causes of each person's offence, and make every effort to keep such people from taking up a criminal career. Unfortunately, the reform schools do not have as much influence for good as we should like.

Besides making people afraid of being punished if they do wrong, what other motives might you appeal to in order to induce them to do right?

148. Safeguards for Innocent People. — Sometimes a perfectly innocent person falls into such circumstances that he appears to have been guilty of wrongdoing. Sometimes wicked people do and say things to try to get good people "in wrong." Therefore our national Constitution and most

of our state constitutions give certain rights to accused people, in order to prevent the punishment of those who are innocent. Our national Constitution says, for example, that no warrant for arrest may be issued without probable cause, and that "no person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a



International

THE CHILDREN'S COURT BUILDING.

In this building are heard the cases which are brought to court in reference to the children of New York City.

presentment or indictment of a grand jury.” This means that before a person is tried for a serious crime, the case must be brought before a grand jury, in order to afford this additional safeguard against unreasonable interference with a person’s liberty.

No person who has been once acquitted by a jury may be tried again for the same offence. Every accused person has the right of trial by jury, and of securing witnesses in his defence. No one may be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; that is, no public officer or private citizen may interfere with another’s possessions or freedom unless he has been authorized to do so by some lawful authority.

Accused persons have the right to a speedy and public trial. One of the most cherished principles of English law is the writ of *habeas corpus*. This is meant to make certain that no person may be held in prison without being given a trial. The friends of any one who is in prison may obtain a writ or order from a judge, demanding a hearing of that person’s case.

A trial must take place in the state and district where the crime was committed, unless it can be shown that a fair trial could not be secured there, and the accused must be informed of the cause of the accusation. “Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted”; but of course the courts have to decide what amounts would be “excessive” in any particular case, and whether any particular form of punishment violates this provision.

Why do you suppose the Constitution provides all these safeguards from the government? Do you think they are right and necessary?

149. Are There Different Standards of Right? — Standards of right living differ among different groups of people. Some things which are considered wrong in some places are thought to be right in other communities and among other people. For instance, some of the religious

rites of uncivilized peoples, such as human sacrifice, are entirely contrary to our code of morals.

For this reason, in judging a person's morals, we must take into consideration the moral standards of the group in which he lives. Because of this, right can not be estimated altogether by individuals. In ancient times, the moral man was the one who did not do that which was forbidden. By and by people came to demand more—that one should do what seemed positively right, and should choose definitely between right and wrong.

Sometimes we set up different standards as to our attitude and actions toward our own community from those which we follow toward outsiders and other communities. We are likely to be selfish in this respect. We wink at things in our own life or that of our friends or our community which we criticize harshly in others. It is not altogether fair, therefore, to judge every person by the same moral code. One person may be a leader and a real power for righteousness in a rough frontier community, who would be classed as a crude, ignorant "nobody" in a cultured New England neighborhood whose people like to pretend that most of their ancestors came over in the Mayflower.

What unfairness often results, however, when people who already enjoy special privileges assume that they are too good to be governed by the same standards of conduct which they set up for other people! Too often the people who are rich and influential think they should be free to do just as they please, and others are willing to bow down to them. It sometimes seems as if money can buy everything; it certainly has a great influence.

Even the courts sometimes favor a rich man rather than a poor man. The rich man can afford high-priced lawyers to take advantage of every legal trick to relieve him of his obligations. The rich murderer is called "insane." The poor man goes to jail. Merely to say this makes us realize

how unfair it all is. It is one of the things that turn people into Bolsheviks and anarchists. It is something that we must correct just as fast as we can, and in trying to correct it we shall have the help of many rich men who are thoroughly right-minded and want only a square deal for themselves.

In most cities somebody in authority gives out "police cards" to his political friends. People who have them feel free to break all the speed laws and traffic rules in existence, knowing that they will simply have to show their cards, and will not have to pay any penalty. Personal friendships and enmities often enter into "justice." A judge or magistrate will sometimes let his friends go free or go through the motions of fining them, and later give their money back. This is grossly unfair. It encourages law-breaking and the evil use of money, and leads to disrespect for all authority, good or bad.

Did you ever see anything done under the name of the law in your community which did not seem to be fair? Are poor people always fair in judging rich people?

150. How Should We Act Toward Other People? — Most of us are inclined to consider our own rights more than those of others. In the eyes of the law all men are, or should be, equal, and each person is entitled to the same rights. All men, says the Declaration of Independence, are entitled to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

We may class the rights of the individual under three heads:

(1) *Personal security.*—That is the right to enjoy life, health, and a good reputation. If somebody tells lies about us, he is guilty of slander. If he writes or prints untruths, he utters a libel. If he does either of these things or conducts himself so as to cause us to risk our lives or our material welfare, we have a right to compel him to pay us whatever can be reckoned as the money cost to us of his wrongdoing. And the courts will, if necessary, issue an

injunction commanding him to refrain from such unfairness. We are even allowed to carry weapons if necessary to defend ourselves; but the laws of most states require us to do so publicly and to get permission for it, usually, if we believe we are in danger.

(2) *Personal liberty*.—This is the right to act freely, to speak, to print or write, to travel, to meet with others, to ask the government to attend to our grievances, as long as we respect the rights of other people. In time of war, these privileges may have to be restrained, for some among us might ignorantly or intentionally threaten the safety of the nation by loose or incorrect statements or by giving information to our enemies. But in time of peace we may have full liberty in this respect, if we do not circulate falsehoods or seek to overthrow our government.

(3) *Private property*.—This means the right to buy, use, and sell possessions of any kind, if this is done in a lawful way. Not even the government may take this from us if we are using it rightly, unless it pays us what the property is worth. Of course it collects some of our wealth in a public way, as taxes, to pay for what it does for us. It may not even ask us to



A WORKHOUSE CORRIDOR.

This whole row of cells can be locked or unlocked from one place.

maintain soldiers in our private homes, except that in time of war it may pay us for doing so.

We should respect these rights of other people as we expect them to respect our rights—in short, we should put into practice the Golden Rule. If every one acted in accordance with it, we would have little trouble with our neighbors.

151. How Should We Act Toward the Government? — We have duties toward our government as well as toward other people. Some of these we shall say more about later. One duty which we have already mentioned is voting. After officers are elected, it is our duty to respect their authority and obey the laws which they pass. It is never right to be a mere “kicker.” If a person thinks something is wrong and should be corrected, he can urge that it be changed when the proper time arrives; but meantime he must be obedient.

Every individual should show his loyalty toward the government by supporting it willingly. Once, when kings and their officers were selfish tyrants, it seemed necessary to limit their conduct by various laws so that they might not take away the people’s liberty. Some of these old restrictions have come down to us to-day. Perhaps it is just as well that some of them do survive, for it does not always follow that a person is going to be fair and just simply because he was elected by the people. Indeed, the fact that a majority of the people voted for him might make him think he could treat as he pleased those who had supported another candidate. But we do not need to worry much about such a danger. Most of us will not get in trouble with our government if we obey the laws as far as we know them and treat others as we would ourselves.

What can you do for your government now, before you obtain the full rights of a citizen? Is there any excuse for the “moonshiner’s” disregard of the law?

152. A Survey of Our Judicial System. — We know that the purpose of the courts is to give justice to all people,

and to protect the rights of both the individual and the government. But how is this important work done? Let us be sure to understand that it is divided among the national, state, and local governments, and that each operates in its own particular field.

The chief judicial officer in most local governments is



STATE PRISON, WINDSOR, VERMONT.

Many prisoners are employed outside during the day, returning to their cells at night. Across the street from this building are some of the finest residences in Windsor.

the *justice of the peace*. He performs marriages and other legal ceremonies. He may give a hearing when a person is accused of crime, and conduct trials which do not involve matters of great importance. In some places he is called the "squire," and is elected term after term by the people. The *chief burgess* in a Pennsylvania borough is both the chief executive and the chief judicial officer, and he con-

ducts cases involving the breaking of borough ordinances. In the cities, the police magistrates give hearings in offences against state laws, and punish those who break city ordinances. Some cities also have *aldermen* or *magistrates* whose duties are much like those of a justice of the peace.

The county plays a very important part in the judicial system of most states. Almost every county has its court, which tries both civil and criminal cases. In Pennsylvania civil cases are tried under the name of the Court of Common Pleas, and criminal cases under that of the court of Quarter Sessions, or the Court of Oyer and Terminer. In some states these courts are called District Courts. These have mostly *original* jurisdiction—that is, they try cases which have not been heard in any other court.

The courthouse and jail are usually situated at some central part of the county, which is called the *county seat*. The *sheriff* makes arrests and keeps order in the county. Every county court has its *judges*, whose number varies in different states and different counties. These judges conduct trials and impose sentences when people are convicted of lawbreaking.

Although the county or district courts are in some respects the most important subdivisions in the state judicial system, there are higher state courts. These pass under various names. In Pennsylvania they are called the Superior and the Supreme Courts. In New York the Supreme Court is organized in different divisions, each covering a certain part of the state, and there is one Court of Appeals, which is the highest court in the state.

These have usually *appellate* jurisdiction—that is, if a person is not satisfied with the way a case has been tried in a county court he may appeal his case to one of these higher courts. Sometimes these courts, as the Supreme Court in New York, hear many original cases also. Of course, they do not, in handling appeals, necessarily change the verdict or order a new trial, but they may do so if

they find a serious flaw in the way the case has been handled.

The Supreme Court (in New York, the Court of Appeals) has the final word in deciding what shall be done in very important cases. If any claim is made that a law is contrary to the constitution of the state or of the United States, this court may decide upon it. We must have these courts to give even criminals fair and just trials, and to offer every citizen the chance to get justice at the hands of his fellows. If a mistake is made by the lower courts, the opportunity still remains to appeal to higher authority.

One fact people often do not understand. There is a distinct division of authority between the courts of the state and those of the nation. The state courts deal with all those who break the state laws. As most crimes, even murder, are violations of state laws, most of such cases are tried by the state courts. So, lawsuits between citizens of the same state, though they involve millions of dollars, belong in the courts of that state.

But there are certain cases which do not come under state jurisdiction, and these are tried by federal courts. These cases may be divided into three groups;

(1) All cases involving laws of Congress or the national Constitution.

(2) Cases arising between states, or between citizens of different states or between states and foreign countries. These might not receive an unprejudiced hearing in a state court.

(3) All cases which do not concern particular states, such as those relating to ambassadors and foreign ministers, and to crimes committed on the seas, or to treaties made by the national government with a foreign government.

These are the only kinds of cases that may be tried in the federal courts. They have absolutely nothing to do with state laws and crimes committed against those laws. Neither can any cases arising under the laws of a state be

appealed to the national courts, unless the claim is made that the state law is contrary to the national Constitution or laws. Such cases sometimes occur, however.

Our national court system has three grades: District Courts, Circuit Courts of Appeals, and a Supreme Court. In every state there is a federal District Court, and in the large states two or three, and even four in New York and



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THE MOST POWERFUL COURT IN THE WORLD.

The Supreme Court of the United States is composed of men of dignity and ability and its decisions command respect from the entire nation.

Texas. There is at least one judge in every district. These courts have original jurisdiction only, in all cases affecting federal laws. Each district has a United States marshal, who makes arrests, and United States Commissioners who give hearings. A United States district attorney represents the government in trials, and cases are tried by jury, the procedure being much the same as in the county courts. Lawsuits between citizens of different

states may also come before the District Courts. But to prevent the bringing of too many such cases there, a law of Congress requires that all such suits which do not involve more than \$3000 shall be tried in a state court rather than a federal court.

Higher than the District Courts are the Circuit Courts of Appeals. The country is divided into nine circuits, each comprising several states, and having from two to five judges. The Circuit Courts are held at different places in the circuit. They have appellate jurisdiction only, and hear appeals without a jury and without witnesses, the lawyers for each side presenting the case. The decision of these courts is in most cases final, unless there is a question of constitutionality, when the case may be appealed to the Supreme Court.

The Supreme Court is the highest court in the United States. It is composed of a chief justice and eight associate justices, appointed by the President "during good behavior," which usually means for life—and so are all other federal judges. It meets in Washington, and tries cases which are appealed from the lower courts. It has original jurisdiction only in cases concerning foreign representatives, or disputes between states. Its members are both judge and jury. The decision of the Supreme Court is absolutely final.

It also interprets laws and the Constitution, and determines whether or not laws that are passed are unconstitutional. If this court says a law is unconstitutional, then no officer may enforce it, no matter how strongly he may believe in it himself. Understand, of course, that the court may not set aside a law just because the judges do not like it. Unless in their opinion it conflicts with the Constitution, they must let it stand. It is very desirable that the Supreme Court should work in harmony with the executive and legislative departments, because its decisions must be carried out by some one.

In addition to these courts there are several special courts, established to deal with special cases. The Court of Claims hears cases of claims for money against the United States. It has five judges who meet at Washington. If the claimant wins the cases, the court asks Congress for an appropriation to meet the demand. The Court of Customs Appeals deals with cases concerning the tariff laws. It is also



PENNSYLVANIA STATE CONSTABULARY ON DUTY.

These men have gained a high reputation for efficiency by the way they have handled the many troublesome cases with which they have been called upon to deal.

composed of five judges. All territories have their courts, and the District of Columbia also has its special courts.

Do you think any improvements might be made in our judicial organization? Do the courts carry out the American ideas of justice? Do you think it is desirable to have the federal judges appointed for life? Why?

153. Executive Officers Who Aid the Courts.—The decisions of the courts would be of little value unless they

were carried out. In our governments we therefore have various executive officials who help the judicial officers. Those who make arrests are the police in cities, constables in townships, villages, and boroughs, and sheriffs in counties. Many of these officers are aided by several deputies. The district attorney of the county finds evidence against a criminal and conducts the case against him.

In the states, the attorney-general is the legal advisor of all the state officials, and also represents the state in legal cases. The governor is the chief executive and he, of course, can aid the courts and see that their decisions are carried out. The "state constabulary," a special state police force maintained in several states, may be sent by the governor to any place within the state to help in any difficulty, such as a strike or a riot. The governor may even call out the state militia or National Guard to keep order and force obedience to the law.

Sometimes a criminal's friends, or perhaps even his jailer, may feel that he has repented for his wrong doing and has been punished enough. Then they ask for a pardon for him. In some states the whole responsibility for granting pardons rests upon the governor. Other states, such as Pennsylvania, have a Board of Pardons, which recommends to the governor the granting or refusing of a pardon. Such a board is usually composed of three or four men, generally public officials, and the governor is usually very glad to have this responsibility taken from him and distributed among several people.

In the national government is the Department of Justice, with the Attorney-General at its head. He gives legal advice to the President and other officers. Some member of the Department of Justice is connected with every trial of cases involving federal laws. We have already mentioned the United States district attorneys, marshals, and commissioners. There is one in connection with every federal district court. The President executes the

laws and carries out the decisions and verdicts of the judicial officers, and may grant pardons to those who have been convicted of breaking a national law.

We may now put together in a table the titles of officials whose services help to promote right living.

LOCAL	STATE	NATIONAL
Constable	Governor	President
Justice of the Peace	Attorney-General	Department of Treasury
		Secret Service
Burgess	State Constabulary	Department of Justice
Mayor	National Guard	Attorney-General
Department of Public Safety	Courts	Courts
Bureau of Police		District
Bureau of Detectives		District Attorney
		Marshal
		Commissioners
Magistrates		Judges
Aldermen		Circuit
Sheriff		Judges
District Attorney		Supreme
County or District Courts		Justices

Many other bureaus or branches of local, state, or national governments, such as those dealing with education, health, labor, and the like, publish and circulate pamphlets and bulletins that urge people to live better in some way or other.

Make over this table so as to fit your own locality.

154. **Your Responsibility and Mine.** — Even with all this machinery for making people do right and punishing them if they do wrong, the individual citizen can do as much to promote right living as any of the other elements which we have discussed. Our first responsibility is to understand the laws. We should try to be thoroughly familiar with the rules of our school, and the laws of our local, state, and national government. It is no excuse to say that we do not know the law, and break it out of ignorance. A judge will usually be lenient once with a person

who has unknowingly broken a law, but the legal principle still stands, "Ignorance of the law excuses no one." At the very least, knowing and obeying the law will save us from getting into trouble and inconvenience.

After we know the laws, we must obey them. We learn obedience everywhere, in the home, the school, and every phase of life. Obedience is always necessary. It is one of the best things that school teaches us. Laws are not made to restrict, but to guide our actions in the right path. We should obey them, knowing that we are merely doing our part to make our communities what they should be, and are not bowing down to laws made simply to limit our freedom. And we must not forget our own consciences. We usually have little trouble to know what is right and what is wrong, and we should carry out our convictions in our lives.

The third step is coöperation. In every chapter, we have spoken of this as the very foundation of success. That is true in regard to right living also.

Religious organizations do their work through the coöperation of all their members. Charitable and social service is accomplished by means of working together, and public opinion, which is such a wonderful factor in making improvements along all lines, is simply the combined principles and views of all. There is more of this spirit of coöperation than there used to be, but we need still more of it.



A BOY SCOUT ON DUTY.

This scout's job is not specially easy but he seems glad to do it.

To all agencies for promoting right living we can give our sympathy and support. The churches, the schools, the Y. M. C. A. and similar organizations, all need our help. Even in arresting law-breakers and helping public officers to do their duty, we may sometimes be called upon for aid. Any policeman or sheriff has the right, if necessary, to call for the assistance of citizens in catching law-breakers and keeping the peace. We should always willingly serve on jury when we are called, and strive to form an honest and intelligent opinion on any cases that come before us. We can help released criminals to obtain honest work. And we can help to improve conditions in the community or state so that fewer people will be tempted to go astray. Sometimes the fault does not all rest on the criminal.

If every person would feel his responsibility to do these four things, our country would surely be a pleasant place to live in!

What would you say if some one told you that a certain person was a thief? Would you ask any questions? If you knew that a personal friend was a law-breaker, would you have any duty in the matter? Should a person be looked upon as a "tell-tale" if he informs public officers of violation of the law?

QUESTIONS

Why should the government aid in maintaining high moral standards? To what extent in general can it do this? Distinguish between *common law* and *statute law*.

What is the difference between morals and religion? Why do we have different religious denominations? What things in common do all religious denominations try to do? What is the relation between the government and churches in this country? How does this differ from that which prevailed formerly?

Mention organizations not a part of the churches which help people to live better. How far can the schools promote right living? What differences of opinion exist about teaching religion in the schools?

Distinguish between *sin*, *vice*, and *crime*. Mention the principal causes of crime.

Why do we have courts? Distinguish between *civil cases* and

criminal cases. Define: *plaintiff*, *defendant*, *attorney*, *arrest*, *warrant*, *hearing*, *bail*, *grand jury*, *damages*. Trace the steps in conducting a civil suit. Trace the steps in the trial of a criminal case. What are our legal customs in regard to the *petty jury*? What is done in case a person accused of crime tries to avoid trial by running away?

What was the old attitude in regard to dealing with criminals? Compare prisons in the old days and today. Define *indeterminate sentence*, *probation*, *convict labor*. What should be done for a criminal after he is released? What is done with young offenders? Do they need different treatment from others?

What provisions are put in our constitutions to protect an innocent person from punishment? Define *habeas corpus*. Is it right that people in different social classes should be treated differently when they go wrong? What are some practices that public officers should avoid in order to be just?

What three different classes of rights does each individual possess? Give some special examples under each of the classes of rights. Do we have rights that our neighbors do not? Do we have rights against our government? What in general are our duties toward our government?

What is a *justice of the peace*? What other local officers have judicial power? Under what names are county courts conducted? What are our state courts called? What is the relation between state courts and national courts? Distinguish between *original* and *appellate jurisdiction*.

What kinds of cases are always tried in federal courts? Why? Name the three grades of the regular federal courts. How are the district courts organized and what do they do? Explain the work of the circuit courts of appeals. Describe the Supreme Court of the United States. What is the relation between the Supreme Court and the laws of the nation? What are the special federal courts?

What officers may arrest people? What officers assist the courts in making and carrying out their decision? What are the duties of the attorney-general? How may a criminal be pardoned?

What is our duty in regard to knowledge of the law? When we know the laws what should be our attitude toward them? How can we assist in law enforcement?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

How a Trial is Conducted. (Some of the class may visit a trial, and then plan a mock trial in which the class may take part. If you do this, be careful not to ask the witnesses to "tell the truth and nothing but the truth" unless they are really going to do so.)

A Visit to a County Workhouse or Jail.

A Modern Prison.

Judge Ben B. Lindsay.

Thomas M. Osborne.

The Supreme Court of the United States.

The Highest Court of Our State.

The Judges of Our County Court.

My Experiences After Getting out of Prison. (Imaginary.)

What My Church Believes in. (This subject should not be taken up if it is likely to lead to unpleasant discussion. But if the proper spirit is in the class it will be very enlightening if each member writes on this topic and the best papers are read by the teacher.)

Resolved, that a system of religious teaching should be introduced in the public schools.

The Work of the Boy Scouts.

Scout Organizations for Girls.

Resolved, that the best way to remove crime is to make everybody happy.

Resolved, that the State should see to it that both parties at law should have legal advice.

Resolved, that no one should be punished for breaking a law that he did not know about.

An Experience As a Juror.

The History and Ideals of Roger Williams.

Resolved, that everybody should try to settle his differences with other people outside of court.

HOW OUR PEOPLE GOVERN THEMSELVES

CHAPTER XI

SOME AMERICAN IDEAS ABOUT GOVERNMENT

We will never bring disgrace to this, our city, by any act of dishonesty or cowardice, nor ever desert our companions. We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in others. We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty, that thus in all these ways we may transmit this city greater, better, and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

—Oath of the Athenian Youths.

155. **Majority Rule.** — We have been thinking up to this time mainly of the things which our governments have to do or wish to do. In doing this, we have often been obliged to speak of the officials who actually conduct the government's work in promoting the various *Elements of Welfare*. Now we want to get a general view, so to speak, of the government in action, and find out what the machinery is made of. But first of all, perhaps, we should notice a few of the principles which are at the bottom of our American ideas of the way a government ought to be conducted.

Americans are very proud of their country. We boast of this great democracy, of government by the people. One of the great principles of American government is that of majority rule—that is, the carrying out of the will of the greater part of the people. The nominee at an election who gets the majority of votes is considered the people's choice.

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By the way, we must be careful not to confuse the words *majority* and *plurality*. A majority is more than half of all the people concerned or of all the votes cast—the difference between the highest vote and all others put together; a plurality is the difference between the highest vote and the next highest, or some other comparison which concerns only two numbers. In the election of most officers, only a plurality is needed; in a few cases, as in counting the electoral votes for President (§201) there must be a majority.

We believe in majority rule in this country because we assume that all the people are politically equal, and that the wish of the greater part of them should guide the policy of the government. In your activities in school or in any other place, you apply the principle of majority rule. Suppose you are choosing a captain for a team, or officers in a club or society. Those whom the greater number of the people wish are elected to office. Very often, perhaps, your class or club may require only a plurality instead of a majority in making elections. But in any case you follow the wishes of the largest number who express their opinion, for this is the way to bring the greatest satisfaction all around.

It is only reasonable to expect that more people will wish to do right than wrong, and, that on great public questions, a majority of the people will try to take the right stand rather than the wrong one. Therefore, by carrying out the wishes of the majority, the government usually does what is right, or at least what suits the greater number. Even to do a good thing is very difficult if more people are against it than for it. Sometimes it may be necessary for people to learn by sad experience that they are on the wrong track. After trying the wrong, they may be more willing to do the better thing. But we must prevent such waste of time and energy and money whenever we can.

In studying history and politics you will find cases when

a minority has gained control of a government. Very often, even in our own country, we have been governed by the wishes of a plurality rather than of a majority. This sometimes can not be helped. Our system of electing a President, for example (§201), more often than not puts a man into the office who has not been the first choice of a majority of all the people, and sometimes favors a man who has not had even a plurality in the popular vote.

In some countries we have found the government run by the aristocrats, who are always in the minority. This, of course, is not doing justice to the masses of common people, whom, as Abraham Lincoln said, God must have loved because he made so many of them. On the other hand, we have seen in Russia an example of a government carried on in the name of the manual laborers, but really managed by a very small group of men. It is no more fair for the so-called "upper" classes to have nothing to say about government than it is for the "lower" classes to be denied a voice. Every person should have some part in the government of his country.

Make a list of instances in your own experience in school, church, club, or elsewhere, in which the will of the *majority* was carried out. Make another list of cases in which the wish of a *plurality* was sufficient.

But how does a certain element gain authority and power? A government must have authority, or it might as well quit. It sometimes obtains this by war and violence, as in cases where a government is overthrown and another one set up. We have an example of this also in Russia. Sometimes this may be necessary. Our own country gained its independence in this manner. There seemed to be no other way of convincing stubborn old George III and his corrupt Parliament. Among primitive people only the strong man counted, and only fighting power could win respect.

But are strife and bloodshed necessary to gain authority? What does war prove, anyway? Nothing whatever except which side is stronger. Of course a person may fight more determinedly if his conscience tells him he is right, but there are too many examples to the contrary to let us believe that the right will win merely because it is the right. There are surely other means of settling arguments and obtaining power than by physical force.



Courtesy Bureau of Construction and Repair
ON A UNITED STATES TORPEDO BOAT.

Torpedo tubes extend over each side of the boat.

The transfer of power from one political party to another in the United States shows that this can be done by means of the ballot. By their vote, the people may show what they think and believe, and what officers they want in power. In fact, much more can be accomplished by this peaceful, reasonable means than by violence and strife. We do not always use good judgment in voting. But if the people who are on the right side can not get a majority

of votes in an election, they would probably lose if they would try to settle things by a fight. And think how many lives and how much money and property would be lost that way! Only when some very great principle of honor is at stake, or in defence of life itself, have we any right to resort to war.

But when a majority of the people have elected their officers and gained authority in the government, what shall they do to make it a success? Too often when people get into power they govern with no thought or consideration for the interests of others or of the community as a whole, but provide simply for their own selfish interests. They put their friends in office, often without considering their qualifications. This practice is commonly called the "spoils system." They frequently run things in a high-handed manner, thinking only of getting all they can out of the situation.

This idea is all wrong. The victors in an election are given an opportunity to serve, not to grab. They have a responsibility and an obligation to protect the interests of all the people, and to promote the welfare of the whole town or city or state or nation. This thought we are not likely to emphasize too often.

Do you think the practice of putting members of other political parties out of office and appointing those who belong to the party in power is a good one? Why?

156. **The Rights of the Minority.** — Even though our government is controlled by the majority of the people, the minority has some rights, and has a real place in political life. The opposition of the minority serves to check those in power, and keep them from acting like tyrants. A minority is not necessarily in the wrong, and its views should receive some consideration. There are usually some members of the minority party in the law-making bodies of our government, and through them, great ques-

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tions and measures are debated, and thus brought before the country.

One of the important rights which our national and state constitutions guarantee to the minority is that of free speech. The national Constitution says, "Congress shall make no law . . . abridging the freedom of speech or of the press." This does not mean that people may slander the government or other people at will, but that they have a right to express their opinions and advocate their principles on various subjects. The free press also gives them the opportunity to do this. The trouble is that many people mistake liberty for license to do wrong, and abuse their rights in such a way as sometimes to cause decent citizens in disgust to wish they could limit the wild talk of reckless faultfinders. But to keep liberty safe for good citizens we have to put up with occasional abuses of it by others.

Under what conditions do you think the government has a right to restrain free speech? Has a person the right to say things about public officers which he would not say about the same people in private life? Does the Golden Rule apply in such cases?

157. **Government by Representatives.** — When our Puritan forefathers came to this country and settled in New England, they formed towns, which were the centers of their political life. They made their laws at a "town meeting," at which every voter took a direct part in legislation. New England towns still have the town meeting. But you can see that it would be a physical impossibility for 50,000,000 voters to take an actual part in making the laws. So, in order to give the people a voice in the government and still have governmental organizations small enough to be handled properly, we have *representative* government. That is, the people act through officers whom they elect.

Representative government is one of the most cherished principles of English government. It is perhaps England's

greatest political gift to the world. When our American forefathers said, "Taxation without representation is tyranny," they declared that they were simply standing up for their rights as Englishmen. The idea of representative government is not new. It goes back to the early days of English history.

In the last century England has carried representative government, some would say, even further than it has gone in our own country. The House of Lords, whose members



WHERE THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT MEETS.

These famous buildings in London have been the scene of many famous events in history.

inherited their titles or were given them in the name of the king, has lost virtually all real power in the government. The king always signs any bill which is passed by Parliament, so that in reality the House of Commons, whose members are chosen by direct vote of the people, has political power almost entirely in its own hands.

In our own country, the first meeting of representatives of the people was that of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1619. Almost every other English colony had such a representative body from the beginning of its existence.

When the Revolution threatened, a Continental Congress came together to look after the common interest of the colonies; and when war broke out, the second Congress assembled, and after a little over a year declared independence in the name of the United States of America. This Congress was the forerunner of the Congress called for by the Articles of Confederation, and this in turn gave way to the government under our present constitution.

In all representative governments political parties become very important as agents of the people. People with the same political ideas and principles tend to band together and make organized efforts to put their candidates into office. These persons are then supposed to uphold and carry out the principles of their party during their term of office. As we shall see later (§204), political parties sometimes produce unfortunate results, but we have not yet found a way to get along without them.

158. **The Federal Idea.**—Another fact about our government we should be sure to understand—it is organized on the *federal* principle. A federal government is a form of government in which there is a union of several parts, with power divided between the central government and the smaller political units. Canada and Australia are examples of this as well as the United States. In Australia and the United States, the subordinate parts are called states; in Canada they are called provinces. If the power of the central government is strong, and the states give up supreme power or sovereignty to it, the government is called a *federation*; if the power of the central government is relatively weak, and the states retain sovereignty in their own hands, it is called a *confederation*. The form of government in the United States is a *federal republic*.

Why do we have this federal form rather than some other? It was the result of both history and necessity. The thirteen original states once existed as separate colonies,

each with its own distinct government. Of course they were all weak, and, taken separately, could do little either to defend their rights or to promote the welfare of all. They were jealous of each other and had many disputes among themselves. The coming of the Revolution compelled them to act together.

At length, in 1781, the states combined forces under the Articles of Confederation. But these "Articles" were very weak, and gave practically no real power to the central government. The states were afraid they would lose their identity and sovereignty, and they wanted to rule themselves. But several far-sighted men realized that the states could not make successful headway under the Articles of Confederation.

In 1787 a convention met in Philadelphia and drew up our present national Constitution. This is a very wonderful document. It contains the plan of the government, gives certain powers to the national and to the state governments, and in its first ten amendments sets forth the rights and privileges of the people.

There was a great deal of opposition to the Constitution. Many people honestly believed that it established a tyranny over the states, and took away their natural rights. But it was finally ratified by the states, and it has proved to be a foundation for a great government. In all these years only nineteen amendments have been made; ten of these were a sort of bill of rights passed shortly after the ratification of the Constitution. The Constitution is not perfect but every American can be proud of it.

The powers which the Constitution gives to the national government are set forth chiefly in Article I, Section 8. They may be divided into four groups:

- (1) The control of all relations with foreign countries.
- (2) The control of war.
- (3) All matters concerning foreign commerce and commerce between the states.

(4) All matters concerning the territories and other property that belongs to the nation as a whole, as distinct from that which belongs to states or individuals.

These are matters in which the states have no authority. But they have a great many powers left in their hands by the Constitution. Some of these are education, care of health, regulation of local government, care of the unfortunate, construction and upkeep of highways, protection of life and property—in fact, the elements of welfare which we have discussed are carried on for the greater part by the state governments.

159. **Making New States.** — We started with thirteen states. Now we have forty-eight. Congress has entire authority in the matter of admitting new states to the union, except when states are made either partially or entirely from the land within another state. Then the consent of the legislature of any state that is affected must be obtained. Besides the thirteen original states, most of the states have been territories at one time, and have come into the union by the following process:

Congress passes what is called an “enabling act.” This authorizes the people of a territory to elect delegates to a convention, which draws up a state constitution. This is submitted to the people of the territory and to Congress, and if it is approved, the President makes a proclamation that a new state has been admitted to the union. On the next Fourth of July the stars in the flag are increased by one.

There are no laws requiring any particular area or population for a state when it is admitted to the union, and after a state is admitted, there is no way of getting rid of it without its own consent. Congress is expected to act wisely in this matter, and it has usually done so. Nevada and some other states, however, were admitted for political purposes, and today you could make ten Nevadas out of the city of Cleveland, as far as population is concerned.

In some instances, special provisions have been made in admitting states. In Oklahoma, the liquor traffic was forbidden for 21 years for the benefit of the Indians, and Utah could not come in until the practice of polygamy had been forbidden. Your acquaintance with American history will tell you about the special questions of great importance that were connected with the admission of Missouri and California.

Find out how your state came into the union. Were any special circumstances connected with its admission? If it was one of the original thirteen, look up the story of its ratification of the Constitu-



McCullough, Phoenix

THE STATE CAPITOL OF ARIZONA.

This is the headquarters of the public officials of our newest state.

tion. Do you think there should be area and population requirements for new states? Why? Are any new states in sight now?

160. **Territories.** — At the close of the Revolution, seven of the thirteen states claimed part of the land west of the Alleghany Mountains, but they finally gave it to the government as common property of the United States. The Constitution gives Congress the power to govern all territories. It does this with a view to their becoming states at some time.

The President appoints a governor and other executive

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and judicial officers for the territories. Their terms are usually for four years. The people of the territory elect a legislature composed of two houses. Its laws may be vetoed by the governor, or disapproved by Congress. The people elect a delegate or commissioner to the House of Representatives, who has no vote, but may take part in debates. At present the territories of the United States are Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico.



Courtesy Bureau of Construction and Repair
A UNITED STATES WARSHIP IN THE PANAMA CANAL.

161. **Possessions.** — Besides the territories, the United States owns other lands, which are called *colonies* or *possessions*. These are, at present, the islands of Guam, Tutuila, and the Virgin Islands, the Philippines, and the Panama Canal Zone. The three first named are managed by naval officers, and the Canal Zone by a civil governor and some subordinates.

The Philippines have a government somewhat different

from that of any other possession. The President appoints a governor and vice governor, who must be Americans, and three other executives who may be either Americans or Filipinos. The men who are old enough, and can read and write some dialect or language, elect a legislature composed of a senate and a house of representatives, and two commissioners to the United States House of Representatives.

The Philippines need special government because conditions there are so different from those in any other region under our control. Our government's aim in this matter is to give the Filipinos gradually more authority and responsibility over their own affairs. They nearly govern themselves now. The independence of these islands is a much disputed question. We have promised to grant it when they are "ready" for it, but who knows when we will think that they are ready?

The District of Columbia is on a different basis from any of these possessions. The District is considered to be the property of the whole country, and is governed directly under laws of Congress. The actual administration of these laws is in the hands of three Commissioners appointed by the President. The people who live in the District permanently do not vote for anybody or anything, but Congressmen and other public officers consider that their legal residence is back home where they came from, and vote there.

162. **The Departments of Government.** — In every government, three functions must be performed. These are law-making, law-enforcing, and law-applying. For these purposes, our government is divided into three departments—legislative, executive, and judicial. The legislative department is known as Congress, which is composed of the Senate and the House of Representatives, in the national government; the Legislature or General Assembly in the states; and the councils, trustees, commissioners, or the like, in local governments. The President, the

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Governor, and the Mayor, head the executive departments in the national, state, and city governments, respectively. The national and state courts, justices of the peace, aldermen, and police magistrates comprise the judicial departments. These departments are in theory entirely separate, and act independently.

163. Checks and Balances. — But in order to prevent any of these departments from becoming too powerful, our liberty-loving forefathers established what we call a “check and balance system.” This is a system by which each department of the government may restrain or “check” the actions of the others.

The President may veto an act of Congress, or the courts may declare it unconstitutional. Congress may, in turn, pass the bill over the President’s veto, by means of a two-thirds vote, or bring impeachment charges against the President or other executive officers or judges. In the state and local governments similar checks are usually established.

This system, established for the security of the people, has sometimes made legislation a long and cumbersome proceeding, and has made it impossible to get some things done at all. It often ceases to be a check and becomes merely a fight for control. This is especially true when the President and a majority of Congress are of different parties. It gives the opportunity, too, for each side to blame the other when things do not go rightly. If our departments would work together instead of each jealously watching the actions of the others, much more would be accomplished, and it is not probable that the people would forfeit any of their liberty.

Do you think Congress would be willing to propose a Constitutional amendment that would even partially abolish the check and balance system? Why?

164. The Importance of a Constitution. — We have defined a *constitution* as a group of the fundamental laws

for the government of a nation, state, city, or society. Now why do we have such constitutions? Not all governments have them in writing. England has no single document as a constitution, but the fundamental principles of its government are set forth in the Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights, and other vital laws which have been drawn up from time to time.

But a constitution sets forth the fundamental features of a government. It gives a basis upon which the government may work. In granting definite powers to certain bodies, the work of each department and of the officers in the department is clearly defined. No law may be passed which is contrary to the principles of the Constitution. In this way the rights of the people are not infringed upon.

A constitution will not become a drawback to any people if it contains provisions so that it can be amended and adapted to changing times. In order that a great many amendments will not have to be made, a constitution should be general in its statements, and not deal with many specific cases. It should set forth the framework and big fundamental features of government, but laws concerning details and minor matters can be made and altered from time to time. A constitution, then, gives a basis for the government, with some specific assignment of duties to officials, outlines the administration of the government, and protects the rights of individuals from the power of the government, putting into their hands the ability to change the constitution if they wish.

Why do you suppose England can get along without a definite, written constitution? Are there any advantages in doing so? Do Americans need a written constitution more than other people?

165. **What a Constitution Contains.** — There are at least five general divisions in almost every constitution. These are:

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(1) A *preamble*, or a statement of the purpose of the constitution.

(2) An outline of the framework of the government.

(3) Provisions for the duties of the officials and the powers which they may exercise.

(4) A bill of rights, that is, an outline of the rights of the people, and provisions for their protection.

(5) A "schedule," that is, a statement of the time and manner of putting the constitution into effect.

Our national Constitution is constructed on this general plan. Its purpose is set forth in the Preamble. Learn it. The main body of the Constitution is divided into seven *Articles*, which are subdivided into *Sections*. Be able to tell the subject of each article.

We have made nineteen amendments to the Constitution. The first ten of these are in the nature of a Bill of Rights. They were passed shortly after the ratification of the Constitution, because the people were afraid that their rights might be taken away from them. The eleventh amendment forbids a citizen to bring suit against a state in the United States courts. Probably this amendment was a mistake. The twelfth requires presidential electors to vote for President and Vice-President separately. The thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth deal with slavery, giving the negroes freedom, equal rights as citizens, and the privilege of voting. These were passed after the Civil War. The sixteenth amendment provides that Congress may levy an income tax, and the seventeenth that United States Senators shall be chosen by popular vote. The eighteenth amendment prohibits the sale of intoxicating liquor, and the nineteenth, and last, extends the right of suffrage to women.

Study the organization of the United States Constitution so that you can readily find anything in it. What do you think of its construction? Does its language seem stilted, formal, or hard to understand?

166. **How Our Constitution Is Amended.**— In amending the United States Constitution, as with most constitutions, two steps are necessary—proposal and ratification. There are two possible ways of proposing amendments, and two of ratifying them. An amendment may be proposed by a two-thirds vote of the Senate and the House of Representatives, or Congress may call a convention, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the states, which will propose amendments. They are then submitted to the states for ratification, and they must be ratified by three-fourths of the states, acting through their legislatures or special conventions, before they become a part of the Constitution. All the amendments that have been made so far, however, have been proposed by Congress and ratified by the state legislatures. It is not probable that the other method of proposing amendments will ever be used, because when public sentiment becomes strong enough to make this possible, the amendment is usually proposed by Congress. It is entirely possible, however, that some means of getting a popular vote on the ratification of amendments may be seriously considered when any more are proposed.

Do you think there is any possibility of an amendment's being proposed and ratified which the people really do not want? Would it be better if amendments were ratified by a general popular vote? Is there any reason for insisting on a two-thirds vote in Congress to propose amendments?

167. **How Other Governments Differ from Ours.**— We must remember, in our study of government, that not all governments are like that of the United States. There are, or have been at some time, several different forms of government.

(1) A *monarchy* is a form of government in which the power is exercised by one person or in his name. If he has entire authority, the government is called an *absolute monarchy*; if his power is checked in any way, it is called a

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limited monarchy. There are no absolute monarchies today in the sense in which they used to exist. It was formerly true that in many cases the king or monarch of a country had the power of life and death over his subjects. But the authority of monarchs has been steadily decreasing, and the Great War destroyed several that had survived up to that time. Many countries, such as Great Britain and Italy, still keep up the custom of having a king at the head of the nation but he is usually little more than a figure-head.

(2) A government is called an *oligarchy* if it is controlled by a small portion of the people, and if these are the noblemen or people who have money, we call it an *aristocracy*. No government now is entirely aristocratic, although some of them are not entirely free from such features.

(3) A *democracy* is a government in which the people have direct power. Complete democracy is out of the question in most countries. Switzerland comes the nearest to being a pure democracy.

(4) A *republic* is a form of government in which the people act through officers whom they elect. This is now a very common form of government. There is no difference in spirit between a democracy and a republic, but simply a question of how the will of the people shall be exercised and executed. Some countries call themselves republics which do not really understand what self-government means.

The United States is a *federal* republic, as we have seen, but not all republics are federal. Many of them are divided into parts only for administrative purposes, as our states are divided into counties. France is an example of this—a *centralized*, not a federal government. England, although it is a monarchy in name, really has a republican form of government. Most of the South American countries are republics—in fact, there is a tendency everywhere in the world today to make governments republican. The war

made even Germany get rid of its Kaiser and set up a federal republic in place of the former federated empire.

In what ways are republics better than monarchies? Can you imagine a situation where a monarchy would be preferable? Would it be better if all countries had the same kind of government?

168. **The Cabinet System.** — What we call the “Cabinet” in our government is not an official body. It has grown out of custom. At first the heads of the different



OUR NATIONAL CAPITOL.

Do we need to tell you where this is and for what it is used?

departments were merely called together by the President to advise on various questions. Now the Cabinet meets regularly. But it is very different from the British Cabinet, from which it gets its name. Let us notice some of the greatest differences.

(1) The members of our Cabinet can not be members of Congress; members of the British Cabinet have seats in Parliament.

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(2) Our Cabinet can only advise the passage of laws, or get a Congressman to introduce a bill as a favor; the British Cabinet may propose laws, and generally control Parliament. It is really a sort of governing committee of Parliament.

(3) Our Cabinet members usually all belong to the President's party, and hold office as long as they please him; the British Cabinet belongs to the party that has control in the House of Commons, and its members hold office only as long as they can keep their authority in Parliament.

(4) The membership in the United States Cabinet is the same, except when new offices are permanently added, and the salary of all is \$12,000; the number of ministers in the British Cabinet varies, and the salaries differ according to the office.

(5) Members of our Cabinet often differ in opinion; the British Cabinet always acts as a unit.

(6) The President is the executive head of the United States, and controls our Cabinet, but he has no direct law-making power. The prime minister, or premier, is the real head of the British government. He holds office because he has been accepted as the leader of the House of Commons. Since the House of Lords and the King have almost no power, the Commons really make the laws, and the prime minister, as the head of the Cabinet, is also responsible in general for enforcing them.

Many more countries have a Cabinet system like that of Great Britain than have our "presidential" system.

Which system do you think is best? Why? Do you think some combination of both systems could be worked out? What features of each should be retained? Why?

169. **State Constitutions.** — Each state has its constitution, which is the supreme law of the state, just as the national Constitution is the supreme law of the nation. Nothing in a state constitution or law, however, which

conflicts with any point of the United States Constitution, can be valid. State constitutions have usually been drawn up by special conventions to which delegates were elected, and they are supposed to represent the real will and principles of the people. Most of them have been ratified by the people of the state. Amendments are often proposed by the state legislatures, and then usually submitted to the people for ratification. In states which have the initiative and referendum (§192) this method of amendment is often used.

State constitutions differ greatly, but they all contain outlines of the government and provisions for its administration, and all but one have a bill of rights. State constitutions are now much longer than the first ones were, partly because the country has grown and there are many more matters for the governments to deal with, and partly because there is now a tendency to include special provisions, and not to limit the statements to broad, general matters. States are usually more willing to amend their own constitutions than the national Constitution. Most of the states have adopted one or more constitutions since the first ones were made after the Revolution, some states having had as many as four or five.

Look over your own state constitution. When was it adopted? What divisions does it contain? Has your state had more than one constitution?

In the strict sense of the word a state is not sovereign, for its powers are limited by the Constitution of the United States. Yet it may do anything whatever that is not forbidden under the national Constitution or the constitution of the state. For instance, it has absolute power over the life and death of its citizens if necessary to keep order or to punish crime. It can take the property of citizens under the right of eminent domain, though in this case it must pay whatever the property is really worth. There

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is no limit to its right to exercise its police power unless such limits are fixed by constitutional provisions.

170. Subdivisions of States. — In order to make the administration of government easier, the states are subdivided into *counties*, and these into *cities*, *towns*, or *townships*, and *boroughs* or *villages*. The New England states are divided into towns. These originated in colonial days and still exist. In the early part of our history, the southern states were divided into counties. Since these states were mostly composed of large plantations, and most of the people did not live in villages, the county was the best system for them. The middle states have a combination of the two, the town-county, or mixed system. These three types exist not only in the eastern states, but have spread into the interior and the West.


These subdivisions are created by the state legislatures, either by passing a special law for each one, or by the means provided in a general law, depending on the custom of the state. Boroughs or villages are generally communities which grow up within a township and obtain a special government of their own. New York has no boroughs (except that the divisions of New York City are so named), but calls such communities villages. Pennsylvania does the opposite. In Pennsylvania, a borough is completely cut off from a township to which it belonged. In New York a village is still considered in several respects a part of the town within which it grew up. In making new divisions, some states have area and population requirements. In several western states the township was formed from the so-called "Congressional township," a district six miles square, which was used as a unit for surveying the land.

The county is, except in New England and in the case of a few large cities, the most important subdivision of the state. It can deal with its own people, their needs and their problems, better than the state governments, because it comes more closely in touch with them than the

state. For the same reason the other smaller divisions are made, to do certain things, such as giving fire and police protection, paving streets, maintaining schools,



CITY OF BOSTON



HEALTH DEPARTMENT

An Appeal to Tenants.

The Health Department urges that every tenant of these premises, for his own sake and for the sake of his fellow tenants, comply with the following instructions.

Wm. C. Woodward,
Health Commissioner.

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Keep your own rooms clean. 2. Throw no garbage, ashes or trash into the hallways, bathrooms, water-closets, or areaways, or on the stairs. If an accident happens, clean up at once. 3. Do not put garbage, ashes or trash into the cellar, yards, areaway or court, except into the cans, barrels and boxes provided for such materials. For garbage provide a water-tight, covered receptacle, preferably of metal. For ashes and rubbish the law requires metal receptacles. 4. If your garbage, ashes or rubbish is not taken away when it should be, report to the Department of Public Works, Room 508, City Hall Annex, Telephone Call, Fort Hill 5100, Branch 253. 5. Be careful when using water-closets, bathrooms and sinks. See that your children are careful, too. If an accident happens, clean up at once. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Let plenty of light and air into your rooms. Keep your windows clean and open. 7. Do not overcrowd your rooms. You cannot get enough light and air in if you overcrowd. 8. Keep clean your kitchen, your refrigerators and all pots, pans, dishes, etc., used in caring for and serving food. 9. Put nothing on your fire escape. It may be in your way in case of fire. 10. If you think your landlord or your neighbor does not do his part to keep the premises in good order, talk to him about it. If you do not get satisfaction report the matter to the Health Department, Room 1111, City Hall Annex, Telephone Call, Fort Hill 5100, Branch 167.
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AN APPEAL FOR CLEANLINESS.

Posters or placards like this are printed in several languages and distributed where advice is needed.

and the like, with direct attention to local needs. Officers having legislative, executive, and judicial duties are found in all the local governments.

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What sort of matters can a county deal with better than a state? a city? a town or township? a borough or village? What kinds of local government exist in your state? To what extent, if at all, do they differ from any of the descriptions given above?

171. Special Problems of City Government. — A city is a community, usually thickly populated, which is governed under a charter granted to it in accordance with an act of the state legislature.

In several states a city is allowed to choose for itself what form of government it will have, at least as far as the details are concerned. Permitting cities to have this privilege is sometimes spoken of as granting *home rule*.

Some state legislatures deal separately with every city, but others have general laws. In the latter, the cities are classified according to size. In Pennsylvania the classification is as follows: Cities of 10,000 to 125,000, third class; 125,000 to 1,000,000, second class; 1,000,000 or over, first class. In New York, cities with 175,000 or more people are first class; with 50,000 to 175,000, second class; with less than 50,000, third class. There is no definite number of people required to make a city in some states, but others have population requirements, such as 8,000 or 10,000.

This classification is necessary, because of course a city with a million people has a greater variety of needs than one containing twenty thousand. If a state's constitution does not allow the legislature to deal with cities separately, it will at least permit a division into classes, and then each class can be treated as it needs. In some states the classification has been made so minutely that it is almost or quite possible to pass laws for one city, since it may be the only place in its class.

Is there any reason why a legislature should not be allowed to pass laws for one city alone? What is the custom of your state in this respect? If you live in a city, in what class is it?

Large cities, just because they are large, meet special difficulties in government. Their great population and crowded sections make very thorough and extensive health laws necessary. The educational needs of a great many people must be met, and the protection of the people is an important feature. Convenience and the demands of



Courtesy Air Service

NEW YORK FROM THE AIR.

The tallest structure here is the famous Woolworth Building, the highest in the world. New York's Municipal Building and two of the bridges across the East River to Brooklyn are also plainly shown. Notice how completely covered with buildings is the ground in this business center of the United States.

business make street construction and repair a vital matter. In short, the welfare of great numbers of people must be cared for, and this presents many problems with which other communities do not have to deal.

172. Our Relation to Other Countries. — Recall our definition of a community. Town, city, state, nation, are clearly communities in a real sense. Is it proper to think of the world in the same way? Once we could have said,

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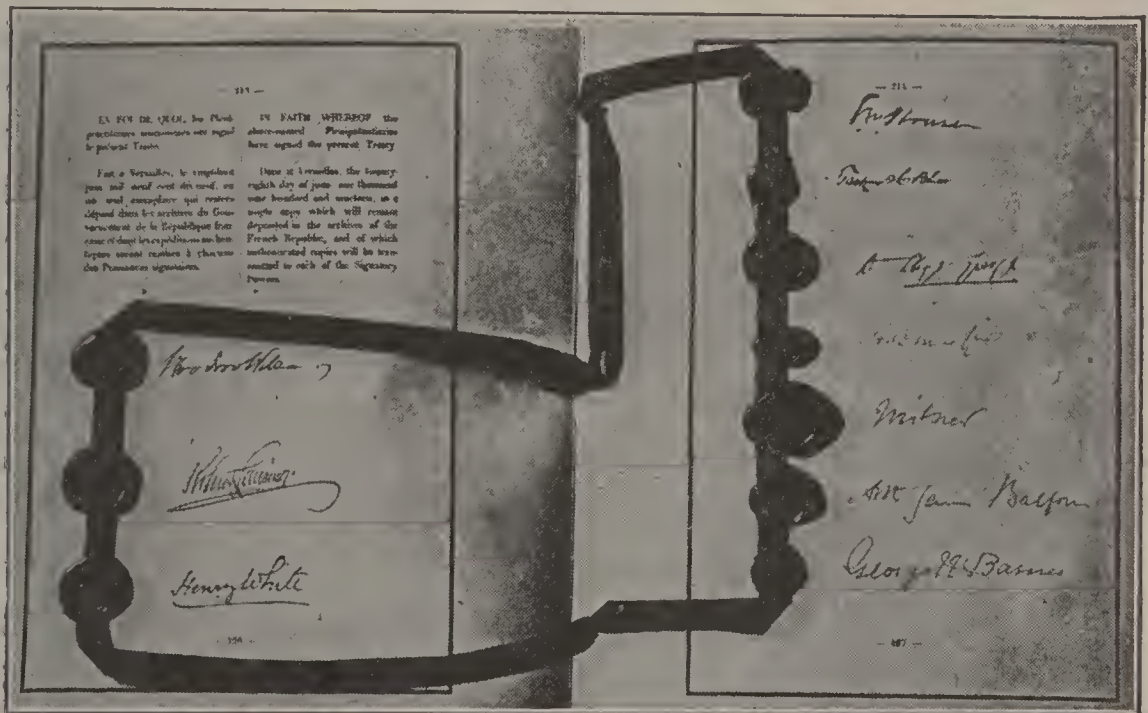
No. But today every important nation is more closely acquainted with every other than New Hampshire was with Georgia in 1789.

In the early history of our country, the United States seemed not very directly related to the other countries of the world. Washington warned the people in his Farewell Address against "permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world." Some people nowadays quote this doctrine of Washington's as if it meant that we must not have any associations with the rest of the world, even for a good purpose. Surely he did not mean that. He had in mind alliances with one part of Europe against another part. Besides, the world today and this country today are far different from what they were in his time.

The Monroe Doctrine of 1823 is also interpreted by some as a further step toward keeping the Old World and the New World apart. It declared that the United States would consider any attempt on the part of European powers to gain further control in the New World as evidence of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States, and asserted that we had no intention of interfering in purely European affairs. At that time the United States had practically no army or navy to enforce such a declaration, if anybody had defied it. But England was in hearty sympathy with it and had even proposed to make some such statement jointly with us. The other European countries therefore respected it. Ever since then, our government has clung to this doctrine in our relations with foreign countries. But as this Doctrine was simply for the purpose of protecting the interests of the rest of the New World as well as our own, it should hardly be thought of as meaning isolation.

We realize now that no country can get along without other nations. We are all interdependent, and need each other. A policy of isolation is impossible. In the dealings of nations with one another, we observe what we call

international law. This is the code which governs the conduct of nations in their relations and dealings with one another. International law depends upon the ideals and morals of the nations, because thus far we have had no way of enforcing it except by war. Perhaps under the League of Nations the world may obtain both a clearer statement of what international law is, and a more sure means of enforcing its principles.



International

SIGNERS OF THE PEACE TREATY OF VERSAILLES, 1919.

The names of the signers from the United States and Great Britain appear on these two pages. The treaty was printed in French and English.

Nations often make agreements with each other which are called *treaties*. Sometimes these concern small matters, but sometimes are very vital and far-reaching and may even help to establish international law. Under our Constitution treaties are made by the President or under his direction. They must be submitted to the Senate, and will not go into effect unless that body ratifies them by a two-thirds vote. This requirement sometimes makes it hard to get a treaty ratified.

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All countries send ambassadors or ministers to foreign countries. They represent their governments in other nations. Our ambassadors are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. We also have consuls stationed in every important foreign city, and foreign countries do the same here. The consul looks out for the welfare of citizens of his nation who may happen to be in his neighborhood, and gathers information which may be of benefit to his home country, especially in a commercial way.

173. **Arbitration.** — Laying a dispute before impartial judges for a decision is called *arbitration*. This means of settling questions has become very common in international affairs. England and the United States especially have employed it several times. It is surely an improvement over the former way of going to war on the slightest pretext. Most disagreements can be settled peaceably by arbitration, and even the losing side will be far better off than to have spent billions of dollars and lost thousands of lives, if no question of honor is involved.

The Hague Conferences, which we have mentioned (§45), established a Court of Arbitration to which governments referred many disagreements, and the settlements they made proved very satisfactory. But there was no way of compelling a nation to accept the Court's services if it did not want to. And all the influence that could be brought to bear could not dissuade Austria and Germany from forcing the Great War upon the world in 1914.

174. **The League of Nations.** — We are learning, however, all these nations are learning, and the time will come when we shall realize that this has become a world community, and we shall rightly call ourselves members of it. A great step which has been taken in the direction of international understanding and coöperation is the League of Nations. The Covenant of the League was drawn up in connection with the Versailles Treaty of Peace in 1919 (§45).

The purpose of the League of Nations is to prevent war.

Every nation which belongs to the League is pledged to submit all disputes to arbitration and not to go to war under any circumstances for several months after a disagreement arises. If any nation violates its pledges, provisions are made for a boycott against that nation. The League aims to protect its members from unprovoked attack by any nation.

It works through two bodies, the Council and the Assembly. The Assembly is composed of representatives



International

THE HOME OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

This beautiful building at Geneva was formerly a hotel, but has been bought for a kind of capitol for the League.

from every nation. Ten nations are now represented on the Council, which has the real executive authority in the League, but even in that body nothing may be done except by unanimous vote. A Permanent Court of International Justice has now been organized, composed of eleven judges, who are elected by the League Council and Assembly, but who act entirely independently. They meet at The Hague.

The League has a number of worthy accomplishments to

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its credit. To the disappointment of many people in our own country and elsewhere, the United States, however, has thus far failed to join. Under Presidents Harding and Coolidge we have coöperated with the League in several of its undertakings, and our Senate may soon take their advice and join in the support of the World Court.

Do you understand the League of Nations? Make a list of the arguments you have heard in favor of it and against it; then try to find from the League Covenant itself whether these arguments are just and sensible.

QUESTIONS

What do we mean by majority rule? Why do Americans believe in it? Distinguish between majority and plurality. By what means may a majority gain control? Which of these are justifiable? Is minority rule ever right? What are the duties of the majority toward the minority?

What is representative government? Why do we have it? Trace some of the important events in connection with popular government in England. Mention some similar instances in that of the United States.

What is the federal principle of government? Give examples. Define *federation* and *confederation*. Why is the United States a federal republic? What is our national Constitution and when was it formed? What powers are placed entirely in the hands of the national government? Which are left wholly or mainly to the states? What does the constitution say about making new states? What process is usually followed in doing so? How is a territory governed? What is its relation to the states? Name our colonial possessions. What has been our policy in governing the Philippines? How are our other possessions governed? How is the District of Columbia governed?

Explain the three departments of government? What is meant by "checks and balances?" Are they beneficial?

Why do we believe a constitution is important? What should it contain? How many amendments have been made in our national Constitution? What do they deal with? Explain the process of making an amendment.

Explain the different forms of national governments which have existed in the world. Distinguish between a *federal* and a *centralized*

government. Explain the principal features of the British Cabinet system. Compare it with what we call the Cabinet. How are laws made in Great Britain?

How are state constitutions made? What do they contain? How much authority does a state possess?

How are states divided politically? Who forms these divisions? Which is most important? What is a congressional township? What is a city? Why are cities usually classified? Why is the government of large cities difficult?

Is the world a community? What is *international law*? What was Washington's idea of our relation to foreign countries? Of what value was the Monroe Doctrine? How are dealings with foreign countries carried on? Explain *arbitration*. To what extent has it been used among nations? Why was the League of Nations formed? Outline its organization.

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Making Treaties.

Ambassadors—their Responsibility and Salaries.

Cabinet Changes in Great Britain.

Resolved, that the United States ought to adopt the English Cabinet system.

The Government of Germany Before and After the Great War.

Resolved, that the States ought to be abolished.

Resolved, that civilized nations should never engage in war with one another.

The Spoils System in American History.

Resolved, that the Government should never interfere with the right of citizens to free speech.

The Making of the United States Constitution.

The History of Our State up to the Time It Was Admitted.

Resolved, that the Philippines should immediately receive their independence.

The Making of the Constitution of Our State.

Amending Our State Constitution.

Resolved, that every city should be allowed to determine its own form of government.

Resolved, that the Monroe Doctrine should be abolished.

The History of the Hague Conferences.

The United States and the International Arbitration.

The Accomplishments of the League of Nations.

Resolved, that the United States should belong to the League of Nations

CHAPTER XII

LAW-MAKING AND LAW-ENFORCING

That man alone is truly free who is able to rule himself and to submit his own will to the higher authority, the authority of the law.—O'Brien.

175. **What Is a Law?** — In almost every phase of our life together, law is necessary. Our homes would be very disorderly indeed if certain rules for the conduct of the members were not made. What kind of place is it where members of the family come for meals at any time, and come home at any hour of the night that they choose! In school, too, what a state of affairs would there be if teachers and pupils came to school at any hour, and left when they chose, or remained away whenever they felt like it! What a farce a football game would be if the ends and tackles played anywhere they pleased, and the backs ran in any direction they wanted to go! There must be rules—*laws*.

For the same reason, law-making is the most important feature in government. Monarchies and democracies have equal need of laws. But what is a *law*? It is a rule made by the people or by their representatives for the purpose of guiding the conduct of the people.

There is, or ought to be, a clear difference between a law and a constitution. A law is a single rule. A constitution is a collection of the fundamental facts about the form and powers of a government. Laws are subordinate to constitutions, and are passed under their authority. Laws deal with specific matters, constitutions with general features of government.

Law-making is the first work of government. There is

no authority without it; there can be no government without it. In olden times, when kings had absolute power, their will made the laws, and they saw that the laws were carried out. Now we have our three departments, but if we did not have a law-making body, there would be no need of the executive and judicial departments. Laws have to be made before they can be enforced or interpreted.

Who makes the laws in a family? a church? a school?

176. **How Laws May Be Suggested.** — Do not think that all our laws have their origin in the Constitution or the law-making bodies. They come from many sources. There are, in all countries, “unwritten laws.” These are customs which have been established and are handed down from generation to generation. Sometimes these customs are so generally observed that we call them even the “unwritten constitution.” An example of such a custom is the habit of allowing only two terms for Presidents, because Washington had only two.

No court would punish a man for disobeying an unwritten law, but with some people custom is as strong as the statute laws of our government. In many cases, custom becomes fixed with a people, and then, in order that it shall continue to be observed, they make it into a definite, written law. Murder, for instance, was considered wrong before laws were enacted which made it punishable by death or life imprisonment. People out driving got into the habit of turning to the right when they met some one, and now, in a city, a person might be fined for not doing it. In England and most of Canada they turn to the left just as regularly.

Comparatively few of our laws originate with our legislators. A great many of them are the result of public sentiment, and are introduced in legislatures and in Congress only because the people request and even demand them. A petition may be drawn up by an individual, a society, a

board of trade, or a chamber of commerce, signed by one person or a number of people, and sent to a representative in the state legislature or the United States Congress. If the members of these bodies really represent the wishes of the people, they will introduce the bills which the people want.

In addition to sending petitions or seeking law-makers in

GENERAL—ALL COUNTIES.

[One hundred thirty folios.]

LAWS OF NEW YORK.—By Authority.

Chap. 786.

AN ACT to amend the education law, by providing for a board of education in the several cities of the state.

Became a law June 8, 1917, with the approval of the Governor. Passed, three-fifths being present.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

Section 1. Chapter twenty-one of the laws of nineteen hundred and nine, entitled "An act relating to education, constituting chapter sixteen of the consolidated laws," as amended by chapter one hundred and forty of the laws of nineteen hundred and ten, is hereby further amended by inserting therein a new article, to be known as article thirty-three-a, and to read as follows:

ARTICLE 33-A.

BOARD OF EDUCATION IN THE SEVERAL CITIES OF THE STATE.

Section 865. Board of education.

866. Board of education; eligibility; how chosen; term of office; vacancies.

867. Meetings of board of education.

868. Powers and duties of board of education.

869. Superintendent of schools.

870. Powers and duties of superintendent of schools.

THE PRINTED FORM OF A LAW.

Here you see the form of "enacting clause" used in the New York Legislature, and other features of the style in which laws are composed and published.

person, people may have a hand in making laws by stirring up interest and sentiment. This may be done through the newspapers and magazines. Newspapers are very responsive to public opinion, and urge what most of the people want, because the papers depend upon the people for their support.

The executives also may propose laws in various ways. They may do this by delivering speeches or sending messages to the legislative bodies. Presidents and governors do this regularly, and President Wilson seems to have reëstablished the custom of reading messages to Congress in person. Whether he is President or Governor or Mayor, the fact that a man is the chief executive makes his opinion have a great deal of weight. His influence in law-making is therefore considerable.

But it is with the legislators themselves that the actual introduction of laws rests. They present the bills and get other members interested. They may do this by making speeches and by talking with others privately. Two practices which are sometimes abused are known as "lobbying" and "log-rolling."

Lobbying is consulting with or bringing influence to bear on some member of a law-making body outside of the halls of Congress or Legislature. This may be honorable or not, depending on the kind of influence that is used. *Log-rolling* is an agreement among members of a law-making body to support one another's bills—"I'll vote for your bill if you'll vote for mine." This is done a great deal with bills appropriating money, for almost every legislator has some institution or enterprise for which he wants to have public money spent.

After all, the people are the source of the laws, both those which have come down to us, and those which are made now. In the long run, the law-making bodies are instruments of the people, and do what the people want or permit to be done.

If you wanted to get a law passed forbidding the manufacture of cigarettes, how would you go about it? When would lobbying be right, and in what form? Is log-rolling ever justifiable?

177. **Our National Law-Making Body.** — “All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives.” This is what our Constitution says. The states also have legislatures composed of two houses. This arrangement was derived partly from the English Parliament, for the makers of our government thought they were following English customs more closely than they really were. Besides, having two houses was intended to put a check on the powers of either house.

The Senate is composed of ninety-six members, two from each state. They are elected for six years, but the terms are so arranged that one-third of the members go out of office every two years. This prevents the entire Senate's being changed at the same time. Many senators are reelected when their terms expire, too. A United States Senator must be thirty years old, a citizen of the United States for nine years, and a resident of the state in which he is elected.

Who are the Senators from your state? How long have they been in office? Find out what you can about them.

The *Vice-President* is the presiding officer of the Senate, and there is also a *president pro tempore*, who is elected by the Senators from their own number and presides in the absence of the Vice-President. There is also a secretary, a postmaster, a doorkeeper, a chaplain, and a sergeant-at-arms, each with his special duties, which can be guessed from their titles.

Most of the powers of Congress are shared equally by both houses, but some important powers belong to the Senate alone. Most appointments made by the President must be confirmed by the Senate, and all treaties which are made under his direction must be submitted to it. These do not go into effect until they are ratified by a two-thirds vote. Besides, if the House of Representatives brings up

“impeachment” charges against a public officer who is said to have done wrong, the Senate tries him. It must give a two-thirds vote against him in order to convict him.

There are at present (1922) 435 members of the House of Representatives. After each census, Congress passes a law making a new “apportionment” for representatives. The number from any state depends upon its population, but every state has at least one. After a new apportionment, the state legislature should divide the state into as many districts as it has representatives, so that each district may elect one, but this is not always done. When necessary extra representatives are elected by the whole state and are known as *Congressman-at-large*. Sometimes a legislature will divide a state into districts of queer shapes or uneven sizes, in order to give advantage to some party. This performance is called a *gerrymander*.

The term of representatives is two years, and they must be twenty-five years of age, citizens of the United States for seven years, and residents of the states in which they are elected. Usually they live in the district which they represent, although this is not required.

Find out all you can about the representative in whose district you live.

The House elects a *Speaker*, who belongs to the majority party in the House. He has considerable power, although not so much as formerly. He presides over the meetings of the House, and a member who wishes to speak must be recognized by the Speaker. There are also a clerk, a sergeant-at-arms, and other officers, much the same as those in the Senate.

The House has two special powers. It may bring impeachment charges against any federal officer whom it accuses of wrong-doing, and all revenue bills—for raising money—must originate here. The Senate, however, as we have said, decides whether an officer is guilty, and it often

amends money bills so that their author can hardly recognize them.

Elections to Congress are held the Tuesday after the first Monday in November in even years, except in Maine, where they are held in September, at the time of the state election. The terms of Congressmen begin the fourth of the following March. Each Congress runs from that date until March 4 two years later. It is referred to by



THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON AT NIGHT.

During the War this building was dark, but on the night after the signing of the Armistice, when this picture was taken, it was brilliantly lighted again.

number, counting from 1789, so that the Congress which ends March 4, 1923, is the 67th ($1923-1789$, divided by 2).

During the life of a Congress there are two regular sessions. The first, called the long session, lasts from the first Monday in December in odd years until it is ready to adjourn—usually the following spring or early summer. The short session begins the first Monday in December in

even years, and ends at noon on March 4, when the terms of the Representatives and of some Senators expire. The President may call special sessions of Congress at other times, or may call only the Senate, when treaties and such matters are to be considered.

There are certain privileges given to Congressmen by the Constitution, and some restrictions made upon them also. No Congressman may be arrested during the sessions of Congress, except for the commission of a crime. This provision is meant to prevent a person's bringing needless suits against members of Congress, and hindering their attendance. Besides this, no member may be called to account outside of Congress for anything he says in Congress. This privilege is intended to promote perfectly free discussion of all matters in the two houses. A member of Congress can not hold any other office under the government. But he may, if he wishes, resign his office and take another, unless the office has been newly created or has had its salary increased during the time for which he was originally elected.

The salary of a Congressman is \$7,500 a year. Besides this, he is allowed \$3,200 for a secretary, and his traveling expenses between Washington and his home in going to and from a session are paid. He also receives free stationery, and he pays no postage for official mail if his name is written or stamped on it. This last is called the franking privilege.

Is there any reason why a Congress whose term begins March 4 should wait until December before starting its regular sessions? Do you think the privileges granted to Congressmen are fair? Are they paid enough? Do many people in your district or state seem to want to be Representatives or Senators? Is there anything unpleasant about their work?

178. **The Part of Committees in Law-Making.** — Since 15,000 or 16,000 measures may be introduced in one Congress, they could not possibly be considered if every one of the 435 Representatives and 96 Senators had a chance to talk on all of them. So in both houses of Congress

there are many standing committees which have been established for the purpose of receiving bills and resolutions, saving time, and making things run smoothly. There are the Foreign Relations Committee and Finance Committee in the Senate, the Ways and Means Committee and the Interstate and Foreign Commerce Committee in the House, and many others, each dealing with a particular kind of matter. When a bill is introduced, it is referred to the proper committee for consideration. Many good and bad bills are killed in committees. Some bills which are reported back to the houses are very much changed. Though either house often declines to accept all the recommendations of its committees, it is very rare that a bill is passed against the wishes of the committee which has considered it.

The Committees of Congress number about sixty in the House and thirty-five in the Senate. Their membership ranges from three to twenty-two in the House and from three to fifteen in the Senate. The majority of the members of all important committees belong to the party which has a majority in the house to which a committee belongs. On this account, many bills are accepted or rejected for party reasons.

There are many objections to this committee system. Most bills receive much more discussion in the committee than in public sessions of either house—that is, if a bill is fortunate enough to be considered at all. The committees therefore are very powerful. They do much of the work of law-making, and some bills do not get a square deal. Yet nobody has found any better way to handle the thousands of bills that come up during a session.

Find out the titles of the chief committees of the Senate and the House. (See Congressional Directory or World Almanac.) Do you think any of them could be dispensed with? Which ones? Why?

179. Steps in Passing a Bill. — Let us follow a bill through the principal steps of its passage. A bill may be

introduced in either house, unless it is a revenue bill, which must originate in the House of Representatives. It is referred to the committee that deals with such bills, and if it is not killed by the committee, it is reported back to the house, with perhaps some changes proposed. It is then put on the calendar to wait for its turn.

When the time comes, the bill is brought up before the house for discussion and debate, and perhaps amendment. Sometimes this continues for several weeks. When a final roll call is taken, if a majority of those present vote for it, the bill passes the first house. This assumes, of course, that a quorum is present. A *quorum* means the number who must attend to do business legally. In Congress and in most of our state legislatures a majority of the whole membership is necessary to make a quorum.

What is the smallest possible vote that could ever pass a bill in the House and the Senate?

It then goes through the same process in the other house. If any changes are made, the bill must go back to the first house for its agreement. If the two houses do not agree, they appoint a special *conference committee*, which tries to settle their differences. When both houses have agreed on the bill in just the same form, it is sent to the President.

If the President approves the bill, he signs it and it becomes a law. If he does not wish it to pass, he "vetoes" it, sending it back to the house where it originated with a statement of his reasons for not signing it; but Congress can pass it over his veto by a two-thirds vote. If he does not like it but does not intend to stand in the way of its passage, he keeps it for ten days, at the end of which it becomes a law without his signature. But if a session of Congress ends during the ten days in which a president is allowed to consider bills, they do not become laws unless he signs them. If a bill fails under these circumstances, it is said to have received a "pocket veto."

There are many tricks resorted to in the making of laws. The rules which each house adopts to regulate its business are rather complicated. In the House debate may be limited without very much difficulty, but in the Senate members usually talk as long as they please, even though hardly any senators may stay to listen to them. Sometimes near the end of a session, a senator, or several senators, who wish to defeat a bill, will try what is known as "filibustering." One man gets the floor and talks for hours at a stretch, on any subject he wishes. He can not be forced to stop, and he may waste enough time to make it impossible to get the bill through. Sometimes one man will "yield the floor" to another who thinks the same way, and thus they keep matters in their own hands.

The Senate now has a rule that if two-thirds of the members sign a petition to close debate on some measure, no senator may talk more than an hour on that bill thereafter. This keeps one or two persons from defeating a measure that most of the members want. But even this rule does not help much at the close of a session, and Congress has a bad habit of leaving some very important measures until just before it is time to adjourn finally.

Is it desirable to have law-making such a complicated matter? Can it be helped? Are there any reforms which you think should be made? Are they possible?

180. Agencies for Enforcing Laws. — Some people seem to think that all you have to do to correct an evil is to make a law. Laws are tremendously important, as we have learned. But no matter how many laws are made, we should not have much government if they were not enforced. If a teacher or a principal makes a rule in regard to tardiness, for example, and then punishes nobody who is late, do you think some pupils would respect it? It is the same way in government.

For the purpose of enforcing the laws, we have our

executive departments. In speaking of the elements of welfare we have mentioned officer after officer who has something to do in promoting them. All we need to do now is to bring these various officers together, perhaps adding a few others, and we shall have our executive departments right before us. We will use first the national government as an example of the way the executive branch of the government is put together.

The *President* is the chief executive of the nation. Under



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INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION IN SESSION.

him are several departments, each dealing with certain matters, and subordinate to these are many bureaus and the like. It is necessary to have this great, thorough system of administration in order to deal with the many phases of our national life.

The courts, as we have noticed in an earlier chapter, also help in the administration of government, for they interpret the laws that are made, and help to execute them by punishing those who disobey them. If the three

departments did not help each other in this way, we might not have any government at all.

In addition to the President, the departments, and the courts, we have special commissions which have their part in administering the laws.

One of the most important of these is the *Interstate Commerce Commission*, established in 1887, which supervises trade between states. It is composed of eleven members appointed by the President. Its powers have been explained in Section 99.

Another commission is the *Civil Service Commission*. This was established in 1883. Sensible people had seen the evils of the so-called "spoils system" long before, but when President Garfield was murdered by a man who could not get the office he wanted, the seriousness of the thing could not be ignored any further. For a long time, Presidents were in the habit of turning out all office holders of the other party, and appointing members of their own party to the offices. Even after the Commission was established, it was years before very many offices were filled through its agency.

The Civil Service Commission gives examinations to people applying for offices such as clerks, postmasters, mail carriers, custom-house employees, and many other subordinate officers, some of whom must be highly educated along special lines. Those who pass are put on an "eligible list," and when a position is vacant, one of the three highest on the list obtains it. No high officer in any department has to take such an examination, for you can not tell by a written examination whether he has real business or executive ability. But you can tell whether a person has good general knowledge of the subjects which everyone studies in school; and whether he knows something about chemistry or mechanical drawing or some other special subject. This method prevents putting into office people who are not in any way qualified for the position.

The President may designate the offices for which examinations must be taken. These have been greatly increased since the Commission was established. The President appoints the three members of the Commission, and there is also a chief examiner and other clerks that are found to be necessary.

There is also the *Federal Trade Commission*. Its purpose is to watch the methods used by "big business," large companies, corporations, and the like. It sees that they obey the laws, and it can forbid business methods which it does not think are right. Corporations must send reports to the Commission, and it makes recommendations to Congress concerning trade in the country.

These are all agencies for enforcing laws. Each has its particular work to do, and by having such division of responsibility, the great work of administration can be successfully carried on.

Is there any constitutional basis for the Interstate Commerce Commission? Try one or two examinations which have been given by the Civil Service Commission. Under what Presidents were the offices requiring examinations greatly extended? How much power do you think the Federal Trade Commission should have?

181. The President's Part in Government.—The presidency is the highest office in the United States. We look upon our President as other countries do upon their kings or emperors. We want the President to be a man of high ideals, high standards, and high morals, who will uphold the good name of our country in his administration of the laws here at home, and in our relations with other countries.

The term of the President is for four years. The Constitution says nothing about the number of terms which a President may have. Several Presidents have had two terms, but, on account of custom, never more than two. A President must be 35 years of age, a native-born citizen of the United States, and a resident of this country for

14 years. These requirements are intended to make sure that all Presidents are real Americans. Most Presidents are above the age requirement. The salary of the President is \$75,000 a year. He lives in the White House at Washington, and his traveling expenses are paid, providing they do not exceed \$25,000.

If the President dies or is removed or is wholly unable to carry on his work, the Vice-President takes his place. If the vice-presidency also is vacant, the following officers, in order, succeed to the presidency: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster General, Secretary of the Navy, and Secretary of the Interior. It is utterly improbable, of course, that this will ever have to be carried out.

Who should determine when a president is unable to perform his duties? (This question has never been finally decided.)

Why is it not likely that any officer below the Secretary of State will ever become President? Is it a sensible custom not to allow a president more than two terms? Would a business firm dismiss a manager because he had served eight years?

The President has many powers and duties. They may be classed as follows:

(1) He is the chief executive of the nation, and it is his duty to carry out the laws. He does this not so much by actual work himself as by his attitude toward law and its administration, for the President, on account of the office he holds, has a great deal of influence, and he can appoint men who will be honest and faithful and can remove those who are not.

(2) The President is commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and also of the state militia, when it is in the service of the national government. He may call them out for service at any time, but the power to declare war belongs to Congress.

(3) He makes a great many appointments to offices not otherwise designated. Most of these are subject to

the approval of the Senate. Among the important appointments are those of ambassadors and ministers to foreign countries, federal judges, high officers in the various departments at Washington, and thousands of postmasters at large or medium-sized post offices.

“Senatorial courtesy,” as it is called, is practiced in this connection. This is the custom of allowing Senators from a state to prevent the approval of the appointment of a man from their state, if they do not like him for some reason. Naturally the President must take advice from somebody about appointments, for he can not possibly know all the people who would like to hold offices or are fit to hold them. But this “senatorial courtesy” sometimes keeps a good man from getting an office, merely on account of some personal prejudice.

The President, besides making appointments, signs the commissions of these officers, and may also remove from office any one whom he appoints, except judges.

(4) The President may make treaties with foreign countries. This power is, however, checked by the requirement that treaties must be ratified by two-thirds of the Senate. A President is wise, therefore, if he considers the Senate when he has treaties made.

(5) The President receives ministers and ambassadors from foreign countries. By deciding which representatives he will receive, and which he will not, he may settle our entire relationship with foreign countries. It is often a very serious matter for a president to receive, or refuse to receive, an ambassador or minister.

(6) He must act upon all bills sent to him by Congress. On many bills it is difficult to get a two-thirds vote, so by using his veto power the President can influence law-making very greatly.

(7) The President sends messages to Congress at the beginning of each session and at any other time he wishes. In these messages, he recommends matters to Congress

and, as the Constitution puts it, “gives them information of the state of the Union.” From the time of Thomas Jefferson, all the Presidents’ messages were sent to Congress and read there, until Wilson’s administration, when he delivered them himself. The message undoubtedly receives better attention when the President reads it himself.



PRESIDENT COOLIDGE AND HIS CABINET

Front (left to right): Postmaster-General New; Secretary of War Weeks; Secretary of State Hughes; President Coolidge; Secretary of the Treasury Mellon; Attorney-General Stone; Secretary of the Navy Wilbur.

Rear (left to right): Secretary of Labor Davis; Secretary of Agriculture Wallace; Secretary of Commerce Hoover; Secretary of the Interior Work.

(8) The President may call a special session of Congress whenever he thinks it is necessary. He may also call just the Senate, when treaties are to be ratified or some other such work is to be done.

(9) The President may grant reprieves and pardons to

those who have broken federal laws. A reprieve is a postponement of a sentence; a pardon is a release from a sentence or from the further carrying out of a sentence.

These are the powers and duties of the President. They have generally been executed very well, and Americans have cause to be proud of most of the Presidents we have had.

Have any Americans been seriously considered for a third term in the presidency? Should a two-thirds vote of the Senate be necessary to ratify a treaty? What questions in regard to the President's powers or duties were raised by President Wilson's going to France to take part in peace-making? If the President is seriously ill, how would the duties of the office be looked after? Are there any occasions which would not be covered by the present laws about presidential succession?

182. **The Cabinet.** — The greater part of the work of administering the national laws is done through the various departments, whose heads are collectively called the Cabinet. Nothing in the Constitution provides for a Cabinet, but in Article II, Section 2, it says, "he [the President] may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officers in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices." But the Cabinet, as it exists now, has grown out of custom, and not of any law. The President appoints the members of his Cabinet, and the appointments must be approved by the Senate.

There are now ten members in the Cabinet. These are, in order of their establishment of their offices, the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Attorney-General—these four composed Washington's Cabinet; the Secretary of the Navy, the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Interior, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of Commerce, and the Secretary of Labor.

Each of these is at the head of a department, and has

many subordinate officers under him. He has charge of all the affairs of his department, and is responsible to the President for its management. The Cabinet members also advise with the President on various matters. They do not always agree, and the President does not necessarily act on their advice, but at least he gets the opinion of different people on subjects of general interest and importance.

183. **The Work of the Administrative Departments.** — The department in the Cabinet which is usually mentioned first is the *Department of State*, with the Secretary of State, an under-secretary, and three assistant secretaries at its head. It has charge of foreign affairs, and deals with foreign ministers to this country and our own representatives in other countries. It frequently makes treaties, and conducts relations with foreign countries in other ways. The Department of State also keeps the originals of all laws and treaties, and has copies of them published. It has charge of the great seal used on many public documents.

The Secretary of the Treasury and three assistant secretaries are at the head of the *Treasury Department*. In this department there are a great many officials. The Treasurer of the United States has actual charge of the government's money. The Comptroller of the Currency deals with national banks. The Register of the Treasury keeps records of all bonds and paper money issued by the government. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue is in charge of the collection of internal taxes. The Director of the Mint supervises the coining of money. The Superintendent of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing has charge of the printing of paper money and certificates.

The Secret Service is also in the Department of the Treasury. This is because it was established originally to arrest and punish counterfeiters. The Public Health Service and the Coast Guard are also in this department,

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and there are many other subordinate officers such as clerks, customs officials, tax collectors, and the like.

The Secretary of War has charge of the *War Department*, which deals with matters concerning the army, fortifications, defences, and the like. The Secretary of the Navy heads the *Navy Department* and has similar duties in connection with the Navy. We have spoken about their work in the chapter on the protection of life and property.



UNITED STATES MARINES IN EGYPT.

The boys in our Marine Corps travel all over the world. What a remarkable background this picture has!

The Attorney-General is at the head of the *Department of Justice*. This is perhaps not as well known as most of the other departments. It was not organized until 1870. And yet some officer of this department conducts every criminal case that is tried in a federal court. The Attorney-General and the Solicitor-General advise the President and other officers on legal matters.

The *Post Office Department* is familiar to all of us. The

Postmaster-General is at the head of this department, and there are four assistant postmasters-general. The work is divided into several parts, with a chief at the head of each. There are 50,000 post offices in the country and a great many rural delivery routes. Most of those who hold offices in this department must take a Civil Service examination. We have already mentioned the great work of sending all sorts of mail to every part of the world.

The duties of the *Department of the Interior* are many and varied. About the best we can say is that all the work in handling home affairs not taken up by other departments is done by the Department of the Interior. The Secretary of the Interior and two assistant secretaries are at its head, and it is divided into several bureaus, in charge of which are commissioners and directors. The Commissioner of the General Land Office has charge of the public lands of the United States. The Commissioner of Pensions directs the payment of pensions. The Commissioner of Indian Affairs has charge of the Indians living on reservations in the country. The Commissioner of Patents grants patents to inventors. The Commissioner of Education collects and distributes information concerning the schools of the country, but has no authority over them. The Director of the Geological Survey has charge of the study of the geological formation of the country, and of the mineral deposits. The Director of the Reclamation Service directs the irrigation of desert lands. The Director of the Bureau of Mines has charge of the work of conserving the minerals of the country, and of making experiments in regard to the safe working of mines, and the like.

The *Department of Agriculture* performs a remarkable service. At its head are the Secretary of Agriculture and an assistant secretary. The work of this department is divided among several bureaus. The Weather Bureau publishes the weather forecast for all parts of the country twice every day. The Bureau of Animal Industry has

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charge of the inspection of meat. The Bureau of Plant Industry takes up the improvement of crops and plants. The Bureau of Forestry is in charge of the national forests. It looks after forest fires, plants new trees, and the like. The Bureau of Entomology studies insects and the damage they do to crops, and the Bureau of Chemistry examines food and drugs, to see that they are pure. At various places in the country there are Experiment Stations, whose



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CLERKS AT WORK ON THE CENSUS.

These workers are making use of punching machines to record the facts which the census enumerator learns when he visits people's homes.

work is to study agricultural conditions in that particular section, to find what crops will grow best there, and to try out new varieties of crops.

The *Department of Commerce* has charge of many matters affecting the commerce and trade of the United States. Its work is done by bureaus. Most important of these is the Census Bureau, which takes a census of the population

of the country every ten years. There are also the Bureaus of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Lighthouses, Fisheries, Navigation, and Standards, and the Coast and Geodetic Survey.

The newest department is the *Department of Labor*. This looks into labor conditions throughout the country. In this department are the Bureau of Immigration, which has charge of the foreigners who come to this country, the Bureau of Naturalization, which directs the making of citizens out of foreigners, the Children's Bureau, which deals with child labor and the interests of children generally, and the Women's Bureau, which deals with similar problems of women's welfare.

184. **Testing a Law.** — There are two points of contact between the courts and the laws. After a law has been passed and is being enforced by the executive department, the courts try persons who are accused of breaking the law, and punish them if they are convicted. Then, if an accused person declares that the law which he is accused of breaking is unconstitutional, the courts decide whether this is true or not. The Supreme Court interprets the national Constitution, and the highest state courts interpret the constitutions of the various states. The courts will not act until after a law has been passed and is enforced. They refuse to say whether a measure is constitutional until a bill has gone through the long process of becoming a law, and the administrative department of the government has provided for its enforcement. The organization of our courts has been described in Section 152.

Do you think the courts should give their opinion on bills when they are proposed? Why? Can the courts declare *any* law unconstitutional?

185. **Kinds of Laws That Congress May Make.** — The Constitution sets forth very definitely the powers Congress may exercise. A long list of such powers appears in Article

I, Section 8, and several others are stated in other clauses. Putting together the powers of the President and of Congress will show us the full extent of the authority of the national government, except that some things are taken for granted because any government must be able to do them, such as adding new territory and the like. Perhaps it will help us to group the powers of Congress as follows:

(1) *Financial*

- a Collect taxes, except on exported goods.
- b Borrow money; this is generally done by issuing bonds or certificates of indebtedness.
- c Coin money.
- d Regulate value of coins.
- e Punish counterfeiters.

(2) *Military*

- a Provide and maintain an army and navy.
- b Authorize calling out state militia.
- c Declare war.
- d Grant letters of marque and reprisal.¹

(3) *Territorial*

- a Make laws for territories.
- b Admit new states.
- c Govern the District of Columbia and any other possession or property of the United States.

(4) *Commercial*

- a Regulate interstate commerce.
- b Regulate foreign commerce.
- c Establish post offices and post roads.
- d Provide for granting patents and copyrights.
- e Fix standards of weights and measures.
- f Provide for cases of bankruptcy.

¹This means to authorize privateering in war time. Civilized countries do not do this any more

(5) *Political*

- a Provide for naturalization of aliens.
- b Punish treason and piracy.
- c Organize courts below the Supreme Court.
- d Propose amendments to Constitution (by a two-thirds vote).

(6) *General*

Pass laws necessary for carrying out the other powers.

In the early days of our Constitution a big argument arose over this point: Should the national government do anything except the things specially mentioned in the Constitution? Thomas Jefferson and his followers said, No; Congress may not charter a bank, for example, because the Constitution does not say that Congress may grant charters to corporations. Alexander Hamilton and his friends said, Yes; if a bank will help the government in doing any of the things which are definitely mentioned, Congress has a perfect right to organize it. Jefferson's theory was called strict construction, and Hamilton's loose or broad construction. Very fortunately Hamilton's views prevailed. During the thirty-four years when John Marshall was Chief Justice, the Supreme Court rendered many decisions in support of this theory. It became definitely established, so that today nobody would question it.

Go over a list of the laws passed by the last Congress or some other, and see which of the particular powers mentioned above would justify each of them.

186. Laws That Our Constitution Forbids. — The makers of the Constitution, however, had no intention of letting either the national government or the state governments do everything they pleased. Therefore we find mention of several powers which have been exercised by the govern-

ments of other countries at some time or other, but which our government, state or national, is forbidden to use. Others are definitely assigned to the national government or forbidden to the state governments. Those which are not given to the national government or forbidden to the state or to both, are understood to belong to the states unless the constitutions of the states themselves forbid them. Let us see how the powers are distributed.

I Powers forbidden to both national and state governments.

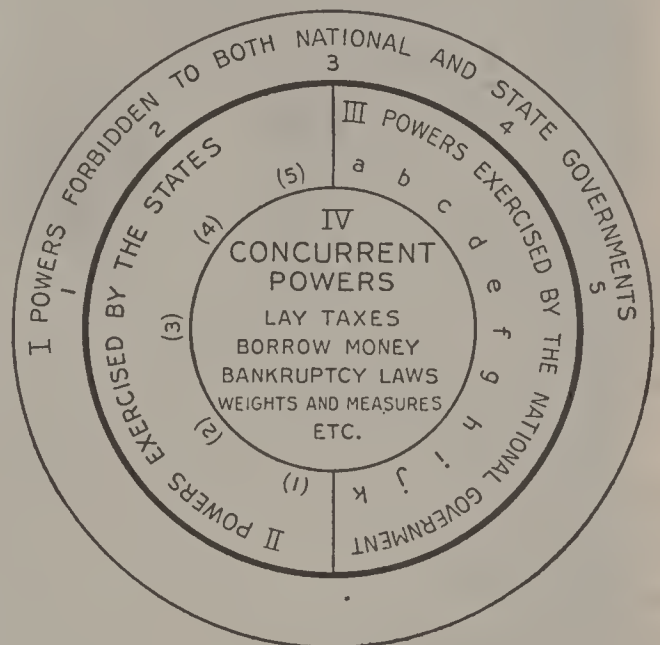
- 1 Bills of attainder¹
- 2 Ex post facto laws²

Why is each of these unfair?

- 3 Granting of titles of nobility
- 4 Toleration of slavery

II Powers not granted to national government; therefore exercised wholly or chiefly by the states

- (1) Regulation of voting (except for Amendments XV and XIX)
- (2) Education
- (3) Public health
- (4) Local government
- (5) Care of the unfortunate.



¹A bill of attainder is an act passed by a law-making body which would deprive a person of his life or property without giving him a trial in court.

²An ex post facto law is one which would apply to acts done before the law was passed.

- III Powers forbidden to state governments, and either granted or not forbidden to the national government
- a Treaties and alliances
 - b Letters of marque and reprisal
 - c Coinage of money
 - d Issuing bills of credit (paper money)
 - e Collecting duties on imports
 - f Regulation of foreign or interstate commerce
 - g Carrying on war unless invaded
 - h Impairing obligation of contracts (that is, interfering with the carrying out of them)
 - i Maintenance of army and navy, except with permission of Congress

Several other powers, if exercised at all by the national government, could not very well be carried on by the states, such as regulating immigration and naturalization, conducting a postal system, and the like.

Perhaps it will help to put some of this relation of powers in the form of a diagram. Suppose the outside circle contains all the powers that have ever been exercised by any government. The second largest circle will contain the powers permitted to governments in this country, and the outer ring will show powers forbidden under our Constitution. The heavy lined circle is divided into two parts, showing some powers exercised by state governments and others by the nation. Inside of this is the circle of *concurrent* powers—that is, those which are possessed by both state and national governments. There are not many of these but some are very important.

187. **Law-Making in States.** — Every state has its law-making body. In many states this is called the *General Assembly*. In others it is called simply the *Legislature*, but in Massachusetts and New Hampshire it is the *General Court*. It is composed of two houses, most often called the Senate and the House of Representatives, though

sometimes, as in New York, the "lower" house is called the Assembly. The "upper" house is much smaller than the "lower." The states are divided into senatorial and representative districts, the former being the larger. Each district elects at least one senator or representative. The age requirement is higher for senators than for representatives.

Law-making in the states is very much the same as in the



HALL OF THE PENNSYLVANIA HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

One branch of Pennsylvania's law-makers meets in this beautiful room.

national Congress. A bill must pass both houses separately, and can be vetoed by the governor, except in North Carolina and Rhode Island. Bills are referred to committees, as in Congress, but the committees in the lower house are appointed by the Speaker, not elected as in Congress, and in the Senate they are sometimes appointed by the presiding officer, who is often the lieutenant-governor of the state. The

powers of the legislature are very extensive. It may make laws about anything whatever that concerns the citizens of the state, except the particular matters which it is forbidden to deal with by the national or state Constitution.

188. **Administering State Laws.** — The states have, necessarily, their officers to administer the laws. The chief executive is the *Governor*. His powers and duties correspond to a great extent to those of the President in the national government, but of course he has nothing to say about foreign affairs. He may be elected for one, two, or four years, according to the laws of the state. He appoints many other executive officers.

Most states have a *Lieutenant-governor*, who corresponds to the vice-president. He usually presides over the state senate. The *Secretary of State* or, in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, the *Secretary of the Commonwealth*, keeps the official records and papers of the governor and the legislature. The *Auditor*, or in some states the *Auditor-General* or *Comptroller*, sees that money is taken from the state treasury only after appropriations have been made by law. The *Treasurer* is in charge of the actual handling of the state money. The *Attorney-General* is the legal adviser to the Governor and other state officials. The *Adjutant-General* has duties in connection with the National Guard. There are also the *Superintendent* or *Commissioner of Education* or of *Public Instruction*, a *Commissioner of Insurance*, a *Commissioner* or *Secretary of Agriculture*, and other officers. The heads of the various departments of the state do not meet as a Cabinet.

The states usually have a *supreme court*, or a court corresponding to it called by a different name (§152). There is also a system of lower courts in every state. These courts deal with people who are accused of breaking state laws. They also interpret the state constitutions, and determine whether state laws are constitutional. In this matter, the supreme court of the state has the final decision.

A decision involving a state law can not be appealed from the state to the federal courts unless some one claims that the law is contrary to the national Constitution or a national law. The state courts can not declare a national law unconstitutional.

Find out about the government of your own state. What is the law-making body called? the two houses? the highest court? Who are the governor and other high executive officers? Who represents your neighborhood in the legislature?



THE BATTLESHIP "CONNECTICUT".

189. **Maintaining the Nation's Authority.** — There is a question among people today as to whether it is the duty of local officers, such as policemen and sheriffs, to enforce national laws. Some people declare that the federal authorities should enforce federal laws; others, that since the nation is supreme it is the duty of all public officers to see that the national laws are enforced. State and national officers often coöperate, combining forces for some definite purpose in protecting the public health or encouraging education, the building of good roads or some other

worthy object. In many ways the two work in harmony, and they ought to do so.

But, whether it is the duty of local officers to enforce national laws or not, one thing is certain. When the authority of a state and that of a nation conflict, the state must give way to the nation, for the Constitution says that not only its own provisions, but all United States laws and treaties made in accordance with it, shall be the "supreme law of the land." Every state and local government is subordinate to it. All officers must take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States. The national government, in return, assures every state a republican form of government, and protection from invasion. The state, of course, also helps itself in this matter.

What is your opinion on the duty of local officers in enforcing national laws? Apply it to Prohibition. Do you think there are any matters in which national and state authority conflict?

190. Local Law-Making. — We have explained the subdivisions of states and why we have them (§170). Let us now consider how local laws are made. The law-making body of cities is usually called the *council*, or, if it is composed of two houses, they are the *common council*, which is the larger, and the *aldermen*, or *select council*. This body makes the city ordinances. Their terms vary in different states. The mayor is the chief executive of the city. He may veto ordinances passed by the council. He also appoints other administrative officers, but the council must confirm these appointments.

The legislative body of a borough is a small council, elected by the people. It enacts ordinances for the government of the borough, and it may levy taxes and borrow money. Boroughs are governed with a view to their becoming cities at some time, although they do not always do this. In states like New York, which have incorporated villages, the *trustees* act much as the council in cities and boroughs.

In New England, the "town" is a political organization. Here it is distinguished from the town or township in other states, by the *town meeting*. This is held regularly once a year, although special meetings may be called. All the voters may attend these meetings and act on all matters in which the town is concerned. Townships in other states do not have the town meeting except in some of the towns in New York. In New England, the voters elect *selectmen* who are the most important officers. They correspond to the *supervisors* in some other states. *Road commissioners* and *school directors* also have legislative as well as executive power. The terms of local officers are usually shorter in New England than in other states, most of them being elected for a year at a time.

The chief officials in the county are usually called *commissioners*. They vary in number, and have charge of most of the business of the county, such as fixing the county tax rate, and keeping up the highways. In New York and Michigan, the counties are governed by a *board of supervisors*, composed of one member from each township.

How is your county governed? What are the names of the highest officers? How do they obtain their office? What is the length of their term?

In every community, education is provided for. For this purpose school districts are formed, and in each of these we find a *board of directors* or *trustees*, which is the law-making body for school affairs. It makes rules for the schools, looks after the school property, and is legally in charge of the business of the schools. School boards usually elect a superintendent, who acts as the general manager for the schools. He may attend meetings of the board, plan the program of the schools, and do other things of the kind.

Review what you have learned about the school board which has authority over your school, and the county and state arrangements for education.

191. **Administering Local Laws.** — In every subdivision of government we find officers whose duty is to carry out the laws. In the city, the *mayor* is the chief executive. There are many other administrative officials. The work of the city is usually divided among various departments and bureaus, with a *director* at the head of each. The departments are generally *public works*, *public safety*, *health*, *charities*, and the like, which are subdivided for the purpose



ALL SORTS OF SHIPS IN BOSTON HARBOR.

The harbor master is megaphoning his orders from the deck of a police boat.

of carrying on the work. Other officers are the *treasurer*, *controller*, *solicitor*, and *board of education*.

What are the departments of your city or of cities with which you are acquainted? What are the duties of each department?

Some cities have adopted the *commission* form of government. The voters in the city elect a small body, or commission, perhaps composed of five men, who act as both

legislators and executives. As a body they make the laws or ordinances and each one is the head of an administrative department. Those who advocate this plan declare that it avoids waste of time and money, and makes it possible to get things done more efficiently. A few persons are entirely responsible for the conduct of the city's affairs and people know where to put the credit or blame for the way things are done.

In the *city manager* plan, which has been taken up by Dayton, Cleveland, and many smaller places, the council or commission elects one man as city manager to take charge of all the city affairs, except probably the schools, and gives him as much power as he needs to do the work efficiently. Where this plan has been tried it has usually worked well. It carries the idea of centralizing power and responsibility still further than does the commission form; for it makes one man responsible for managing a city's business, just as the board of directors of a great corporation might elect a general manager. After all, the management of a city is simply the conducting of a big public business. It would be well if we thought of it more often in that way. This plan will probably be adopted more generally as time goes on.

In Pennsylvania we find at the head of the executive branch of the borough a *chief burgess*. In New York the corresponding officer in a village is called the *president*. Other administrative officers of the borough or village may be the treasurer, clerk, police marshal, fire marshal, tax assessor, street commissioner, and engineer. Boroughs and villages may also have boards of health, and various commissions to carry on the work.

We have already mentioned the officers of the town or township: the commissioners or supervisors, who are the highest officials, and the treasurer, assessor, auditors, constables, and the like. These officers carry out the laws or ordinances, and form the executive branch of the government.

Outside of New England the county is the most important subdivision of the state. It is important because a great part of the administration of state laws rests upon it. Its officers understand its own needs better than the state officers could, and through the county the state government can serve the people in every section.

Among the many executive county officials whom we find under various names in the different states are the following: the *commissioners* or *supervisors*, whose duties are executive as well as legislative (§191); an officer who keeps the records of titles to property, such as deeds and mortgages, and may be called the *recorder of deeds* or the *county clerk*; an officer who attends to the carrying out of wills or the distribution of property of persons who died without making a will—in New York this officer is called a *surrogate*, in some other states the *register of wills*; a *coroner*, who looks into the circumstances of sudden or accidental deaths; a *district attorney* or *state's attorney*, who prosecutes persons accused of violating the state laws; a *treasurer*, who looks after the public money and usually collects the taxes; a *sheriff*, who is responsible for keeping order in a county; a *controller* or a *board of auditors*, who inspect the accounts of the county. There may also be a *superintendent of schools* and perhaps *directors of the poor*, besides *county judges*, *jury commissioners*, *clerks of courts*, and perhaps many other officials, depending on the laws of each state or on the size of the county. Most of these officers are chosen by popular vote.

Find out the special features of local government in your state, city, town or township, borough or village, and county.

192. **Law-Making by the People.** — There has been in recent years a tendency in the United States to get law-making more directly in the hands of the people. The New England town meeting is a good example of *direct legislation*, as it is often called, for here all the people

may take an actual part in law-making. But this could not be conducted on a very large scale. In fact, it often happens that this supposed "democracy" is somewhat of a joke, for in some towns the voters do not attend the town meetings in very great numbers, and besides there would be no place in town large enough to hold them all if they did turn out. So two other ways of getting direct legislation

PROPOSED BY INITIATIVE PETITION

Initiated by Roosevelt Bird Refuge Association: President, John Gill, Third and Alder Streets, Portland, Oregon; First Vice-President, W. S. Raker, Northwestern Bank Building, Portland, Oregon; Second Vice-President, Willard A. Eliot, 1011 Thurman Street, Portland, Oregon; Secretary-Treasurer, William L. Finley, 651 E. Madison Street, Portland, Oregon; Executive Committee, J. C. Ainsworth, U. S. National Bank Building, Portland, Oregon; James E. Brockway, Portland, Oregon; J. D. Brown, Portland, Oregon; Ida B. Callahan, 563 Monroe Street, Corvallis, Oregon; Therese M. Castner, Hood River, Oregon; W. C. Hawley, Salem, Oregon; John A. Keating, care of Lumberman's Building, Portland, Oregon; Stephen A. Lowell, Pendleton, Oregon; Henry E. McGinn, 507 Oregonian Building, Portland, Oregon; T. Gilbert Pearson, 1974 Broadway, New York, N. Y.; Richard W. Price, care of Oregon Hotelmen's Association, Portland, Oregon; G. Putnam, Salem, Oregon; Robert W. Sawyer, Bend, Oregon; C. E. Spence, Oregon City, Oregon; W. T. Sumner, 574 Elm Street, Portland, Oregon; H. B. Van Duzer, care of Chamber of Commerce, Portland, Oregon; Emma J. Welty, care of Oregon Audubon Society, Portland, Oregon.—**ROOSEVELT BIRD REFUGE MEASURE**—Purpose: To create a refuge for the native waterfowl of Oregon, and in memory of the late Theodore Roosevelt request the national government to designate such refuge Roosevelt Bird Refuge, by ceding and conveying to the United States the right, title, claim and jurisdiction possessed by the State of Oregon in lands within the exterior boundaries of and in and to the waters within Malheur Lake Reservation in Harney county, as set apart by executive order issued by President Roosevelt in 1908, for the use of the Department of Agriculture as a breeding ground for wild birds.

Vote YES or NO

316 Yes.

317 No.

AN EXAMPLE OF THE REFERENDUM.

The people whose names appear here secured the necessary number of signers to an "initiative" petition for a law for the purpose mentioned. Now the voters of Oregon are asked to vote "Yes" or "No" with reference to the passage of the law which the petition asks for.

by the people have been adopted in many states of this country.

In such states, when the people wish to have a law passed, or an amendment made to their constitution, and the legislature will not, or does not, for any reason, act on it, they can draw up a petition, signed by a certain per cent of the voters, demanding that the legislature formulate a bill. Sometimes the law permits the measure itself to be drawn up by the petitioners. This is called the *initiative*.

Still more common is the process by which a measure may be submitted to popular vote before it becomes a law. This is called the *referendum*. Sometimes the law regarding the initiative petition is so arranged that it automatically calls for a referendum on the matter in question. Sometimes a petition calling for a referendum may be drawn after a bill has been passed by the law-making body, and then the bill will not go into effect unless the referendum shows that a majority of the voters favor it.

These two features of direct legislation often go hand in hand. The initiative is of little value without the referendum, except that it may bring the desires of the people up before the law-making body. But we often find the referendum used without the initiative, particularly for amendments to state constitutions and for important laws. In Pennsylvania, for example, the state constitution requires that amendments to it must be submitted to a popular vote, but does not provide for the use of the referendum for any other purpose in the state, except when local governments wish to borrow money in large amounts by issuing bonds.

We should avoid abusing the initiative and referendum. There is not much use for a legislature if the people are going to vote directly on everything. In some states the percentage of voters who may use the initiative is so low that it is possible for a very few people to force a whole state to act on a measure which the people do not

understand and care nothing about. The initiative and referendum surely need to be safeguarded against foolish and unnecessary use. But they may be of great value in making legislatures do what the people want, and in finding out the opinion of all the voters who have any opinion at all. So, at the same time, they should be easy enough to use that the people can exercise control over important policies whenever their law-makers either are not sure what are the people's desires or actually go contrary to them.

Do you have either or both the initiative and the referendum in your state? If so, to what extent? How are they used? Do you consider them desirable?

193. **Removing Unworthy Officials.** — To make good laws and enforce them after they are made, we must have officials who are honest and intelligent. Unfortunately we sometimes find that we have an unworthy person in some public office. There are several means of removing such persons, rather than waiting till it is time to select their successors.

If he has been appointed by the President, the Governor, or the Mayor, or any other administrative officer, he may in most cases be removed by the persons who appointed him—that is, except judges, who may not be removed in this way. Of course, appointed officers are sometimes removed for other reasons than because they are unworthy or inefficient.

Occasionally a method known as *impeachment* is used in removing unfit officials. In the national government, impeachment charges may be drawn up in the House of Representatives against any federal administrative officer or judge. The Senate conducts the trial of the impeached officer, and if two-thirds of the senators believe he is guilty, he is convicted and loses his office. The Senate may also disqualify him from holding any other office under the

United States. Impeachment of state officers is also provided for in state constitutions. This method is not often used, and many impeached officers have not been convicted. It is the only way to remove federal judges.

Have any Presidents been impeached? Have any been convicted? Do you know of any other cases of impeachment?

Some states and cities use another means for removing unworthy officials. This is the *recall*. This is done by means of a petition signed by a certain number of voters, asking for a special election to decide whether a person shall be put out of office. Usually, in such elections there are other candidates for the office, and the one having the highest vote goes in, in case the vote goes against the person holding the office. Sometimes the state has laws providing for filling such a vacancy, and the vote simply is an expression of the people's opinion as to whether the person in office should serve out his term. For instance, if the governor should be recalled, the lieutenant-governor might automatically take his place.

Unworthy officials are kept out of many offices by the civil service laws. In order to pass an examination, they have to be qualified, in some measure at least, for the position. It is sometimes asserted that under the civil service laws it is not easy to get rid of an officer who is too old or careless to do good work. But any officer in the "classified service" can be removed if he is given a hearing and shown to be dishonest or otherwise guilty of improper conduct. Surely it is better that a few slow or lazy people shall be kept as clerks in some government office than that all of them, no matter how good they are, shall be always in danger of losing their jobs just because their political opinions agree with those of the party which loses an election.

Have any officials in your state been removed from office? For what reason? What recall provisions, if any, do you have?

194. **Getting Good Government.** — What must be done

to make our government good? For one thing, there must be coöperation between those who make the laws and those who enforce them, and they must each do all they can to improve the government.

There can be too much law-making. If all the bills which come up before Congress or the legislatures at each session were passed, we should be swamped with unnecessary laws. The law-making bodies of our country have to contend with this flood of bills, and it is as much their duty to see that no harmful or valueless law is passed, as to pass laws that are good.

Besides, it is often worse than useless to pass laws which can not or will not be enforced after their passage. Sometimes reforms are best brought about by slow but steady changes in people's habits, rather than by laws passed before the majority want them. It is not the making of a law, but its enforcement, that brings about changes and improvements.

There is also the problem of getting good men to serve. We need men in office who have high standards and want public matters to be conducted in the right way. But it is difficult to get such men, especially in offices of lesser importance. Men who would make good officials are often engrossed in their business, and do not feel that they can give their time. Often, too, the salary of officials is not a sufficient inducement.



THE MUNICIPAL BUILDING,
NEW YORK CITY.

Then, too, desirable men frequently are not willing to push themselves forward in order to get offices. The attitude of the public at large is in a great measure responsible for this. People say things about a person who is running for office, or who is in office, that they would not think of saying about him in private life. A person often risks his reputation in a political campaign, and many good men will not run this risk. On the other hand, people should be willing to make some sacrifice in order to serve their community and their country. But while it is right that we should demand high standards in our public officers, it is most unjust for us, merely because a person is an officeholder, to believe and repeat every piece of gossip and scandal that we hear about him, whether he belongs to our party or the other one.

After all, the individual—you or I or John Smith—is responsible for good government in a very real sense. We should respect the public offices of our government, and those who hold them, until their unworthiness is proved. We should vote only for such persons as we believe will do their very best if elected.

We should obey the laws that exist, without regard to our own opinion in the matter. Sometimes, indeed, the best way to prove that a law is bad is to enforce it strictly upon everybody alike. And it may be our duty to report other citizens who break the law. This does not mean that every person should constitute himself a policeman or a private detective. But if you know that a person is violating a law, and has not been caught, and that his wrong-doing is harming others or may do so, very likely you should let the authorities know about it. By our attitude toward law and government, we can influence others to do either right or wrong.

Make a list of good laws which can not be thoroughly enforced unless citizens cooperate with the officials.

QUESTIONS

Why do we need laws? What is a law? What is the difference between a law and a constitution? What is an "unwritten law?" How do laws originate? How may sentiment be aroused for the making of laws? What part do our chief executors have in our law-making? Define *lobbying* and *log-rolling*.

How is our national law-making body organized? Why does it have two houses? Who are the presiding officers? What special powers does either house have that the other does not? Define *apportionment*, *gerrymander*, *congressman-at-large*. When are elections to Congress held and how often? When does Congress meet? What special privileges do Congressmen have? What is their compensation?

What part do committees play in law-making? Trace the steps by which a bill is passed. Define *quorum*, *conference committee*, *veto*, *filibuster*.

Explain the importance of law enforcement. What do the President and the courts have to do with law enforcement? Explain the work of the Interstate Commerce Commission; the Civil Service Commission; the Federal Trade Commission.

What in general is the President's position in the government? What are the requirements of the office? In case of a vacancy in the office, who succeeds? Mention the powers and duties of the President. For which of these must he have the approval of the Senate?

Name the offices which are included in the Cabinet. What in general are the Cabinet's duties? What is the title of the official at the head of each cabinet department? State briefly the work of each department. Mention some important subordinate officers in the Treasury Department; in the Department of the Interior; in the Department of Agriculture; in the Department of Commerce; in the Department of Labor.

How do the courts act in interpreting a law? What is their connection with law enforcement?

Under what heads may the powers of the law-making departments be grouped? List the special powers that belong under each special heading. Explain the argument over strict and loose construction of the constitution. Draw a diagram to show the extent of the power of the state and of the national law-making departments. Mention the special powers you will include in each part of your diagram. Define *concurrent* powers.

By what bodies are the laws made in the states? Compare law-making in the states and in the national government. Mention the principal state officers whose duties are to administer the laws. What do the state courts have to do with law enforcement? How far must

the state and local governments respect the national authority? How far is it their duty to enforce national laws?

By whom are laws made in cities? In other local governments? Explain the town meeting. Mention the principal officers of county government. Who are the chief executive officials in local governments? By whom are the laws carried out in city governments? Explain the commission form of government in cities; the city manager plan.

What is direct legislation? Explain the *initiative* and the *referendum*. To what extent are they in use?

How may unworthy officials be removed? Define *impeachment*; *recall*. What are good reasons for removing public officials? Can there be too much law-making? Why is it sometimes difficult to get good men to hold office? How far are individual citizens responsible for good government?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

A Visit to the City Council (or other local law-making bodies).

Our State Legislature.

Our Government.

Our State Capitol.

The National Capitol.

The United States Senators from Our State.

The Congressman from Our District.

Our President.

Resolved, that the two-term tradition for the President is foolish.

The Men Who Compose Our President's Cabinet.

Resolved, that our community should adopt the city manager form of government (or the commission form).

A Session of the State Legislature or Congress. (If there is time the class may consider itself the Legislature or Congress and take up several pieces of legislation. If this is done, have standing committees appointed as in actual government. The teacher can be governor or president.)

The Anarchist and How His Theories Work.

Resolved, that Cabinet officers should have the right to discuss the questions in Congress in which they are concerned.

A Town Meeting.

Resolved, that the initiative and referendum should be adopted in our state.

Famous Cases of Impeachment.

Resolved, that it is the duty of every individual to be a candidate for office if he is requested to do so.

CHAPTER XIII

VOTING

Our government is built upon the vote.—Beecher.

195. **Why Voting Is Important.** — We must remember that the privileges we enjoy as citizens of the United States bring certain duties with them. One of these is voting. Voting is not a right, as some people seem to think, except in the sense that all who meet certain conditions are entitled to it. It is a privilege offered to those who are thought fit to exercise it, and it is the duty of such people to take advantage of the opportunity.

Because each person has only one vote, he must not be careless or indifferent about casting it. What a condition we should be in if everybody were like that! Every vote goes to make up the whole, and one vote may make a great deal of difference. Local officers have often been elected by a margin of one or two votes, and once even the governor of a state was chosen by a majority of one vote over his opponent.

It is by means of this “franchise,” as it is called, that the people take part in the government. We have said that to give every individual an actual part in making the laws would be a physical impossibility in a country as large as the United States. But every voter has a voice in choosing officers to act for the people, and to represent them in the government. If a person stands for certain principles he may vote for some one who has the same views. Virtually all the law-making officials mentioned in the last

chapter, many of the most important executive officers, and a considerable number of the judicial officers, are chosen by popular vote. It may not always be true that "the voice of the people is the voice of God," but when God does speak to the world, he uses men and women to utter his message. Voting may sometimes be a very solemn thing, especially when a policy that concerns the welfare of our whole country or the whole world is up for us to consider.

Is the majority always right? If the right seems to be defeated what are we to do about it?

196. Who May Vote. — The qualifications of voters vary greatly in the states. Be sure to understand, by the way, that the right to vote in a state is determined by the state itself, except that the national Constitution forbids the states to deny the vote, on account of race or sex, to any citizen who has reached the age of twenty-one. The age requirement—twenty-one years—is the same all over the United States, and most states require citizenship and residence in the state for a certain length of time. A few states permit aliens to vote who have announced their intention of becoming American citizens. In some states the payment of taxes is necessary, and a few require a reading and writing test. The old requirement of property-holding is not an essential any longer, but in the early days it was almost universal.

For a long time only men were permitted to vote, and when able women like Susan B. Anthony and Lucy Stone undertook to tell the public that this restriction was unfair, people made fun of them and even abused them. In 1869 Wyoming Territory gave women the ballot, and a number of other states, mostly in the West, later did the same. After a long struggle, the Nineteenth Amendment to the national Constitution was adopted in 1920. Then all the states had to open the polls to men and women on equal terms.

Is there any sound reason why women should not vote? Why do you suppose women first gained the franchise in the West?

In many states, especially in the cities, voters are required to register, that is, to tell their names and various characteristics before a registration board, a certain length of time before the election. This is for the purpose of identification, so that no person may vote more than once, and no person may vote on another's name.



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REGISTERING VOTERS.

Voters must answer numerous questions to identify them and then sign their names. The women appear to be greatly interested in qualifying themselves to vote.

What are the requirements for a voter in your state? Do you think they should be changed?

197. Voting by Ballot. — Formerly voting was done very openly. People cast their vote *viva voce*, or by word of mouth. This encouraged bribery, for the briber could be sure that the person whom he had bought would vote

in accordance with the bargain, and good people were sometimes afraid to vote according to their convictions. The first step toward the betterment of these conditions was the party ballot. Each party supplied its own ballots to the people. But this was not much of an improvement, for you could usually distinguish one party's ballots from another's, and know which one a voter dropped in the box. Ballot-box "stuffing" was easy, too.

Now we have almost everywhere the secret ballot. That is, a person can go into a booth, mark his ballot, fold it, and put it into the ballot-box without anybody's knowing how he has voted. This method encourages free thinking and voting.

The elections are carried on by election boards, made up of perhaps five members, such as a judge, two inspectors, and two clerks. This board gives ballots to those who are entitled to them, and then they count the votes after the polls close. The polls are open from seven in the morning to seven at night, or from sunrise to sunset, or some other fixed period, according to the laws of the state. If the voting system of our country is to be successful, the election boards must be honest. People ought to be more careful than they sometimes are about selecting these officers. When a town or city is large, it is divided into voting districts, and a separate board conducts the election in each district.

Find out what the customs and laws of your state are in regard to conducting elections. Is there ever any difficulty in getting the right kind of election boards?

Make a map of your town or ward or city, showing its divisions into election districts and the location of the different polling places.

198. Forms of Ballots. — Beginning with 1890, the states adopted the form of voting used in Australia, and called therefore the *Australian ballot*. Under this system each ballot has on it the names of every candidate at a general election, and is supplied by the state or county officials.

FIRST COLUMN

This Column is for Straight Party Votes

REPUBLICAN	<input type="checkbox"/>
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DEMOCRATIC	<input type="checkbox"/>
-------------------	--------------------------

SOCIALIST	<input type="checkbox"/>
------------------	--------------------------

PROHIBITION	<input type="checkbox"/>
--------------------	--------------------------

PROTHONOTARY (Vote for One)		
John Vogt,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>
James A. Tiernan,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
E. Guenther,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>

RECORDER OF DEEDS (Vote for One)		
John D. Graham,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
Michael L. Flynn,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
George A. Coleman,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>
Harold E. Flegal,	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>

CLERK OF COURTS (Vote for One)		
John Douglas, Jr.,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>
Frank C. Beatty,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
F. A. Silvis,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>

CONSTABLE (Vote for One)		
Richard R. Howell,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
J. A. Day,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>
William Cutbber,	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>

COUNTY TREASURER (Vote for One)		
Joseph C. Armstrong,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
E. D. Stambaugh,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fred Thompson,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>
John H. Sbenkel,	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>

SCHOOL VISITOR (Vote for Three)		
John B. Barbour,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
A. L. Schultz,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
Harry O. Danner,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
J. W. Lowtber,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
J. McShane,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
R. Blackwell,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>

COUNTY CONTROLLER (Vote for One)		
John P. Moore,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bradley McK. Burns,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
Wm. J. Van Essen,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>

JUDGE OF ELECTION (Vote for One)		
Joseph R. Conrad,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>

COUNTY COMMISSIONER (Vote for Two)		
Robert S. Cain,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
Addison C. Gumbert,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
John J. Gallagber,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
James Houlaben,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>
William W. Noonan,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>
W. J. Wright,	Socialist	<input type="checkbox"/>
Samuel D. Foster,	Prohibition	<input type="checkbox"/>

INSPECTOR OF ELECTION (Vote for One)		
Joseph M. Drane,	Republican	<input type="checkbox"/>
William McClelland,	Democratic	<input type="checkbox"/>

PART OF A PENNSYLVANIA BALLOT.

A voter who wants to vote for all the candidates of one party may do so by making a cross opposite the name of his party in the first column. If he does not wish to vote a "straight" ticket, he will let the first column alone, but will make a cross opposite the names of the individual candidates whom he prefers.

The forms of ballots in the different states vary. On some, the names of the candidates for each party are put together in a column. Often there is a "party square" or circle, and by making a cross in this place, one can vote for all the candidates of one party. On the *Massachusetts ballot*, all candidates for a certain office are grouped together in alphabetical order, and there is no "party square," but each candidate must be voted for separately. Other states besides Massachusetts have adopted this ballot. In many of the cities of New York State, voting machines are used instead of ballots.

Why do party politicians favor having a "party square" on the ballot, and political reformers usually oppose it?

199. How Names Are Put on the Ballot. — There are several ways in which a person may become a candidate for an office. For a long time, nominations for local offices were made by means of a *caucus*, which is a meeting of party members within a certain district. For county or state officers or for Congress, nominations were formerly made by a *convention*, which was usually composed of members chosen by local caucuses or by some other method. But since these meetings were composed of comparatively few men, they often did not really represent the sentiment and desires of the people.

Therefore what is known as the *direct primary* has been adopted in most of the states. This is a system by which any voter is allowed to express his opinion in regard to the candidates who shall be nominated by his party. Such an election is held a few weeks or months before the final election, and is conducted by the same officers. In this plan, any person who wishes to get his name on the ballot for a nomination must have a petition signed by a certain number of voters in the district of which he wishes to be an officer. This must be presented several days or weeks before the election to the officer who has charge of such

petitions. The ballots then contain the names of all those who wish to be candidates for an office under a certain party name, and for non-partisan offices, if such are to be filled.

At the primary there is a separate ballot for each party, and many states ask a voter to register as a member of a certain party, so that he can not have any part in the primary in nominating candidates of a party to which he does not belong. It was hoped that better men would be nominated by this method than by conventions. Unfortunately this has not always been the case, but there is at least this improvement over the old system—that the people have the nominations in their own hands, and they themselves are really to blame if the wrong men are nominated.

Even after candidates for an office have been selected at the primaries, a person who wishes to get his name on the ballot may secure a petition signed by a certain number of voters, and can enter the contest under some new party name. Such candidates are at a disadvantage, but they sometimes succeed.

Find out the precise dates for primary elections in your state. Do voters take very much interest in them?

200. When Officers Are Chosen. — For some reason it has become the rule for general elections to take place on the Tuesday after the first Monday of November. Electors for the president are chosen in leap years. State officers are usually chosen the same day of the year, except in Maine. But in some states, county and city officers are chosen at a different time.

Sometimes elections are so arranged that local officers and national officers are elected in alternate years. This is to prevent state and national politics from influencing the election of county and city officers. There is no reason in the world why a man's opinion on the tariff or the Federal Reserve Act, for example, should have any effect on the way

he would conduct the office of mayor or road commissioner. But if such an officer is chosen at the same time as a Congressman or President, there is a temptation for a voter to vote a straight party ticket.

STUB
TO BE TORN OFF BY THE CHAIRMAN

STUB
TO BE TORN OFF BY THE FIRST CLERK

OFFICIAL BALLOT FOR PRECINCT No. 247 Multnomah County, Oregon, November 2, 1920

MARK X BETWEEN THE NUMBER AND NAME OF EACH CANDIDATE OR ANSWER VOTED FOR

UNITED STATES		VOTE FOR FOUR		VOTE FOR ONE	
For Electors of President and Vice Presidents of the United States		For Justice of the Supreme Court		For District Attorney, Multnomah County	
12	GEORGE M. C. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	48	BEAN HENRY J. of Wasilla County	74	EVANS WALTER H. of Multnomah County
13	HOTCHKISS CLARENCE R. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	49	BENSON HENRY L. of Elsie County	75	JEFFREY JOHN A. of Multnomah County
14	HULE JOSEPH of LINN COUNTY	50	HARRIS LAWRENCE T. of Lane County	76	
15	RICHARDSON JOHN Y. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	51	M. BELDE THOMAS A. of Columbia County		
16	BOBB WALTER L. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY				
17	MAYTEL OSCAR of POLK COUNTY	For Justice of the Supreme Court To fill vacancy caused by the resignation of Justice A. S. Bennett.		VOTE FOR ONE—by writing in name	
18	MEDLUND DE E. T. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	For Attorney General To fill vacancy caused by the resignation of Attorney General George M. Brown to succeed Justice A. S. Bennett.		VOTE FOR ONE—by writing in name	
19	MILLER ROBERT A. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	For Dairy and Food Commissioner		VOTE FOR ONE	
20	BEAMES A. E. of JACKSON COUNTY	52	HAWLEY D. L. of Polk County	For County Commissioners	
21	WATKINS ELTON of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	53	VON BIERHEN F. J. of Marion County	60	RUDEEM CHAR. B.
22	AMOS WM. F. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	For Commissioner of the Public Service Commission of Oregon, District Composed of the Counties Lying West of the Cascade Mountains, Benton, Clackamas, Clatsop, Columbia, Cook, Curry, Douglas, Jackson, Josephine, Lane, Lincoln, Linn, Marion, Multnomah, Polk, Tillamook, Washington and Yamhill Counties		VOTE FOR ONE	
23	JEWETT MARY H. of LANE COUNTY	54	BENNETT WM. D. of Multnomah County	For County Sheriff	
24	JOHNSON E. T. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	55	BUCHTELL TRUD G. of Multnomah County	81	HURLBURY THOMAS M.
25	PAGET B. LEE of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	56	NEWMAN OTTO of Multnomah County	82	HIMMONS P. F.
26	WALKER CYRUS H. of LINN COUNTY	For Judge of Circuit Court, Fourth Judicial District, Department Number Six, Multnomah County		VOTE FOR ONE	
27	JOHNSON JOHN E. of HALIFAX COUNTY	57	M. COURT JOHN of Multnomah County	For County Clerk	
28	MYERS W. W. of CLATSOP COUNTY	For Senator, Thirteenth Senatorial District, Multnomah County		VOTE FOR FIVE	
29	RAMS R. F. of DOUGLAS COUNTY	58	FARWELL BOBT S. of Multnomah County	For County Treasurer	
30	RICHARDS W. S. of LINN COUNTY	59	HUMM WILSON T. of Multnomah County	84	LEWIS JOHN M.
31	RYAN R. B. of MARION COUNTY	60	JOSEPH OEO W. of Multnomah County	For County Assessor	
32	BLANKMAN CHAS H. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	61	MOSEER ODE C. of Multnomah County	85	WELCH MIRAM G.
33	BERGLUND ANDERS D. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	62	STAPLER ISAAC E. of Multnomah County	For County School Superintendent	
34	CARLSON FELIX J. of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	63	LUNDBERG ELMER B. of Multnomah County	86	ALDERSON W. G.
35	LOFT NELS B. of WASHINGTON COUNTY	For Representative, Seventeenth Representative District, Clackamas and Multnomah Counties		VOTE FOR ONE	
36	OLSON JOHN of MULTNOMAH COUNTY	64	MCDONALD W. B. of Multnomah County	For County Surveyor	
		For Representative, Eighteenth Representative District, Multnomah County		VOTE FOR TWELVE	
		65	GORDON HERBERT of Multnomah County	For County Coroner	
		66	STRETMAN CHARLES G. of Multnomah County	89	SMITH EARL
				For Judge of the District Court, Department Number One	
				VOTE FOR ONE	
				90	BELL J. W.
				For Judge of the District Court, Department Number Two	
				VOTE FOR ONE	
				91	DEICH RICHARD
				For United States Senator in Congress	
				VOTE FOR ONE	

PART OF AN OREGON BALLOT.

On this ballot you must vote separately for each office. There is no "party square." Compare this with the Pennsylvania ballot shown on page 403. Do you imagine it takes any more brains to vote one of these than the other?

201. Electing a President. — Every four years we choose a President. Since the country is to some extent disturbed for several months preceding this event, and other coun-

tries, too, look on with a great deal of interest, we ought to understand its principal features clearly. Our Constitution-makers intended that a group of electors who seemed especially qualified to make such an important choice should, after deliberation, vote for men whom they thought to be capable, and that the President should be chosen in this way. At the present time, however, while the rules of the Constitution are adhered to, the actual choice of a President



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A PRESIDENTIAL NOMINATING CONVENTION.

This picture shows the delegates and many of the spectators at the Republican Convention at Chicago in 1920.

is not made at all as the makers of the Constitution thought it would be.

The first step in the election of a President is the *nominating convention*. Each party holds such a convention in a large city in June or July of leap years. Delegates from each state make up the convention. They are chosen according to the laws of the state. In the Republican and Democratic conventions, the total number is almost or quite double the number of members of Congress.

Most of the states choose their delegates to the national conventions of the various parties at direct primaries held in the spring of the year, and delegates may be voted for because they have agreed to work for the nomination of some particular person as a candidate. Sometimes the fight between the friends of different men proposed for nomination in one party is just as bitter as between Republicans and Democrats after the nomination is made. Sometimes, too, the conventions pay little attention to the candidates in whose interest these primary campaigns are carried on, and select candidates who get very few votes in the state primaries.

These delegates nominate a candidate for the presidency on their party ticket. It has often been necessary to cast thirty or forty ballots before any person had a majority. In the Democratic convention, a two-thirds vote is required. A platform, that is, a statement of the party's principles and views, is adopted, and a candidate for the vice-presidency is chosen.

The second step is the choice of electors. The state legislatures have provided that these shall be chosen by popular vote, and each state elects as many as it has Senators and Representatives in Congress. This election takes place, as we have said, the Tuesday after the first Monday of November in leap years. Each party nominates as many electors as the state is entitled to, and the voters of each party may vote for the entire list of presidential electors put up by the party in their state. In this way they are voting for the candidate whom they want, for the electors automatically vote for the candidate of their party. There is no law which says they must do so, but they feel morally bound.

The electors meet at their state capitol and vote on the second Monday of the January following their election. This duty is performed simply because the Constitution provides for it, and not because it is necessary. They are

nothing more than machinery. Two reports are sent to the presiding officer of the national Senate, and a third is sent to the United States judge of the district in which they meet.

The fourth step in choosing a president is the counting of the electoral votes. This takes place on the second Wednesday in February, in the House of Representatives, with both houses of Congress present. This is also a mere formality. Those who have a majority of votes are declared to have been elected president and vice-president.

But in case no presidential candidate has a majority, the vote is referred to the House of Representatives, which chooses from the three highest. The members from each state cast one vote as a unit, and a candidate, to be elected, must get the votes of a majority of the states. Therefore several ballots may be necessary. Under similar conditions, the Senate, its members voting as individuals, elects a vice-president from the two highest candidates.

It sometimes happens that a president is chosen who is not really favored by a majority of the American people. Political "bosses," by various means, will sometimes have a man nominated whom they can influence. When the rivalry between prominent men in one party is close, the convention may nominate a comparatively unknown person—"a dark horse"—who may fall far short of being the party's strongest or best man.

Sometimes, too, a candidate loses an election when more people in the country vote for the electors of his party than of the other. Even though the people of a state may favor one candidate almost as much as another, the whole electoral vote of that state is usually cast for the leading candidate, because most voters vote for all the electors of one party, and a margin of a thousand is as good as a hundred thousand. So if a candidate has a small lead in the popular vote in a few big states, it will probably give him a bigger electoral vote than he would get from

large majorities in small states. And under our constitutional method, it is the electoral vote that counts.

Again, it is quite possible that if an election were close and were referred to Congress, a person whom the majority of the people did not want might be elected. These evils must be remedied before we can be sure that our chief executive will be the candidate favored by the greatest number of voters.

What do you think could or should be done to remedy some of the weaknesses in the election of a president? Do you think that some of the formality could be safely done away with? Do you think the whole system should be changed?

202. How Parties Are Managed. — In speaking of elections we have spoken of political parties, because we assumed that you knew such organizations exist and have something to do with our choice of officers. One person, unless he is very influential, can do little to affect the opinions of others. But he can combine with people who have the same ideas, and when many of them work together, they can accomplish a great deal. A *political party*, then, is a group of people of similar political opinions and principles, who have formed an organization for the purpose of making their principles the policy of the government.

Every big political party is organized, for otherwise it could accomplish little. It has its national committee made up of a delegate from each state, and its state, county, city, township, and even, in cities, precinct or ward committees. These committees do all they can to stir up public sentiment in favor of their party, and to arouse interest in the campaigns. They are usually chosen by the same method as candidates are nominated for office. Party leaders appoint committees for special campaigns.

The party platforms drawn up at conventions are often composed by a very few men who are appointed as a committee for this purpose. Parties often do not pretend to carry out every plank in the platform. Some are put

there merely to get votes. Usually the convention goes through the formality of accepting the platform, with very little thought. Whatever disagreement may have existed is generally smoothed out in the committee meeting, though sometimes the whole convention votes on matters of special importance.

Find out all you can about party committees in your own neighborhood or community. What do they do?

Sometimes special parties are organized in a city or county, which do not make any attempt to elect people to state or national offices. Usually such parties are not intended to be permanent, and break up soon after an election. Sometimes, too, there may be a party organized for some reason connected with state politics, which will have its county, city, or township officers, though it may not care about national officials.

203. **Political Campaigns.** — We have already spoken of the way in which nominations for office are made. After a party has nominated its candidates, there is a period of time during which the party carries on a campaign. Every imaginable means is used to win people to its side and to get the votes of as many people as possible. Either the candidates or other speakers address public meetings and give arguments and appeals, good or otherwise, in favor of the candidate whom they support.

Years ago, political parties held all sorts of parades and street-corner rallies, and stirred up a great deal of excitement. But now, speakers make their appeals more to the supposed intelligence of the public, and not so much to their emotions. They argue with their audiences and with people who have either the courage or the good sense to vote independently and not always for one party. Often some of the arguments set forth seem to suggest that the majority of men do not reason at all, but will believe everything they are told. Some of the methods

used to obtain votes are certainly not creditable to any party.

Besides holding political meetings, parties endeavor to win votes by means of advertisements, editorials, news items, magazine articles, and the like. Of course, parties need a great deal of money to do all this. They obtain it by contributions. Formerly corporations gave enormous sums of money, in order to be favored during the coming



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A CAMPAIGN MEETING.

Secretary of State Chas. E. Hughes was speaking to a great crowd at Hastings, Nebraska. He was then a candidate for the presidency administration. That is now forbidden by law, however, and bribery is unlawful. The names of all large contributors, and the amount they give, must be reported, and candidates must keep an account of all they spend. Unfortunately, these laws do not do as much good as they might, because many people find ways to get around them.

Mention some means which parties or candidates have used to gain votes in your neighborhood. Can you suggest anything more that can be done to clean up politics? Who can do it? What would

be honest uses of money, and what would be dishonest uses of it, in political campaigns?

204. **Bad Effects of Parties.** — Parties are not nearly so helpful as they might be in the political life of the country. The best men, those of high character and ability, ought to be in charge of the affairs of a party, but they generally are not. Instead, party “bosses” are too often in control, and they usually have their own advancement at heart rather than the welfare of the party or of the nation. They control conventions, and by “wire-pulling,” of which the public in general knows nothing, they can put in office whomsoever they wish, even with the direct primaries in operation. Such office-holders are generally men who can be influenced by the bosses.

Another bad effect of parties appears in the way people blindly vote for any person whom the party nominates, whether he is the best candidate for the office or not. They are often too much prejudiced to see clearly the merits of other parties or other men. Independent thinking has increased in the country, but there are still too many people who are rank partisans, and always vote a certain ticket, no matter who is running for office.

The only hope is that people will act more independently, and will vote according to their real beliefs and convictions, and not merely for their party. Sometimes, too, voters are simply too lazy to think for themselves. “My father was a Democrat,” or, “A business man can’t get anything unless he is a Republican,” are samples of excuses for voting which a person ought to be ashamed to offer. There is no sense in voting a “split” ticket just for the sake of saying that you have done so, but there are likely to be frequent occasions when an intelligent voter ought to pick out the best men on different tickets and vote for them, or even change his party completely.

Make a list of foolish excuses for supporting a particular candidate; another list of sensible reasons. Is there ever a time when a person

would be justified in refusing to vote at all? Define *graft*, *bribery*, *bossism*. (Don't get the idea that all public officers are dishonest.)

205. **Making Parties Useful.** — Political parties should be the servants and not the masters of the people. They can, if the people wish it, be the agents through which the people express their desires or principles. By forcing parties to take a stand definitely on one side or another of great issues, and then voting for the party in whose principles we believe, we can cause the real will of the people to be carried out in the government. Then the election of an officer will really be a "solemn referendum" of the people. Sometimes, it is true, more than one question will be discussed in a campaign. Then a voter will have to decide which is the most important issue or whose victory will on the whole be best for the community, state, or nation, as the case may be, and vote accordingly.

Why were political parties formed? Because people held different opinions and different views, and they organized with others who held the same principles, in order to control the government's actions. But gradually, the parties have come to have nearly the same views on most of the questions that are always confronting a government. What shall we do, then, when new issues come up? Shall we try to make the old parties take a stand on such issues, or shall we start a new party? Probably it is most natural to try the former first. But people should surely have backbone and intelligence enough to throw away a party which has no convictions or ideals, and join with those who are looking ahead rather than backward, even if it means forming an entirely new organization. And we should be able to see back of the party name, and to vote for the candidate whose principles are ours, or whose character and experience best fit him to do good service.

Voters ought to take much more interest than they often do in primary elections. If they would only turn out and

see that good men are nominated by each party, there would be much better government than now we often get. If we wait until other people have done the nominating, we may have to choose between two bad or otherwise unfit men.

When do you think a voter ought to consider chiefly the personal characteristics of candidates, and when should he give most consideration to the party platform? Or should the same considerations always



A VIRGINIA COURT HOUSE.

In Virginia the county early became the political unit, and the courthouse is the center of county administration.

come first? Do the members of your families remember the names of the officers they voted for at the last election? (See Young, *New American Government*, p. 652.) What does this signify?

206. **The Short Ballot Idea.** — At the present time, the ballots are often very long. They contain the names of candidates for very unimportant offices. When there are so many to vote on, the voter can not possibly know the qualifications of each one, and he votes blindly, usually

for candidates of the party of which he calls himself a member, even though they may not be the best men. When people vote in this way, politicians can easily control elections and officers.

To remedy the evils of the long ballot, some people advocate the idea known as the "short ballot." This name does not refer to the size of the ballot, however, so much as to the principle of it. Briefly, the idea is that the voters should choose a few important officers, who, in turn, will appoint the others. For example, the chief executives of state, county, and city or township, could be elected by the people, and they would appoint the officers under them.

The advantage of the short ballot system is that voters can study the lives and characters of a few candidates, and vote accordingly. Then these few officers would really be the agents of the people, and to let them appoint the minor officials would not be denying democracy, for the people will already have expressed their will in choosing the important officers. Several cities have already adopted the short ballot, and it is thought that more will do so in the future.

How does the long ballot serve the interests of political bosses? Are there any dangers in the short ballot? Which prevails in your state?

207. **Getting Representation for All Parties.** — Representation in our government is based on districts. Members of the House of Representatives, as we have seen, are chosen in districts in each state, and the United States Senators represent states. But often, unless the greater part of the members of the smaller parties happen to be crowded into certain parts of the state, the majority party may get all the representatives.

Some people who think this is unfair advocate what is called *proportional representation* for parties. This means the representation of all parties in the government accord-

ing to their strength. In this way the minority party would be represented in the government, and have a voice in it as well as the larger parties.

One scheme of proportional representation is to have the districts arranged so that three or more representatives would be chosen in a district. Then, for example, a voter might take his choice of casting one vote for each of three candidates or three votes for one candidate. If the members of the smaller party did the latter thing, they would probably elect one of their men. There are several schemes for proportional representation, some of which sound rather complicated. Under any form of this system, the more powerful parties would not monopolize the government, as they do under the majority system, in which the weaker parties have no voice whatever.

Another idea worth mentioning is that of the *preferential ballot*. Under this scheme a voter might vote a second or third choice of candidates as well as his first choice. Then in counting the votes, if no candidate had a majority of the first-choice votes, the other choices would be reckoned in some fixed proportion. What do you think of this?

208. Non-Partisan Elections.—Some communities have adopted the plan of having non-partisan elections—that is, not using party names at all on the ballots. In electing city, township, or county officers, this is often a great improvement, because many people who usually vote simply for a party name will then vote for the man whom they consider the best for the office. Of course, political party organizations sometimes use their influence to get a certain man elected, but it is not so easy as if they could work for him under a party name. Non-partisan elections do lead to independent voting.

Would non-partisan elections be possible in state or national governments?

209. Making Governments Really Representative.—The people themselves, as we have said, are really responsi-

ble for good government. They can, if they wish, have the government carried on well, and make it truly representative of their desires. The first thing we must do is to show an interest in the government, and the election of its officers. "Nothing great was ever accomplished without enthusiasm," and if we want to bring about a reform or an improvement, we must go about it with real interest. Indifference achieves nothing, and there are too many Americans who leave all the work for the other fellow to do. We must not think of our vote simply as an individual thing, but remember that each of us is one part of a great whole. Every person who is qualified should make it a point to vote on election day.

The great political parties of the country can be made to stand for the principles and opinions of the people. The people should think of parties as their agents to bring about what they desire, instead of becoming the servants of the parties, and upholding them no matter what stand they may take, or what officers they may nominate. When a party which is formed to promote the success of one cause has finished its work, what is the sense of forever keeping the same name and organization which no longer signifies anything in particular? Surely it is not sound reasoning that because a party name was used once in a righteous cause, it will always represent the right, or that, because a party elected an Abraham Lincoln or Thomas Jefferson to office, all its candidates are Lincolns or Jeffersons.

We have previously discussed the advantages of independent thinking in elections. There is more of this than there used to be, but until independent thinking becomes a habit of the people, our government will not be truly representative. It can be so only when the officers and the parties stand for definite principles. Too often parties try to "straddle," to appear to be on both sides of a question at once, and too often they make all kinds of

Making Governments Really Representative 419

promises just to get votes. And then many voters go right on casting their ballots for the same party names, no matter how its candidates act.

The people should insist that the men whom they elect to office carry out their wishes and express their opinions in the government. If they do not, the unworthy officer or party should be rebuked in no uncertain way when the



A MASSACHUSETTS TOWN HALL.

The New England Town Meeting is generally regarded as the most representative form of government in America. Tocqueville says: "Town meetings are to liberty what primary schools are to science." The Town Meeting is held in the Town Hall.

next election comes around. When people know what they want, when they can distinguish the true from the false, the honest from the dishonest, when parties say what the majority of their members believe, when officers do what they promise—then Americans may say truly that we are a democracy, that this is a government by the people, instead of a mere shell of system and formalities.

What difficulties sometimes make it hard for a voter to decide between different candidates? What kinds of advice in politics should we be slow in accepting?

QUESTIONS

Is voting a right, a duty, or a privilege? Why is voting important? What people have the right to vote? Why do voters in many states have to register?

What methods of voting were once common? Explain the plan now in operation. What is the Australian ballot? Describe the arrangement of names on different forms of ballots.

What different methods have been used for nominating candidates? Explain the *direct primary*. Of what value is it? Define *caucus*; *convention*.

On what day of the year are most elections held? Should national and state elections be held at the same time? How did the makers of the Constitution expect the President to be elected? Enumerate the steps in electing the President today. Explain the *nominating convention*. What is the *electoral college*? How many people compose it and what do they do? Do we always elect our ablest men to the presidency? What obstacles stand in the way of election of able men?

What is a *political party*? Explain its organization. Define *platform*. What is meant by a *campaign*? By what methods do parties attempt to influence voters? In what ways do parties exert a harmful influence on the country? In what ways may parties be useful? How far is it the fault of the voters if good men are not elected?

What is the *short ballot* idea? What advantages are claimed for it? Explain *proportional representation*. Are non-partisan elections desirable? What should a voter think of before he casts his ballot? Why should a good citizen think independently in politics? What conditions are necessary to have real democracy in our government?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Conducting an Election. (Every civics class should imitate as nearly as possible among its own members the election process which is in vogue in its own state and community. Voters should be registered and pay taxes, if necessary, and vote for the same officials whose names appear on the regular ballots. If sample ballots cannot be secured mimeographed ballots will be satisfactory. It is most effective to study this topic and conduct this election at the time when an

actual campaign is going on, but of course unpleasant expressions of partisanship should be carefully avoided by teacher and class.)

A Study of the Ballots Used in Various States.

The Suffrage Laws in Our State.

Resolved, that every voter should be able to read and write the English language.

A Presidential Nominating Convention. (If an actual nomination is to take place the current year or the next year, the class would find it interesting and profitable to turn itself into a convention and go through the regular processes of such conventions.)

Susan B. Anthony and Her Accomplishments.

How Candidates Are Nominated in Our State.

A Summary of Mr. Bryce's Chapter, "Why Great Men Are Not Chosen President."

Famous Presidential Campaigns.

How Parties Are Managed in Our Community.

Resolved, that no voter should habitually vote a straight party ticket.

Resolved, that party names should not be used in local elections (or in state elections).

Resolved, that the short ballot idea should be adopted in our local and state elections.

Theories of Proportional Representation.

CHAPTER XIV

SUPPORTING THE GOVERNMENT

Patriotism calls for the faithful performance of all the duties of citizenship, in small matters as well as on tented fields.—Bryan.

210. Kinds of Support That the Government Needs. — Government is a machine which will not operate itself. It must have people to run it, support from those upon whom its authority rests, and money, like oil, to keep the machinery going. The mere framework of government, as it is set forth in the national Constitution, would have absolutely no value if people were not elected to fill the various offices which are provided.

Then these officials must have the backing of the people. No government with a majority of the people opposed can last very long. Besides, the financial side of government is extremely important. We all know that we must pay for all we get. It is the same way with the government. With its great amount of work to do, it must pay salaries to those who perform its tasks, must have offices, custom-houses, and many other buildings to work in, and must constantly buy supplies and make repairs. In this chapter we shall discuss the various means of support which our government has, and how they are exercised.

211. Why We Spend Money. — The purposes for which governments spend money may be divided into three groups.

(1) *Protective.* — The defense of the country from foreign enemies, which includes the maintenance of an army and

navy; the suppression of disorder within the country; and the safeguarding of the people's lives and property.

(2) *Industrial.* — The encouragement of industry; the promotion of good industrial conditions; the building of bridges, roads, and canals, and the improvement of rivers and harbors; and the regulation of the relations of industrial workers with one another.

(3) *Social.* — The promotion of the welfare of the people—the care of the poor, sick, and unfortunate, the



A LONG BRIDGE IN THE CITY.

prevention of disease, the education of the people, and many other forms of betterment or comfort.

The expenditure of money for all these purposes is distributed among national, state, and local governments. The cost of defending the nation from foreign enemies must be borne entirely by the national government. It also does some of the work of constructing roads and canals, and improving rivers and harbors, and it has entire charge of interstate commerce. The state and local governments spend a great deal of money on the prevention of disorder,

the care of the unfortunate, the construction and repair of highways, education, the promotion of health, and the like.

Make a list of ten things which have been done recently in your neighborhood by some government agency or officer. Which were paid for by the national, which by the state, and which by the local government?

212. **Kinds of Taxes.** — Most of the money to spend for these many purposes and others is obtained through taxes. A tax is really nothing more than taking a part of a person's property or wealth to use for some public purpose. But generally instead of taking the property itself the government is glad to receive a payment of money.

Taxes are divided into two large groups, direct and indirect. *Direct* taxes are those which place the burden of the tax directly upon those from whom it is collected. *Indirect* taxes are those whose burden is placed on other persons than those from whom they are collected. Taxes on buildings, land, incomes, and inheritances are usually thought of as direct. Import taxes are indirect. But the public at large often bears the burden of both kinds of taxes, for if they are not collected directly from them, they pay them in higher rents and higher prices for various commodities.

A *proportional* tax is one which is levied on a fixed percentage basis—that is, five per cent, for example, regardless of the amount of property to be taxed. A *progressive* or *graduated* tax is one in which the percentage rate increases as the value of the article taxed increases. Under the federal income tax law of 1924, incomes under \$4,000 were taxed two per cent, from \$4,000 to \$8,000 four per cent, and over \$8,000 six per cent, with a “surtax” on larger incomes gradually rising to forty per cent.

An *excise* is a tax levied on goods sold within a country. This is sometimes called *internal revenue*. A tax on tobacco manufactures is an example of this. Taxes on imported goods are called *customs*, *duties*, or *imposts*. There are

two kinds of duties: *specific* duties, which levy a certain amount per unit—so much a pound, yard, or bushel; and *ad valorem*, which collect a certain percentage of the value of the goods.

Do you think an income tax is fairer on the proportional or the progressive basis? Of these various kinds of taxes, which would be easiest to collect?

213. What Is a Good Tax? — It would be hard to convince some people that any tax can be a good one. Yet as we have seen, we can not get along without taxes, and



AN UNPAVED CITY STREET.

no good citizen will refuse to pay his fair share. There are several qualities which a good tax should have.

(1) It should be *based on* the people's *ability to pay*; the rich man can pay a larger tax than the poor man without feeling it as a burden.

(2) A tax should be *uniform* in all places and for all people; that is, no preference should be shown any section of the country or state or community or any group of people, but all people in the same class should be subject to the same rate of taxation.

(3) A tax should be *used for public purposes* and for

the good of the whole community, and not for the benefit of just a few people.

(4) It should be *convenient*; that is, the time and manner of payment should be set, and these should cause as little trouble as possible to the people.

(5) It should be *economical*, that is, not too difficult to collect, and means should be provided for forcible collection of it if people do not pay it.

(6) It should be *authorized by legislation*, because the law-makers represent the whole people.

At first thought we might say that a tax should be levied according to the benefits received from the government. But this is rather difficult, for many people who do not own property, and whose incomes are not large enough to be taxed, receive many and great benefits. Even people who are not United States citizens enjoy many of the services of the government, such as the privilege of sending their children to the public schools, and the protection afforded by fire and police departments.

But if a tax has these desirable qualities which we have listed, the people should be willing to pay it, and to support their government in this way. Some people employ all kinds of tricks and expedients to keep their tax bills as low as possible. These tricks do not always violate the letter of the law, but are meant to escape payments that the government intended should be made. Will a good citizen do this kind of thing?

214. Sources for Taxes Used by Nation, State, and Locality. — The different governments have their various sources of revenue. The national government obtains money from import duties, internal revenue, income and inheritance taxes, corporation taxes, fines, and the so-called "luxury" taxes which were levied during the war.

The state levies taxes on personal property, corporations, and inheritances, and also obtains money from licenses,

such as those for automobiles, which are a very large source of revenue, from fees, fines, and the like.

Local governments depend upon real estate taxes for the greater part of their revenue, and also upon occupation or poll taxes, fines, and the like. Sometimes both a locality and a state will lay a tax on some article or property, and in such cases, both taxes must be paid. Both city and county tax real estate in some states, and even the work



GRADING OF A STREET COMPLETED.

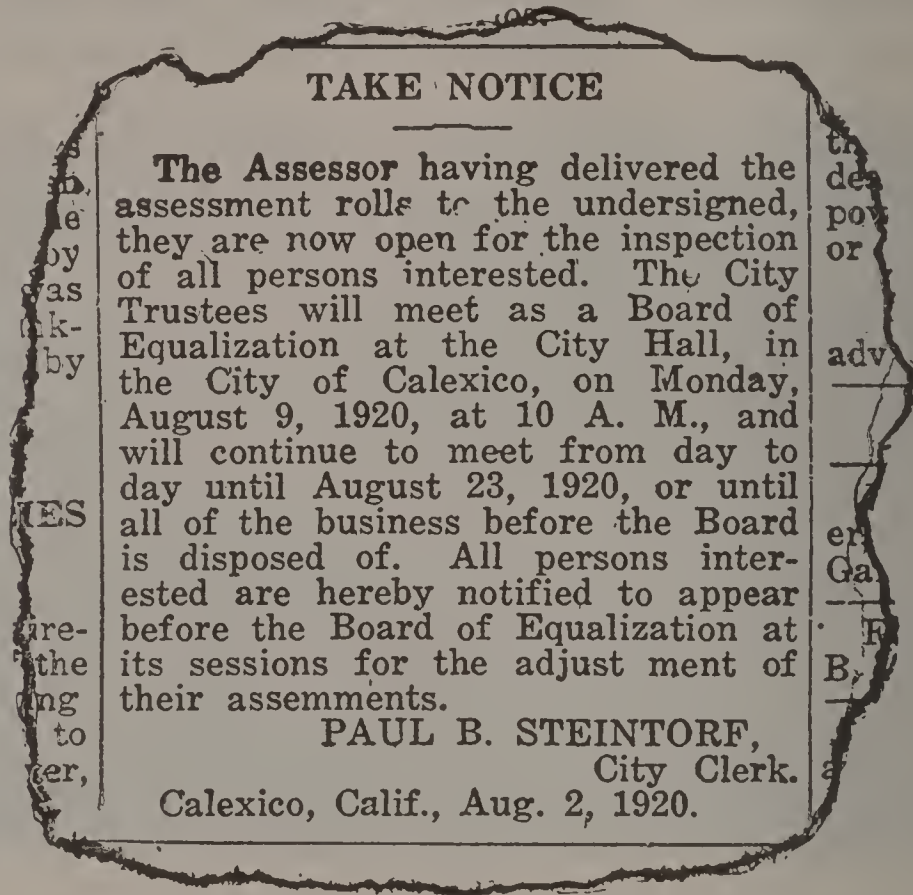
This is the same street as that shown on page 425. You can imagine how much better it is going to look when the surfacing is put on. This is where some of your tax money goes.

of assessment is sometimes done by two separate bodies of men. This overlapping of work is not necessary, and simply adds to the cost of government. Very often state taxes are collected through the counties as a matter of convenience.

What different kinds of taxes do the citizens of your state and locality pay? Do they meet all the desirable qualities mentioned in Section 213? From the reports of your city, town, county, and state treasurer or controller make a list of the principal items of ex-

pense and sources of revenue for each grade of government. Perhaps you can work these into the form of a chart or graph.

215. **How Taxes Are Levied.** — Let us see how our governments levy and collect these taxes. Import taxes, that is, customs, duties, or imports, are collected at the custom-houses before the goods are permitted to be taken



CORRECTING THE TAX LISTS.

This notice is a copy of one which appeared, mistakes and all, in a California paper. It gave warning that, the valuation of the property of the city having been completed, any persons who wished to have their property valuation reduced might appear before the proper officials.

away. Internal taxes are levied before the articles leave the factory or the store, and the money is paid to the office of the collector of internal revenue. Income taxes are paid directly to the collector's office.

Assessment of property is made yearly in some states, in some less often, by the assessors of the state or the local

government. After the assessors have completed their work, it is simply a question in arithmetic to add up the value of the taxable property in the whole community. Then the city council or other proper officers decide how much the community must or ought to spend for public services. They estimate how much is likely to be derived from the sources of income mentioned in section 216, and subtract it from the total amount desired. By dividing the remainder by the total value of the community's taxable property they find the rate of taxation. It is often expressed as a certain number of mills on a dollar.

Taxes on real estate and personal property are paid to the state or county or local treasurer after the property has been assessed. Often a discount is given if taxes are paid before a certain time, and a penalty is added after a certain date. If people refuse to pay their taxes, their property can be sold, and the taxes and the cost of sale deducted, the rest being given to the owner. License fees are paid directly to the treasurer whose duty it is to receive them.

Find out exactly the process of levying and paying any taxes which members of your family have to pay.

The power of laying taxes is used for other purposes than that of obtaining revenue. We have seen that by placing a tariff on certain imports to this country, the government makes it possible for a home producer to sell his goods at a higher price, because the tariff makes the foreign goods cost more. Sometimes perhaps the industry could not be carried on at all here unless it were helped in this way. This is called a *protective* tariff. People are not agreed as to the wisdom of such a tariff, but we have had one in some form during the greater part of our national history.

We may mention two facts about a protective tariff which many people do not realize. (1) The tariff is really paid by our own people who buy the foreign goods, for the importer adds the amount of the tariff to the price he would

otherwise charge. It does not hurt the foreign producer except by lessening the sale of his goods in this country. (2) There is a limit to the amount of money which can be raised by a protective tariff. If the tariff is very high, no goods will be imported, and of course there will then be no revenue at all. It is largely guess-work to attempt to tell in advance at what point the duty should be fixed to bring in the greatest revenue.



THE CUSTOM HOUSE AT PHILADELPHIA.

Again, Congress may regulate, restrict, or even abolish an industry by placing a high tax on it. Some states used to require a high license fee from liquor-dealers, for example, so that its sale could be limited. In order to put out of circulation the paper money issued by state banks, Congress imposed a tax so high as to take all the profit out of their issue. State and local governments sometimes do the same sort of thing, in order to do away with conditions which seem objectionable.

216. **Other Sources of Income.** — Although our governments depend upon taxes as their main source of revenue, there are other means of government income. One of these is the *sale* of public land or property. In the past our government has obtained a great deal of money by the sale of public lands. This can no longer be counted as a large source of revenue, because the government owns comparatively little land now which can be easily cultivated. *Public industries*, like the post office, while not carried on for profit, sometimes do bring a little money to the government. Occasionally some generous citizen makes a *gift* to the government, but this does not occur often, and can not be depended upon as a source of income. Fines imposed upon law-breakers, license fees and fees for certain services, also bring some money into the treasury.

Every government, too, may exercise the right of *eminent domain*. This means that it may take any property that it wishes to use for constructing highways, putting up public buildings, or other public objects. If the officials can not agree with the former owner as to the value of the property that is taken, the dispute is turned over to a board of viewers, who decide what should be paid. Exercising the right of eminent domain does not therefore bring in revenue to the government, but it sometimes enables the government to obtain property which the owner refuses to sell, or for which he wants an unreasonably high price.

Sometimes, also, when a public improvement is made, like paving a new street, laying a sewer, or some other work of more benefit to a particular neighborhood than to the whole community, a *special assessment* is laid upon the owners of the property which is particularly benefited by the improvement. The government does not always get the money in this way to pay the entire cost, but sometimes pays a large part of the cost out of the general treasury.

Why are these last two means of securing property or money justifiable?

217. **Borrowing Money.** — Governments may also obtain money by *loans*. These should not be resorted to at all times and under any circumstances, but when some great project is being carried out it may be right and desirable to borrow money for the purpose. Every government, unless it is bankrupt, can borrow money, and not only the national but most state and local governments have public debts. Reasonable causes for borrowing money are for war, or for some improvement like the Panama Canal or a great highway which is permanent. Money should seldom, if ever, be borrowed to meet the regular expenses of carrying on a government.

Do you think it is right for a city to borrow money for repairing streets?

Governments borrow money from their own people more often than from any other source, though sometimes one government lends to another as we did to our allies in the Great War. They do this most often through the sale of bonds. During the Great War, the United States government borrowed over twenty billions of dollars from the people in the Liberty Loans. Money for the paying of this great debt and the interest on it will have to be obtained by taxation, so that the people are really taking money out of one pocket and putting it into another.

Some people say that a government should not borrow money from its own people because it takes so much money out of circulation. But in the case of the Liberty Loans, the money obtained was immediately used to buy war supplies in this country, or for the pay of the soldiers, or some similar purpose, so that it went right back into use again.

Borrowing money for various purposes is popular with a great many people because they find it easy to shift the burden of paying upon future generations. This is, of course, a rather selfish viewpoint, but if the thing for which money is borrowed is permanent, and will benefit people

for a long time to come, then there may be some excuse for it. Very often the payment of interest on a large debt amounts to more than the original sum, and is dragged out for years, becoming a burden to people who are not in the least responsible for the obligation, and get little if any benefit from it.

Most governments owe money to their own people or to others. They do not make a great effort to rid themselves entirely of debt, because it is thought by many people that it is a good thing for a country to be in debt. Many economists say that when governments have debts, they are likely to be economical, whereas they would otherwise spend money extravagantly.

218. **Public Land and Property.** — Our government owns a great deal of property in the country. There are the great national parks, which are kept in their natural beauty for the benefit of the people. A little of the cost of maintaining these is met by the money obtained from people who rent remote parts of them for cattle-grazing, but most of it is paid by appropriations made from the public treasury. City parks are usually maintained entirely by public taxation. While such things as these are public property, they do not bring in much revenue. In fact, it is best if we do not think much about the mere money side of this particular matter.

The forest reserves are maintained by the government, and are expected to repay the government at some time for its expense in caring for them. Some of this land is also rented for grazing purposes, and perhaps in days to come our nation may get a good deal of rent for the use of water power or the mining of coal, and the use of other natural resources that may be found in these reserves. It is not necessary to treat them in just the same way as the parks. We have already spoken of the sale of public land as a source of revenue.

There is also the reclamation of land. The government

has spent a great deal of money constructing great dams and ditches for irrigating desert regions, and draining swamp lands. The people who are benefited by this work pay for it. For instance, people living in an irrigated district pay rent for the water, and this helps meet the expense of irrigation.

Public buildings are usually constructed and kept in repair



LILAC SUNDAY, ROCHESTER, N. Y.

No wonder people come out to look at these beautiful flowers in one of Rochester's parks.

with money obtained by public taxation. Sometimes a public building is constructed as a gift, however, and sometimes money is borrowed for the purpose. The latter is eventually paid by the people.

219. Budgets. — In the chapter on Wealth, we discussed the family budget. This idea can be, and is, to some extent, carried out in governments as well. Many European countries have adopted this very sensible way of handling public expenses, but our government has only re-

cently adopted the system. We have always spent money for various purposes, and trusted to luck or good fortune to make the revenue and the expenditures come out even. They have seldom done so, however. This is certainly a very businesslike way of handling the expenses of so great a nation as ours.

Few of the states have budget systems. Some cities and other localities do have them. In some states, the county commissioners have been in the habit of figuring up the needs of the county in connection with the tax rate they levy. Many city councils make up a budget every year. These are sometimes very inaccurate, but at least they show definitely the purposes for which money will have to be spent, and that is better than no system at all.

We now have in our national Department of the Treasury a Bureau of the Budget, headed by a Director, with an Assistant Director. This bureau is to combine all estimates for expenditures which are made by any officer of the government and submit them to the President, with a statement of the probable receipts of the government for the next year and recommendations for changes in the revenue laws of the country. The President in turn is to lay this budget before Congress. There is also to be an office called the General Accounting Office, which is to be headed by a Comptroller-General and which is to be independent of any other government department. This office is to be responsible for auditing the accounts of all government officials and for seeing that no money is paid out except in accordance with the laws of Congress. Under this plan there ought to be a tremendous improvement in the handling of our country's money. Some system like this ought to exist in every state and local government.

As long as we have the careless bookkeeping and inefficient management of public business which have been so common in the past we can not hope to avoid countless evils. We can not expect anything else than extravagance

and waste. Officers who do not have to give a strict account of their finances will be strongly tempted to be reckless in their expenses and even to indulge in the dishonest practice of graft. Money will be spent under the authority of laws when there is no certainty that the funds in the treasury will last throughout the year. Friends of politicians will expect easy jobs and good salaries, and public property will be used for private pleasure because there is no way to check up on such abuse. It is certainly time that this kind of thing came to an end.

Does your city or locality have a budget system? Find out, if you can, whether the expenses and the revenue usually meet. Could your budget system be improved? Study the reports of your city, town, or county government, and find out from what sources the money comes into the treasury and the principal items for which it is spent.

220. Proposed Changes in Taxation. — There has been a great deal of fault found with our present system of taxation. One of the many remedies proposed is the *single tax* idea, which is that nothing except the value of land should be taxed. One of its greatest advocates was Henry George. He wrote a book called "Progress and Poverty," in which he set forth the proposition and said that it would be the cure for almost all the social and economic evils that exist.

The "Single Taxers" declare that the use of land, which is the gift of nature, should be taxed, and not the buildings erected upon it. They assert that by taxing buildings more than land, industrious men are being punished for their enterprise. This statement is rather strong, but it is certain that land-holders have not paid all they should pay. Single taxers also say that their system would abolish slums, and better the housing conditions, because if vacant land were taxed, there would be no inducement to speculators to hold it, and people would not be forced into already crowded sections of cities.

On the other hand, if only land were taxed, people would probably erect high tenements and apartment houses, and these would encourage rather than discourage overcrowding. Such a tax would have to be coupled with strict building regulations. Then, too, is it fair to tax a piece of vacant land, which is no special burden to the government, and let buildings, which must have police and fire protection, go free? Besides, is it sound policy to depend upon one source of revenue for all the money that



A CHANCE FOR A SINGLE-TAX ARGUMENT.

The single taxer says that the owner of this open corner lot, grown up to weeds, should pay as large a tax as the owners of the adjoining lots on which houses have been erected. Do you agree with him?

our governments need? How could this one source be suddenly equal to such demands as would be made by a great war, for example? The Single Taxers have doubtless called attention to some real evils by presenting their theory, but it is doubtful if it would do all that some of its friends say it would.

What do you think of the single-tax idea?

It might be very desirable if taxes could be reformed so that the sources of revenue for the national, state, and local

governments would not overlap, as they often do under the present system. Many states which have taxed incomes and inheritances declare that the national government should not use this source of revenue also. They say that this is double taxation. All governments try, however, to tax those who are able to pay. In course of time the burden of any tax will be distributed over the whole community. The big problem is to collect the necessary



SOLDIERS ON DUTY.

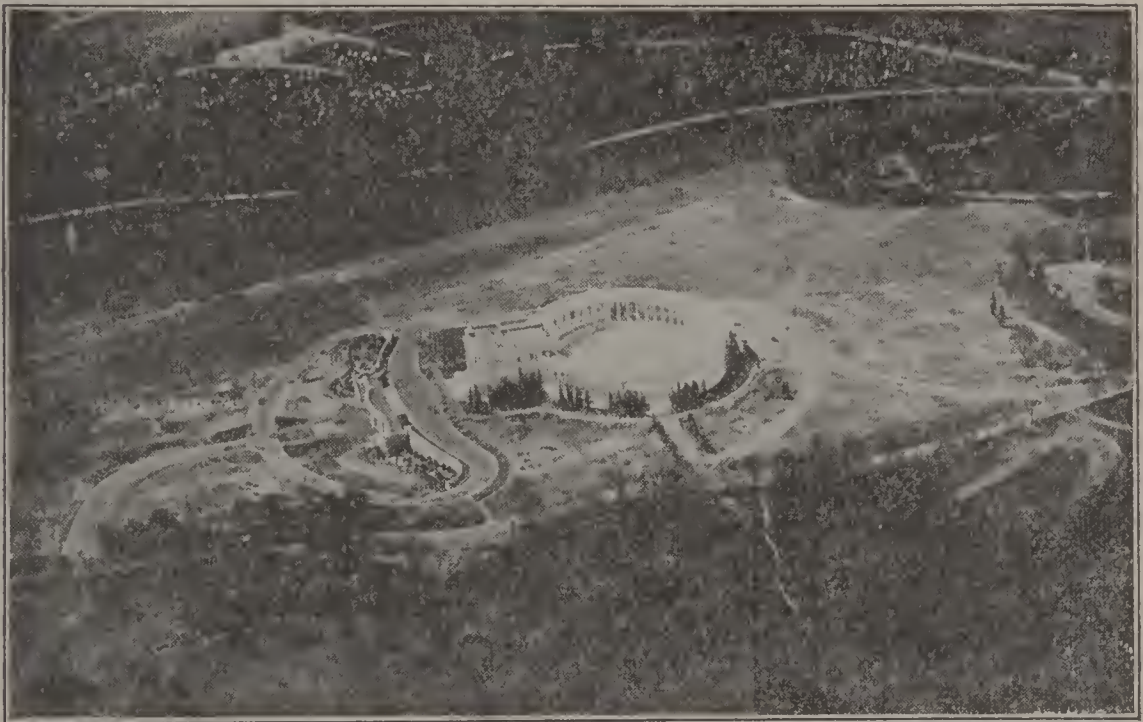
These are Marines in Hayti. They were sent to keep order in that turbulent Negro republic. They did so but the native inhabitants were not particularly pleased.

taxes in such a way that they will not seem an unreasonable burden at the time they are paid.

221. Supporting the Government in War. — In the last few years, our people all had an opportunity to find out from experience how we may support our government in war, besides by paying taxes. Many were and are subject to actual military service, which, under the present laws, reaches all men between the ages of 18 and 45. The draft laws called many of these into service, besides the

large number who volunteered. There were, too, the Liberty Loans, which furnished the government with money to carry on the war. The Thrift Stamps, which were within reach of everybody, also were helpful in this respect.

The Red Cross, supported by the gifts and labor of young and old, and helped in this country by women and girls who sewed, knitted, and rolled bandages, did a wonderful



Courtesy Air Service

THE ARLINGTON AMPHITHEATRE.

This was erected as a memorial to the soldiers who gave their lives to their country. The gravestones of many of them appear in the picture.

work. Organizations which tried to make the camp life of the soldier happier and better also played an important part. All of us paid the war tax on the "movies," on candy, ice cream, perfume, and the like, and perhaps some of us did not spend as much as usual for these unnecessary things, so that we could give the money for a more helpful cause.

And then we gave our loyalty. The soldiers who went abroad knew we were backing them up, and this counts

just as much in war as it does in a football game. Surely, no more ways could be found to support our government in war than were shown in the Great War by a large part of the American people.

222. **Traitors.** — But loyalty, we are sorry to say, does not seem to form a big portion of the make-up of some people. Once in a while a person is so low as to turn against the government which he ought to support. Such a person we call a traitor. “Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid or comfort.” Thus our Constitution defines treason. It says also that no person shall be convicted of treason unless he admits it in court, or two persons have witnessed the crime.

These strict provisions were made for fear the government would try to keep people from expressing their opinions about the government, or to punish them on mere suspicion of discontent with it. Conviction of treason is, therefore, very difficult in this country. Even the famous Aaron Burr could not be convicted on account of the lack of witnesses. People have proposed that the killing of a President should be considered treason. This would require a constitutional amendment, and it is improbable that it will be made. Congress has the power to make a law declaring what the punishment for treason shall be.

223. **Supporting the Government in Peace.** — In time of peace, there are many services we can do for our government. Some of these we have already mentioned. There is jury service. Surely there is no better way of serving our country than by helping to punish those who break the laws, and to protect innocent people. When called for this purpose, people should serve willingly. People in some occupations, however, are excused from serving, because it is thought that others might be seriously inconvenienced if these people were taken away from their regular duties for two or three weeks.

Another duty is voting. By our vote, we show what we want our government to do, and what principles we stand for, and we help decide how we shall be governed. But in order to vote intelligently, there is another service we must perform. We must study the public problems which face our government, and form an opinion on them. Such problems are always before our country, and if the people



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BUYING LIBERTY BONDS.

Vice President Marshall is selling bonds to Senators Lodge, Thomas, and Chamberlain. These men not only voted for war but helped to furnish the funds.

do not understand and have opinions on them, how can we expect the officers whom the people elect to know what the people want? Let us try to rid ourselves of the idea that government is a great network stretched over us, which can control our actions as it pleases. We are the government, if we choose to make ourselves such, for we, the

people, have been given the power to control our government.

224. How We May Show Our Loyalty. — We have spoken of supporting our government through loyalty. How can we do this? When people take office, they take the oath of office, that is, they pledge themselves to support the Constitution and the laws, and to do their best as public officers. Most officers try to carry out this oath during their public service. No matter whether or not we are public officials, can not all of us pledge ourselves to do our duty as citizens of the United States, and to support our government?

Another way to show our loyalty is by obeying the laws. And after all, this is not such a hard thing to do. The laws of our government aim to regulate, not to restrict, the actions of the people. Surely none of us have found that the laws to which we are subject have inconvenienced us in any great degree. Most of them are only definite, written statements of what our own consciences should tell us is right or wrong, just or unjust. If the matter involved is not a question of conscience, it at least calls for the opinion of the majority as to what is wise to do or not to do. If we do what we know is right, we have little to fear of the law.

225. The Good Citizen at Home. — Many times in our study we have stopped to consider what we, as individuals, can do. Let us now summarize the things we can do at home to help the government in its work.

Every home is a little community in itself. In our homes we have our common interests and our common laws. We learn obedience in the home, and just as we respect home rules, so we will respect the laws of our country. No community is entirely isolated, and our homes "rub elbows" with other homes, and can not help being influenced by the contact. We can make this influence just what we wish it to be.

In promoting the Elements of Welfare, there is much for us all to do. We should make our homes sanitary and healthful, and keep them clean. We should allow ourselves enough recreation so that we can do our work well. In the matter of wealth, we all know how important it is for boys and girls, men and women, to use care, to save and to plan in order to get the greatest use of their money.

We all want our communities also to be attractive. The place to begin is in the home. If people have homes that are in good taste, and arranged attractively, they will not be satisfied with dirty, carelessly kept streets and buildings. The influence of uplifting surroundings on every phase of our life is great.

Suppose all the families on a street agree to clean up their property, and keep the sidewalks swept and their lawns in order. The result would be a street which would be a credit to any neighborhood. But if one person did not live up to his agreement, the whole effect would be spoiled.

The matter of Right Living depends almost entirely upon what the individual thinks and does, and the home is the place where the fundamental principles of right and wrong are learned. So let us be careful about our life in the home, and carry out here the principles of good citizenship.

226. **The Good Citizen at School.** — We all spend a considerable part of our early life in school. School is to prepare us to meet the tests of mature life, but as we have said, it is really life itself, and has a great many problems of its own. In school we learn how to be good citizens. A democratic government must have intelligent people, and we get this necessary education in school.

But how can we support our government in school? First, we can put into practice what we learn about this life with other people; we can observe the laws of health, and promote the welfare of our communities. Then we can

study public problems, and form our own opinions on them, and take a general interest in all matters that affect our government and our life.

Did it ever occur to you that your town or city or state is investing a good many dollars a year in every one of the students in its public schools? Now what is your community getting out of its investment as far as you are



Courtesy Junior Red Cross

A MANUAL TRAINING CLASS AT WORK.

These boys are learning through their school work how to use both their heads and their hands. In this particular case they were making furniture for war refugees.

concerned? Is it a waste of money for them to see that you are provided with so many opportunities to improve yourself, when all you are asked to do is to make the best use of these opportunities? Perhaps some of us would not be quite so careless, or even worse than that, if the idea we have just mentioned came home to us a little more clearly.

Find out what it costs on the average for each pupil in the public schools of your community. If this sum were the interest on an investment at six per cent, what would be the principal? Are you worth that much to your town or city and state?

227. **The Good Citizen in Later Life.** — After we have left school, and have taken up our life work, what makes us good citizens? What does a good citizen do? We have tried to point this out over and over again. He is primarily law-abiding, careful, and intelligent. He helps his government by doing his part in promoting and protecting the health and happiness of the people. He does all he can to turn public opinion in the right way. He votes for good men, men who he believes will conduct the government rightly. He respects and obeys the laws, and pays his share of the taxes instead of trying to sneak out of his obligations.

In all, he is what we all think a real, true American should be. And there is nothing of which we should be more proud than of being a real American! Let us see to it that each of us makes himself the best possible citizen, and that together we make our neighborhood, our state, and our nation the best that any in the world can be.

Make a list of 10 kinds of people, old or young, who are undesirable citizens.

Why would you consider the following as desirable citizens: George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Jefferson, Abraham Lincoln, Grover Cleveland, Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, Benjamin Franklin, Robert Fulton, Clara Barton, Dorothea Dix, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Booker T. Washington, Thomas A. Edison, William McKinley, William J. Bryan, Ulysses S. Grant? Add the names of others who have deserved recognition in your state or community.

QUESTIONS

What kinds of support must any government have?

For what three general purposes must governments spend money? Give examples of expenditures for each purpose. Which of these must be met by the national government, which by the state, and which by the local government?

What is a tax? What qualities appear in a good tax? Distinguish between a *direct* and an *indirect* tax. Define *proportional* tax; *graduated* tax; *excise*; *customs*; *specific* duties; *ad valorem*. Can a tax be based on benefits received from the government? From what sources does the national government get taxes? a state government? a local government? By what process are national taxes collected? state? local? For what other purposes besides getting money are taxes used? What is the effect of a protective tariff on the producer and on the amount of revenue? What is its purpose?

What other sources of revenue and taxes are available for our government? Define *eminent domain*. By what means do governments usually borrow money? When is borrowing justifiable? Of what use to the government are public lands? How are public buildings maintained? Why is a budget system desirable in administering finances? To what extent is it in vogue in this country? Explain the features of the national budget plan.

What is meant by the *single tax*? Summarize the chief arguments for and against it. What reforms in tax collection might be desirable?

By what means did Americans support their government during the Great War? How does the constitution define *treason*? Is it easy to convict a person of this crime?

By what means may citizens serve their government in times of peace? What is the value of taking an oath? Does the home life of the citizen affect the government? Is the life of a person at school of importance to the government? Are the duties or the rights of citizens more worthy of consideration?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

Making the Budget. (If your local government has public hearings on the budget, representatives from the class may visit them. The class or a committee of it might also hold a budget session itself.)

Where Our Local Government Gets Its Revenue.

What Our Local Government Does With Its Revenue. (For these last two and the following topics a chart or graph might be made. Perhaps this could be so drawn to show the revenues for several years.)

How Our State Gets Revenue.

What Our State Does With Its Money.

How Our National Government Gets Its Money.

What Our National Government Does With Its Money.

How Our School Board Gets Money.

How Our School Board Uses Its Money.

My Duty As a Tax Payer.

The Federal Income Tax.

Resolved, that a protective tariff has served its usefulness in the United States.

Things Which Ought Not to Be Taxed.

The Liberty Loans.

The Assessment of Property in Our Community and State.

Public Lands and Buildings in Our Community.

Resolved, that at some time between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five every citizen should contribute at least six months to some form of public service.

Famous Trials for Treason.

Resolved, that no citizen should be exempted from jury service.

Resolved, that citizens should be punished if they fail to vote at elections.

My Community's Investment in Me.

How Our Community Could Become an Ideal Community.



AN OBJECT-LESSON IN PATRIOTISM.
An Oklahoma Boy Scout Saluting the Flag.

Oklahoma Supplement
to
Hughes'
Elementary Community Civics

By
LUTHER HARRISON

TO THE TEACHER

The list of names of Oklahoma's state officials naturally is constantly changing and will show many changes during the passing years; therefore, it is considered impracticable to insert the names of Oklahoma officials in this Supplement. Any teacher desiring such a list of names may write to the Secretary of State, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, and it will be furnished cheerfully.

The State Historical Society has collected an abundance of material concerning the history of Oklahoma and has compiled much valuable material illustrating incidents of the past. This society will be glad to furnish to the inquiring teacher much information not otherwise obtainable.

Teachers can obtain copies of the Constitution of Oklahoma from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction or from the Secretary of State, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

For information concerning the state game laws, hunting licenses, etc., letters should be addressed to the State Game Warden, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

The teacher desiring information concerning state schools or private schools should address the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

CHAPTER XV

HISTORY AND EARLY GOVERNMENT OF OKLAHOMA

228. **Early History.**—Oklahoma is one of the youngest of the states. Although the counties of the Oklahoma territory had been under a constitutional form of government since 1890, there had been, especially in the eastern



THE RUSH OF THE SETTLERS, APRIL 22, 1889.

part of the state, little or no organized government before the territory became a state on November 16, 1907.

The first government ever known in what is now Oklahoma was the tribal government of the Indians. Long before the white man reached the state, barbarous tribes lived in scattered villages and administered a crude form of government in an imperfect way. Among such

tribes were the Osage, Quapaw, Caddo, Wichita, Waco, Tonkawa, Kiowa, Comanche, Apache of the Plains, and others. Each of these tribes had its chief, usually but not always elected, and a council of elders or headmen. The chief was final authority in all tribal matters. In case of lawlessness a small fine, usually a pony, satisfied the law and released the offender. In case of murder, the murderer was executed, usually by some relative or friend of the victim.

Although the territory now comprising Oklahoma was from time to time claimed by Spain, France, England, or Mexico, none of these nations made any systematic effort to explore its wilds or to establish any system of laws.¹

During the eleven years that Oklahoma remained a part of Arkansas no counties were organized and no government introduced. While the laws of Arkansas were in force theoretically they were not in force practically. Then in 1830 Indian Territory was created by an Act of Congress. A vast area that included not only Oklahoma but Kansas and Nebraska as well was set apart by the President as a home for such Indian tribes as might choose to leave their eastern lands and locate in the West.

By 1846 Oklahoma had been entered by the Five Civilized Tribes, each of which brought with it an improved form of tribal government. The Cherokee had their capital at Tahlequah, the Creek at Okmulgee, the Choctaw at Tushkahoma, the Chickasaw at Tishomingo, and the Seminole at Wewoka. The governments maintained by these powerful tribes was far superior to that maintained by the earlier savages, but far less efficient than the government soon to be introduced by the white man. Each tribe had its governor and its council, each had its

¹In 1819, Louisiana, which had been purchased for the United States by Thomas Jefferson and which included Oklahoma, was divided; and the territory of Arkansas was organized. Oklahoma was included in the original area of Arkansas.

laws that were faithfully enforced, and each had its written constitution. In Indian elections the secret ballot was unknown. Voters simply lined up and were counted by tellers, the affirmative standing in line on one side of the street, the negative in line on the other side.

The old tribal governments practically passed out of existence when Oklahoma became a state. While some authority to deal with purely tribal affairs remained, the Indians as individuals became citizens of the state, participating in its elections, helping to select its officials, paying taxes for its support, and subject to its laws.

For a generation preceding state government there was little government known among the white people of Indian Territory. The federal district courts at Ft. Smith, Arkansas, and Paris, Texas, had jurisdiction over crime in the Five Civilized Nations and offenders were taken to one of those cities for trial. The only laws in force were acts of the national Congress at Washington.

Here and there small towns sprang up, organized by the authority of federal statutes, and operated according to federal requirements. Taxation was practically unknown.

What early Indian tribes inhabited the land which is now Oklahoma? When was the Indian Territory created? What five tribes came in later? How were they governed? What other government was there?

229. **Oklahoma Territory.**—Territorial government began in Oklahoma Territory in May, 1890, when the entire territory consisted of only seven counties. George W. Steele of Indiana became first governor. Under the prevailing law the President appointed the governor and territorial secretary. The governor appointed all other executive officers and the officers of newly organized counties as well. The legislature consisted of a council composed of thirteen members and a house of representatives with twenty-six members. The first meeting of the legislature was delayed ten days until enough members to

transact business were present. The statutes of Nebraska became the laws of the territory until the legislature should enact a new code of laws. Guthrie was the capital and remained the official seat of government for three years after the territory became a state.

The region subject to the territorial government of Oklahoma was rapidly enlarged as new reservations were opened to settlement and new counties organized.

Give some cases of rapid growth in population. How long was Oklahoma a territory?

230. Statehood.—On November 16, 1907, Oklahoma



OKLAHOMA CITY, APRIL 26, 1889.

entered the union as a state under a written constitution which had been approved by the voters by a majority of 107,000. The splendid government already in force in the western portion of the territory, strengthened and improved by provisions of the new constitution, was made effective also in the unorganized eastern portion of the territory. This was the real beginning of constitutional government in Oklahoma in so far as local government was concerned and marked the beginning of a period of development that has few equals in American history. During this period additional counties were organized,

county government was instituted throughout the eastern portion of the state, schools for hundreds of thousands of children were opened, local courts were established, and local laws began to be administered.

The latest available figures show that Oklahoma has an area of 69,414 square miles, a population in 1920 of 2,028,283. She had in 1920 191,987 farms, 1,195 post offices, 107,916 miles of highways, 6,536 miles of railroads, 307,000 automobiles, 226,000 telephones, and now ranks as



THE FIRST POST OFFICE AT OKLAHOMA CITY.

one of the three leading oil-producing states of the union.

In 1923 Oklahoma ranked first in the production of broom corn, third in the production of grain sorghums, fourth in the production of cotton, and eighth in the production of wheat. Her manufactured products in 1919 were valued at \$425,000,000—including flour and grist mill products, lumber, packing plant products, and cotton seed products. In 1920 the native-born white population

of Oklahoma was 89.8 per cent of the total, the Indian population was 2.8 per cent, while the negro population was 7.4 per cent.

During the Great War Oklahoma furnished nearly 90,000 men for military service at the lowest per capita cost for their mobilization of all the states in the Union. As many Oklahomians were killed in action as the total number from any two states that border on Oklahoma. For the prosecution of the war she furnished more than her proportionate share of both men and money.

What is the population of Oklahoma? The area? In what product does she excel all other states? What remarkable war record did she make?

231. **The Future.**—While the past of Oklahoma has been worthy and her history memorable, her future promises to be still more creditable. But her future will depend altogether on what the boys and girls now in her schools make of it. If they choose to be law-loving, law-abiding, and industrious citizens, if they learn all that the schools can teach them and depend on themselves rather than upon the government for success; if they keep alive in their hearts the same principles that inspired the sturdy souls that founded and have maintained our government—then the future of Oklahoma will be secure.

—LUTHER HARRISON.

Upon what does the future of Oklahoma depend?

QUESTIONS

What countries have claimed the territory which is now the state of Oklahoma? Point out differences in the forms of government of the early Indians and the Five Civilized Tribes. Did the Indian Territory include all of Oklahoma?

In what territory was Oklahoma included before the Indian Territory was created? What federal district courts had jurisdiction in Oklahoma before it became a territory?

When did Oklahoma become a territory? Who was the first governor? When did it become a state? In what products does it excel?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

A Case of Remarkable Growth (consult some of the early settlers).

The Present Position of the Indian.

Oklahoma's Chief Agricultural Products.

The Discovery of Oil.

What Oklahoma Manufactures.

The Government of the Early Indians.

Government under the Five Civilized Tribes.

The Growth in Population.

Oklahoma's War Record.

The Future of the State.

CHAPTER XVI

ORGANIZATION OF STATE GOVERNMENT

232. **Distribution of Powers.**—In the distribution of governmental powers the government of Oklahoma is modeled after that of the United States. Our state government is divided into three separate, distinct, and independent branches, viz.:

1. The Executive Department, which is charged with enforcing the law.
2. The Legislative Department, which makes the laws.
3. The Judicial Department, which interprets and administers the law.

No one of these departments has any control over the others, though each within limits provided by the constitution can restrain another department when it attempts to violate the law.

By exercising the veto power the executive can restrain the legislative department.

The legislative department can restrain the illegal acts of both executive and judiciary by exercising the power of impeachment.

The judiciary can nullify any legislative act that is unconstitutional and can prevent illegal action by the executive.

But the power each department possesses over the others is a restraining power; none of them can order another department to perform any service of a positive nature. Our entire governmental system is founded on the theory that it is not well for any department of government to enjoy unrestrained power. Each must be

free from all interference in the pursuit of its duties, but subject to restraint when over-stepping its legal boundaries.

What are the three divisions of the state government? What is the work of each division? Who is governor at the present time? This distribution of powers is sometimes called a system of "checks and balances." Can you explain why?

233. The Executive Department.—The governor of the state is at the head of the executive department and is sometimes called the "chief executive." Other executive officers are the lieutenant-governor, state treasurer, state auditor, commissioner of insurance, superintendent of public instruction, mine inspector, attorney general, clerk of the supreme court, commissioner of charities and corrections, commissioner of labor, state examiner and inspector, secretary of state, and such other officers as may be provided by law. Each of these is elected for a term of four years, their official tenure beginning the second Tuesday in the January following their election. Neither the governor, secretary of state, state auditor, nor state treasurer is eligible to re-election.

Who are the chief executive officers? For how long are they elected? Which ones may not be re-elected?

234. The Governor.—The *governor* must be a male citizen of the United States, at least thirty years old, and must have been a qualified elector of Oklahoma at least three years.

The governor is commander-in-chief of the state militia, except when it is in federal service, and may call out the militia to execute the laws, protect the public health, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions. He may call the legislature or the senate only into extraordinary session. He shall cause the laws of the state to be enforced and must conduct in person all business of the

state with the government of the United States or the other states.

Immediately upon the organization of the legislature the governor must submit a message to the two houses meeting together which sets forth the condition of the state's business and his recommendations for new laws. He may submit additional messages from time to time as he sees fit.

The governor also has the power to grant pardons,



THE STATE CAPITOL.

paroles, commutations, or reprieves to those who have been convicted of crimes. A pardon is the complete revocation of a sentence and frees the person convicted of all legal restraint. A parole is the suspension of a sentence for an indefinite time. A commutation is the reduction in severity of a sentence; for instance, the death penalty may be reduced to life imprisonment. A reprieve is a stay of execution for a definite time.

The governor has no power to grant a pardon or stay of execution of any character when any officer of the state

is impeached; he must submit to each legislative session a full statement of all pardons, paroles, and the like, granted during the two years preceding, giving the names and addresses of all parties thus favored, together with the names of the crimes for which they were convicted.

The governor has also the power of signing or vetoing all bills passed by the legislature. He shall commission all officers not otherwise commissioned by law, and he shall make appointments to fill certain vacancies. He may adjourn the legislature when it is unable to agree on a time for adjournment.

What are the governor's chief duties? When *may* he send a message to the legislature? When *must* he do so? What is the difference between a pardon, a parole, a commutation, and a reprieve?

235. **Other Administrative Officers.**—The *Lieutenant-Governor* must possess the same qualifications as the governor. It is his duty to preside over the senate, but he has no vote save only in case of a tie. If the governor fails to qualify, or if for any reason the office of governor becomes vacant, the lieutenant-governor shall succeed him and fill the vacancy.

It is the duty of the *Secretary of State* to keep a register of all the official acts of the governor, be guardian of the "great seal of the state," and perform such other duties as the law may prescribe.

The *State Examiner and Inspector* must have had three years' experience as an expert accountant. It is his duty to examine without notice twice each year the books, accounts, and cash on hand of the state and county treasurers. He shall also prescribe a uniform system of book-keeping for the use of all treasurers.

The *Insurance Commissioner* has general supervision of the enforcement of the insurance laws of the state.

The *State Treasurer* is the custodian of all state funds: he receives all state taxes collected and pays the bills

of the state on warrants issued by the state auditor. He deposits state funds in accredited banks, giving sufficient security to guarantee its safety, the interest on such deposits belonging to the state.

The *State Auditor* passes on all claims against the state and issues warrants on the state treasurer to pay such claims. He is also charged by law with the duty of collecting the gross production tax, the state income tax, and other special taxes.

The *Superintendent of Public Instruction* stands at the head of the state's educational system. He has general supervision of all schools of the state. He instructs school officers as to what the school laws are, receives reports from county and city schools, and collects educational statistics. The questions for teachers' examinations are prepared under his supervision. He also is charged with the duty of apportioning the state school funds to the different counties.

The *Mine Inspector* must have had eight years' practical experience as a miner. It is his duty to inspect the various mines of the state and see that the laws passed for the protection and well-being of the miners are enforced.

The *Attorney-General* is the chief lawyer for the state. He represents the "Commonwealth of Oklahoma" when it brings suit against a person or is sued by some one. He also lends aid to the county attorneys of the state in the interpretation of state laws.

The *Clerk of the Supreme Court* keeps a record of all proceedings before the court. He also has charge of all papers in pending cases.

It is the duty of the *Commissioner of Charities and Corrections* to inspect the jails, reformatories, and penitentiaries of the state, issue directions concerning the improvement and management of such institutions, and make a full and complete report of such work to the governor.

The *Commissioner of Labor* is head of the state department of labor, has general supervision of the enforcement of labor laws, and assists in the settlement of strikes and other troubles between workmen and their employers.

The *Corporation Commission* consists of three members whose term of office is six years. At each biennial election one commissioner is elected. The principal duty of the commission is to regulate the rates charged for service by the various public service corporations of the state. Much of the power granted the commission by the state constitution and state laws has been taken from the commission by federal statutes and court decisions.

What are the duties of the lieutenant-governor? of the secretary of state? of the state treasurer? Name five other executive officers. What are the duties of each? Who has charge of the state's educational system?

QUESTIONS

Which branch of the state government makes the laws? How are the laws enforced? Who interprets the laws? Which branch has the power of impeachment?

In what two ways can the acts of the legislature be made void? Can the lieutenant-governor veto a bill when the governor is out of the state? Which do you think is the most important power of the governor? Which three officers have most to do with state funds and accounts?

What are the duties of the state superintendent of public instruction? Who occupies this office at the present time? What are the duties of the commissioner of labor?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Duties of the Governor.

What the Lieutenant-Governor Does.

The School System of Oklahoma.

Checking the Accuracy of the State Treasurer's Accounts.

The State's Efforts to Help in Labor Disputes.

The Work of the Attorney-General.

CHAPTER XVII

THE MAKING OF STATE LAWS

236. **The Legislature.**—The law-making power in Oklahoma is vested in the state legislature, which consists of two separate and independent bodies: the state senate, consisting of forty-four members elected for a term of four years, and the house of representatives, consisting of about 100 members, elected for a term of two years.

Regular meetings of the legislature occur on the first Tuesday after the first Monday of January of each odd-numbered year. The sessions are held in the respective chambers of the senate and the house on the fourth floor of the state capitol building in Oklahoma City.

Regular sessions of the legislature were originally supposed to terminate at the end of sixty days, but no session has ever failed to last a good many days longer. For the first sixty days of the session the legislators each receive \$6.00 a day; when the sixty days have expired they receive only \$2.00 a day.

Special sessions of the legislature may be called by proclamation of the governor at any time he considers such session necessary. During a special legislative session the law-making body can consider only such matters as the governor has chosen to recommend in his message.

What two bodies make up the legislature? When does the legislature meet? What is the rate of pay for the first sixty days? Why is the pay reduced after sixty days?

237. **The Senate.**—The senate differs from the house in being the smaller body numerically, though it is often

mentioned as the higher or more important body, in enjoying a four-year tenure instead of two years, in possessing the constitutional power of confirming or rejecting many of the governor's appointees, and in the power of sitting as a court of impeachment.

Each two years at the regular November election twenty-two senators are elected. This arrangement gives the senate the nature of a perpetual organization, since only



SOME OF OKLAHOMA'S WOODLAND.

one-half its membership retire every two years. However, the senate perfects a new organization at the beginning of each regular session. The lieutenant-governor by virtue of his office presides over the sessions of the senate except when the senate is sitting as a court of impeachment, when the chief justice or some associate justice of the supreme court presides. The senate also elects at the time of its organization a president *pro tempore*, who presides when the lieutenant-governor for any reason is absent.

The constitution fixes the qualifications of senators. According to the terms of that instrument no one is eligible to serve as senator who has not attained the age of twenty-five years, who is not a legal citizen of the United States and of Oklahoma, and who is not a resident of the district he seeks to represent.

What are the qualifications of senators? How often are they elected and for how long? Who presides over the senate?

238. The House.—The house differs from the senate in having only a two-year term instead of a four-year term, in lacking the privilege of passing on appointments made by the governor, and in lacking the power of sitting as a court of impeachment. However, it has the exclusive right to originate all bills seeking to raise revenue, with the additional right to institute impeachment proceedings. It prefers charges against such state officers as it considers guilty of offences warranting impeachment, while the senate sitting as a trial court tries those charges.

The entire membership of the house is elected at each regular state election. Upon convening the house elects one of its own members presiding officer, who thereby becomes officially “the Speaker of the house.” It also elects another member “Speaker Pro Tempore.”

Each house works very largely through its standing committees, such committees being charged with the consideration of those bills over which it is supposed to have jurisdiction.

Who presides over the house? What is the difference between the duties of house and senate?

239. Making the Laws.—When proposed laws are first introduced in the legislature they are known as *bills*. Every bill when introduced must contain on its cover a written or typewritten statement of its subject matter, this statement being known as its “Title.”

When a bill is introduced its title is read in open session, this being the "first reading" of the bill. On the next legislative day it has its "second reading," and is then referred to the committee having jurisdiction over the subject covered by the bill.

A committee is supposed to hold the bill for ten days though it may be kept even longer if there is no objection or if the committee is authorized to do so by vote of the house; but it may also report the bill out in less than ten days. This ten-day rule is rarely followed in either house.

The committee may report the bill favorably or unfavorably; in the absence of an order to the contrary, it may keep the bill indefinitely and let it die in committee. If the committee report is favorable, the bill is returned in open session marked "Do Pass." Unfavorable action is noted by the mark, "Do Not Pass." If the committee cannot agree, it frequently brings in two reports, "Do Pass" and "Do Not Pass," such reports being known as majority and minority reports; whereupon the house must accept the report it prefers.

After a bill has been reported out of committee and received any revision or amendment that the members of the house may desire, it is placed finally on "third reading and final passage." Here it is read at length. The roll is then called, those favoring its passage voting "Aye," those opposing it voting "No." If it receives a majority of the entire membership of the body it is declared passed, is signed by the presiding officer in open session, and is then sent to the other house. Here it must go through exactly the same procedure that has attended its passage through the house where it originated.

When a bill has been passed by both houses it is then enrolled (written out in long hand), signed by the presiding officers of both houses, and sent by messenger to the governor for his approval or disapproval. If he approves the bill, he signs it and sends it to the office of the

secretary of state, where it is filed in the permanent records of the state.

If the governor disapproves the bill he is said to “veto” it, or forbid its enactment. He returns the bill to the house where it originated accompanied by a written statement of his reasons for vetoing it. If the legislature so desires it can pass the bill over the governor’s veto,



A WELL-BUILT ROAD.

providing it receives the vote of two-thirds of the entire membership of both houses.

If while the legislature is in session the governor fails to sign or veto a bill within five days of his receiving it, it shall become a law without his signature. If, however, the legislature has adjourned *sine die*, the governor must sign all bills within fifteen days of such adjournment, else all bills failing to obtain his signature will die.

Laws enacted by the legislature become effective ninety

days after final adjournment. However, the legislature by a two-thirds vote of both houses may declare any measure an "emergency" measure, whereupon it becomes effective immediately on receiving the approval of the governor.

Upon the expiration of each legislative session all the bills passed during the session are printed and bound in a book called the "Session Laws." Every ten years the laws are collected in a single work sometimes called the "Code" or the "Revised Statutes."

Several limitations on the power of the legislature have been imposed by the constitution, among which are the inhibition on all special or local legislation and the provision that no revenue-raising measures shall be considered during the last five days of the session.

What steps are necessary before a bill may become a law? In what two ways may a bill fail? If the governor fails to sign a bill while the legislature is in session, what becomes of it? What becomes of it if he does not sign it after the legislature has adjourned?

240. Elections.—A legal election is held in all the voting precincts of Oklahoma on the Tuesday following the first Monday of November of each even-numbered year. At that election any legal citizen (man or woman) who has lived in Oklahoma twelve months, in his county six months, and in his voting precinct thirty days, can vote provided he has registered according to law or is able to convince the election inspector that he is entitled to vote.

On the first Tuesday of August preceding the election every two years, primary or nominating elections are held to nominate party candidates for office. Every voter is required to vote in the primary of that party in which he is registered as a voter. The voter receiving the highest number of votes is declared the nominee for the office he is seeking.

What are the requirements for voting in Oklahoma? On what date are regular elections held? When do the primary elections occur?

QUESTIONS

How many members has the senate? About how many has the house? Which is the more permanent organization? For how many years are the members of each elected?

Do you think the pay of the legislators is sufficient? How many special sessions be called? When do the regular meetings occur?

Which branch initiates financial legislation? Which may institute impeachment proceedings? Which sits as a court in cases of impeachment? What are the qualifications of a senator? of a voter? In what ways may a bill fail to become a law?

Who presides over the senate? Over the house? Can you name the two presiding officers at the present time?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

- The Work of the Senate.
- Special Functions of the House.
- Various Steps in the Passage of a Bill.
- The Work of Committees.
- Session Laws.
- Revised Statutes.
- Regular Elections.
- Primary Elections.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE INTERPRETATION OF STATE LAWS

241. **The Judiciary.**—The Judicial Department is charged with interpretation of the law, administration of justice in the trial of actions, and protection of the rights of the people in the courts of the state. It exercises an effective restraint on the Legislative Department through its power to determine whether the laws that the legislature has enacted agree with the constitution.¹

How does the Judiciary protect the people's rights?

242. **The Supreme Court.**—The Supreme Court is the highest court in the state. It is composed of nine judges, each elected for a term of six years and each receiving an annual salary of \$6,000. At the beginning of each year the court elects one of its members to preside during the year, who thereupon becomes the *Chief Justice*. The other members are known as *Associate Justices*.

The duty of the *Chief Justice* is to preside over the court while it is in session and in cases of impeachment to preside over the senate. In the event the Chief Justice is disqualified to preside over an impeachment court, it is his duty to designate one of the Associate Justices to preside in his stead. If all of them are disqualified, the senate elects one of its own number to preside.

All decisions of the Supreme Court on questions that are tried before it must be handed down in writing and a majority of the judges must approve a decision before it

¹By making clear what the law is and preventing its abuse this department of the state government has a large influence in the preservation of the people's rights.

can become the decision of the court. Those who do not agree with the decision of the majority may hand down a dissenting opinion, giving their reasons for disagreement with the opinion of the majority.

How is the Chief Justice chosen? What are his duties?

243. **Other Courts and Judicial Bodies.**—The *Criminal Court of Appeals* is in many respects similar to the



A TYPICAL OKLAHOMA RESIDENCE.

Supreme Court. It has charge of criminal cases that have been tried in the lower courts but in which the decisions have been “appealed.” This court is composed of three judges, who receive the same annual salary as the supreme judges of the Supreme Court.

District Courts. For the purpose of maintaining courts of justice within easy reach of the people the state is divided into districts, composed of one or more counties

each, and each district has one or more district judges. The number of counties in a district and the number of judges in the district are in each instance determined very largely by the population and amount of litigation in the district. District judges must be 30 years of age and must have been practicing attorneys for at least five years at the time of their election. Each judge receives an annual salary of \$4,000.

District Courts have jurisdiction of all felonies committed in their district and of many misdemeanors; and such other cases from outside their district as may be transferred for trial on what is called "a change of venue." When a defendant is able to convince the court that he is unable to secure an impartial trial in his county, his case may be transferred for trial to another county or even to another district. This is called "change of venue."

It is the duty of the District Judge to preside at the selection of juries for the trial of cases, while the testimony of witnesses is being taken, and during the arguments of counsel. Upon the closing of testimony it is the duty of the judge to instruct the jury as to the meaning and application of the law in the case. If the jury finds itself unable to agree, it becomes the duty of the judge to discharge the jury and order another trial of the case. If the jury finds the defendant guilty of the charge against him, it is the duty of the court to pass sentence on the accused person.

The District Judge may impanel a Grand Jury to investigate general conditions of lawlessness in the district or some special offense. He must instruct the Grand Jury as to the law governing its activities, receive its final report, and discharge it when its labors are ended.

Several cities of the state have what is known as a *Superior Court*. This is a court created by special act of the legislature and usually has the same kind of authority as that exercised by the District Court of the

district in which it is located. A Superior Judge must have the same qualifications as a District Judge and receives the same annual salary.

County Courts. Every Oklahoma county has a *County Judge*. He must be at least 30 years of age and must have been a practicing attorney for at least three years. He is elected for a term of two years, and his salary depends upon the population of the county that elects him.

The County Court has original jurisdiction in civil



LOADING ALFALFA.

cases not involving more than one thousand dollars and in criminal cases less than felonies. It has appellate jurisdiction in cases appealed from justice courts and city courts. A jury in the County Court is composed of six men, five of whom may return a verdict.

Juvenile Court. The County Judge is also judge of the juvenile court and has jurisdiction over offenses committed by children too young to be tried in the regular criminal

courts. At his discretion he may commit juvenile delinquents, truants, and incorrigibles to the state reform school.

One of the most important duties of the County Judge is that of admitting wills to probate, and of distributing the property of deceased persons and minors. The great number of Indian minors in eastern Oklahoma makes the office of County Judge a most important one.

Justice Court. Each township elects two Justices of the Peace and cities in the first class elect one or more, according to their population. The jurisdiction of Justice Courts is limited to civil cases involving less than two hundred dollars and criminal cases where the punishment does not exceed a fine of one hundred dollars and imprisonment for thirty days. No civil suit involving twenty dollars or less can be appealed from the Justice Court decision. The only qualification required of a justice of the peace is that he be a legal voter.

City Court. Each city has a Police Court that has jurisdiction over violations of city ordinances. These police judges may exercise the authority of juvenile judges.

QUESTIONS

Name the different courts in what seems to you their order of importance. Why do you choose this order? Which judges have charge of probating wills? Which two kinds of courts may handle juvenile cases?

What civil suits can not be appealed? What is the salary of judges of the Supreme Court? of the District Courts? of the Criminal Court of Appeals? What is "change of venue"?

What is the difference between a regular trial jury and a grand jury?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Supreme Court of Oklahoma.

The Work of a County Judge.

Qualification of the Different Judges.

CHAPTER XIX

COUNTY AND TOWNSHIP GOVERNMENT

244. **The County.**—A county is a political subdivision of the state, created for the purpose of administering local government and bringing local government within convenient reach of the people. Its capital or seat of government is known as the *county seat*.



ONE OF OKLAHOMA'S FARMS.

There are seventy-seven counties in Oklahoma. Seventy-five of these were created by the state constitution adopted in 1907; two have been created by popular vote since the constitution was adopted. The area and popu-

lation of the various counties vary greatly, Osage being more than six times as large as Murray, while Oklahoma and Tulsa each has approximately twenty-five times the population of Cimarron.

245. How Counties Are Formed.—Under the state laws it is difficult to form a new county. Sixty per cent of the voters in the territory affected must vote in favor of the formation of the county. It must contain at least 400 square miles of taxable territory, must possess a taxable valuation of at least \$2,500,000, and must have at least 15,000 population. The boundary line of the proposed county must not be nearer than ten miles to the county seat of any adjoining county. These restrictions make it so difficult to form new counties that it is not likely that Oklahoma will ever have many more counties than are now organized.

246. The County Seat.—The county officers almost without exception live at the county seat, have their offices there, and are required by law to transact most of the county's business there. The county court house is at the county seat and houses most or all of the county officers. The county jail also is found at the county seat. As a rule the county seat is centrally located where it can be most easily reached by a majority of the people. To remove a county seat once located by popular vote requires the affirmative vote of two-thirds of the voters in a special election held for that purpose.

247. Tenure of Office.—Before 1924 all county officials were elected for a term of two years, but in that year the Legislature made the official tenure of all county officers except county commissioners four years. The commissioners are now elected for six years, one of the three being elected every two years.

248. County Officers.—Each county has a county judge, county attorney, court clerk, sheriff, county treasurer, county weigher, county superintendent of pub-

lic instruction, county assessor, and three county commissioners. Practically all of these appoint one or more deputies or clerks to assist them in their official duties.

County Judge. The county judge is a part of the judicial machinery of the state and his duties are discussed under the head of "Judicial Department."

County Commissioners. The county commissioners are the business managers and make up the "board of directors" of the county. They have charge of the county property and have general supervision of the county's business. It is their duty to check up all claims against the county for supplies purchased or services rendered, to allow or disallow such claims, to supervise the construction of roads and bridges, and to care for the poor and indigent citizens of the county. Whenever another county office becomes vacant, the commissioners elect someone to fill the vacancy. The governor of the state fills any vacancy that may occur on the board of county commissioners. The first duty usually performed by the board when it meets is to elect one of its number chairman of the board.

Sheriff. The sheriff is the chief law enforcement officer of the county. It is his duty to enforce the laws, make arrests, preserve the public peace, and enforce the orders of the court. It is also his duty to wait on the court when it is in session and summon jurors and witnesses. He has charge of the county jail and is responsible for the care of the prisoners. He also appoints several deputies; any one of whom may perform any duty devolving on the sheriff.

County Clerk. The county clerk may be termed the bookkeeper of the county. He keeps and publishes a record of the proceedings of the county commissioners, signs all warrants drawn on the county treasurer, and keeps a record of all the deeds filed in his office, preserving

a true copy of all deeds and real estate mortgages in his county. Titles to lands are shown by the records preserved in the office of the county clerk.

Superintendent of Public Instruction. It is the duty of the superintendent of public instruction to superintend all the schools of his county that are outside cities of the first class. Four times each year he conducts an examination for teachers, issues licenses to such teachers as successfully pass the examination, revokes the licenses of



A TYPICAL RURAL SCENE.

teachers for sufficient cause, fills vacancies on school boards by appointment, apportions school funds to the various districts, calls special school meetings, and appoints teachers for the separate schools.

Court Clerk. It is the duty of the court clerk to keep a record of all cases filed in the district and county courts, to attend the sessions of these courts and keep a record of their proceedings, issue marriage licenses, keep a record of all marriages performed in his county, and col-

lect the costs of actions in the courts of which he is clerk.

County Attorney. The county attorney is the lawyer for the county. He prosecutes those charged with violating the laws, and gives advice concerning the law to the county commissioners and other county officials.

County Treasurer. The county treasurer is the collector of county taxes and the custodian of county funds. He is eligible to serve only two terms and must give a heavy bond for the security of the money in his possession.

County Weigher. The county weigher may be said to be custodian of weights and measures. He makes a record of the weight of cotton, grain, live stock and other farm products sold on the public markets. His weights are official and must be accepted by purchasers and sellers.

County Surveyor. The county surveyor makes surveys of lands in the county on the request of interested parties.

County Assessor. The county assessor assesses all the property of his county for purposes of taxation, makes up the tax rolls, and delivers the rolls to the county treasurer, who collects the taxes.

Who are the chief county officers? Who has charge of the county's business? Who looks after education in the county? How are county taxes raised?

249. Township Government.—For about six years after Oklahoma Territory became a state, every township in Oklahoma had what is known as township government, electing four township officers: trustee, clerk, treasurer, and road overseer. In 1913, the legislature abolished township government in thirty-three counties, leaving the law in force in the others. Under the present law township government may be abolished or re-adopted by a majority vote of the voters of any county.

Officers. Township officers are elected as other county

officials. The township board, consisting of all the township officers except the Road Overseer, levies taxes for township roads, bridges, and other purposes, and passes on the payment of all claims against the township. When township government is abolished in any county the duties of the township board are assumed by the county commissioners.

Townships Distinguished. The pupil should be careful not to confuse the political township with the congressional township. The political township is of no certain size and is organized for purposes of local government. The congressional township is a tract of land six miles square, containing thirty-six sections of 640 acres each. It has nothing to do with government as such, but is simply an approved way of measuring land.

What are the township officers? How are they chosen? Who takes their places if a township is abolished? What is a congressional township?

QUESTIONS

- How many counties has Oklahoma?
- What is the object of county organization?
- How may new counties be formed?
- For how long are most county officials elected?
- How are vacancies in county offices filled?
- What are the duties of county commissioners?
- What is the difference between a political and a congressional township?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

- The Chief County Officers.
- The Duties of the Sheriff.
- The Work of the County Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Laying and Collecting the County Tax.
- The Organization of a Political Township.

CHAPTER XX

TOWN AND CITY GOVERNMENT

250. Its Place in Oklahoma.—Very little government is needed in sparsely settled areas, but as population increases there is a corresponding increase in the needs



A TYPICAL CITY SCENE.

for government. In a thinly settled country there are usually found few laws and a low rate of taxation; in densely settled communities we usually find many laws and a high rate of taxation. So long as American states were thinly populated they had but few laws regulating the conduct of their citizens and those laws as a rule

were administered at or from the capital. Then the states were simply territories and had a territorial form of government. But an increase of population created a need for more laws and a greater degree of local government; hence the territories became states, state constitutions were adopted, laws multiplied, and taxes increased.

As it was with the states so it has been with communities. Increasing population has converted rural communities into towns and developed towns into cities. City government was first instituted to deal with the many new problems incident to city life. Among those problems were those of sanitation, demanding sewerage and an adequate water supply; and transportation, demanding sidewalks and paving. Many other problems peculiar to cities came into being, each demanding attention from a local government. Thus in addition to national, state, and county government, we have city government.

Outline the development of state and local government.

251. Town Government.—A town is a community containing less than 2,000 people; or a municipality of more than 2,000 population that has not yet voted to become a city of the first class. Each town has at least three and not more than seven wards. Each ward elects one member of the Town Council. The Council itself elects one of its own members President of the Council. The Council also adopts the ordinances governing the town, levies the annual tax to support town government, and performs such other duties as the law prescribes. Other town officers are: Justice of the Peace, Town Clerk, Treasurer, and Marshal.

What constitutes a town? How many wards must a town have? How many may it have?

252. City Government.—Any town having a popula-

tion of 2,000 may become a city by popular vote. Oklahoma has only one class of cities and they are known as *cities of the first class*. A city may have the statutory form of government or the charter form. Unless a city has framed and adopted a charter for its government, it has the form prescribed by the statutes or laws of the state.

Statutory Form. Under the statutory form of govern-



A MODERN OKLAHOMA SCHOOL.

ment cities are divided into not less than four wards, each ward electing two members of the City Council. The other elective officers are the Mayor, City Clerk, and City Treasurer, each elected from the city at large. The City Attorney, Chief of Police, and other necessary officers are appointed by the Mayor and confirmed by the Council. All city officers are elected for a term of two years at a city election held the first Tuesday in April of odd years, and receive such compensation as the city

ordinances may provide. In cities of less than 12,000 population the Mayor acts as Police Judge.

The three departments of state government are duplicated in the government of a city. The Council in adopting city laws known as city ordinances acts in a legislative capacity. The Mayor while acting as Police Judge serves in a judicial capacity. The other officers are executives.

Charter Government. A city of the first class may institute charter government by electing two freeholders from each ward to frame a city charter. When such charter has been adopted by a majority vote of the people and approved by the governor according to law, it becomes the fundamental law of the city, just as the state constitution is the fundamental law of the state. The city charter must, however, be in agreement with the state constitution.

The charter states the form of the city government, tells what officers the city may have, and fixes their terms, duties, and salaries. Many Oklahoma cities have adopted charters providing for the commission plan of government or the commission manager plan. The commission plan provides for three or more commissioners, each having charge of an important department of the city government. Under the commission-manager plan the elected commissioners in turn elect a City Manager who is usually given full power of supervision over the city's business. He employs or discharges his subordinate officials at his discretion and is general manager of the city's business. Such an arrangement centralizes responsibility and is believed to insure efficient government with the least possible delay and at the least possible cost.

QUESTIONS

What is the statutory form of city government? How does it differ from the charter form? Which is the more uniform? What is the commission-manager plan?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Development of a Community.

The Chief Officers of a City.

The Commission-Manager Plan of City Government.

Statutory vs. Charter Government.

CHAPTER XXI

EDUCATION AND WELFARE

253. **Educational Progress.**—Since Oklahoma entered the American Union in 1907 greater attention has been paid to education than to almost any other state enterprise and greater progress has been made than in any other field of state endeavor. When the educational standards of 1924 are compared with those existing in 1907 it will be seen at once that the progress made in the educational field in fifteen years has been extraordinary.

254. **Indian Territory.**—Before Oklahoma became an independent state public free schools were maintained in Oklahoma Territory only; in that vast and sparsely settled region known as the Indian Territory there were few schools of any character and no free schools at all. In the entire eastern half of what is now the state, the only schools to be found were short-term subscription schools maintained for a few months in the year by struggling villages and taught by unlicensed and frequently untrained teachers. Provision had been made for teaching the Indian children and the children of some negro free-men, but the white children of that region were almost devoid of any educational facilities.

255. **Oklahoma Territory.**—In the western half of the state—Oklahoma Territory—there were maintained by territorial and federal support six institutions of real importance; viz., the University of Oklahoma at Norman, the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College at Stillwater, the University Preparatory School at Tonkawa, the three normal schools located at Edmond, Alva,

and Weatherford, and the Colored Agricultural and Normal University at Langston. All of these were poorly equipped and of limited student enrollment.

What educational progress was made in territorial times?

256. **Oklahoma State.**—Since the beginnings of state government the educational system has been reorganized and strengthened, the educational standard of teachers has been raised, new school buildings have everywhere been erected, and hundreds of thousands of pupils brought



THE UNIVERSITY OF

into the schools. The educational system now in vogue is made up of the following types of schools:

1. Major Colleges and Universities.
2. Secondary Institutions, and Junior Colleges.
3. Common Schools.

The major schools of the state are the University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Oklahoma College for Women at Chickasha, Central Teachers College at Edmond, Northeastern Teachers College at Tahlequah, Southeastern Teachers College at Durant, East Central Teachers College at Ada, North-

western Teachers College at Alva, Southwestern Teachers College at Weatherford, and the Colored Agricultural and Normal University at Langston. All of these institutions are crowded to capacity and are doing a wonderful work for the state.

In addition to these major state schools Oklahoma has some excellent denominational schools in the University of Tulsa, Phillips University at Enid, the Presbyterian College for Girls at Durant, Oklahoma City College at Oklahoma City, Oklahoma Baptist University at Shaw-



OKLAHOMA AT NORMAN.

nee, Bacone College at Bacone, St. Gregory's College at Shawnee, and the Catholic College for Young Women at Guthrie.

The secondary schools are the School of Mines at Wilburton, the Northeastern Oklahoma Junior College at Miami, the Oklahoma Military Academy at Claremore, the University Preparatory School at Tonkawa, the Panhandle Agricultural and Mechanical College at Goodwell, the District Agricultural Schools at Tishomingo, Lawton, and Warner, the School for the Blind at Muskogee and the School for the Deaf at Sulphur.

About how many colleges are there in Oklahoma? Are you planning to attend any of these?

257. **Common Schools.**—The common schools of Oklahoma like those of all other states may be classified as grammar schools and high schools, though both are usually found in the same building and under the same management and frequently are taught by the same corps of teachers. The common schools of the state in a legal sense are known as common schools, consolidated schools, union graded schools, independent schools, and joint schools.

Each county is divided into school districts. This was done immediately following the original organization of the counties and few new districts are now being formed. Each school district is organized by electing three citizens as members of the district school board, one of whom is director, one clerk, and one member. They serve for three years without pay. The board exercises general control over the school and its administration, employs the teachers, purchases the necessary school supplies, makes estimates for the needed tax levies, and performs such other duties as the law requires. All matters pertaining to the county schools are under the general supervision of a county school superintendent.

Two or more adjacent school districts may unite by popular vote and form a *consolidated* district. When the result of such an election is certified by the county superintendent it becomes his duty to declare the common school districts disorganized and the new consolidated district organized. The buildings of the abolished districts are sold or otherwise disposed of and a new building erected near the center of the consolidated district. Usually the state pays one-half the cost of the new building.

How is each school district organized? What is a consolidated district?

258. Union Graded Schools.—Two or more adjacent common school districts may by a majority vote of the citizens unite to form a union graded district. Under this plan schools are continued in the original districts for the lower grades, while a central school is maintained for the instruction of the higher grades.

The organization of consolidated and union graded districts has exercised a wide influence for good in the rural communities of the state. Under this plan high school courses can be offered to a great number of pupils who otherwise would not be able to attend high school. The plan also enables weak districts to maintain long-term schools each year.

259. Independent Schools.—Each city of the first class and each incorporated town maintaining a four-year high school accredited by the state university is an independent district. Such schools are independent of the county superintendent and not subject to his supervision. Each independent district employs its own superintendent.

260. Joint Schools.—A joint school district may be formed by the union of adjacent districts lying in two different counties. Such districts are under the supervision of the superintendent of that county in which the greater part of the district is located.

What is an independent district? How does a union graded district differ from a consolidated district?

What is the difference between these two and a joint school district?

261. Annual Meetings.—In all school districts except independent districts an annual school meeting is held on the fourth Tuesday of every March. All qualified electors, both men and women, residing in the district are entitled to attend these meetings and to vote. At these meetings the district officers are elected, the length of the school term and the date for its beginning are determined,

and such other business is transacted as may be necessary.

262. **Revenue.**—Schools receive money for their support from district, county, and state funds. The district fund is derived from a direct tax levied on the property of the district in any amount not exceeding fifteen mills on a dollar of valuation. The county fund is derived from fines assessed, the forfeiture of bonds, and a county tax not to exceed two mills on the dollar valuation.

263. **School Lands.**—The state school fund is derived largely from the rental on school lands and interest on the permanent state school fund. When Oklahoma was admitted to the Union the federal government granted to



OKLAHOMA AGRICULTURAL AND

the state 3,100,876 acres of land and paid the state \$5,000,000 in cash for the use and benefits of the schools. A great many of the school lands have been sold and the proceeds placed in a permanent school fund. Most of the money in the permanent school fund has been loaned to farmers at five per cent interest per annum and secured by mortgage on their lands. The county and state funds are apportioned to the various districts of the state in proportion to their scholastic enumeration. It has been objected against this plan of apportionment that it may be responsible for the payment of too large a sum of money to a district having a large number of pupils who

rarely attend school or to a district that votes a very short school term. It has been suggested that a better plan would be to apportion these funds according to the average daily attendance of pupils.

When is the annual school meeting outside the independent districts? From what sources do schools derive their funds? How is the permanent school fund used?

264. Separate Schools.—The laws of the state require that white children and negro children shall attend different schools. This law frequently results in the maintenance of two different schools in the same district and requires special rules for handling the problem. To meet



MECHANICAL COLLEGE AT STILLWATER.

this requirement, it is provided that in districts where separate schools are maintained, the children of the least numerous race shall attend the separate school. The teachers of the separate school are employed by the county superintendent and the schools are supported by a special appropriation made by the county in which they are located.

265. Compulsory School Attendance.—All children between the ages of six and twenty-one years are entitled to attend school free from all tuition charges. All pupils between the ages of eight and sixteen are required by the compulsory school law to attend school at least two-

thirds of the school term. They may attend either the public or a private school.

266. **Census.**—Every year a census of all children between the ages of six and twenty-one years is taken during the last fifteen days of January. This enumeration furnishes the basis for the distribution of county and state school funds to the various schools.

How are the teachers in the "separate" schools paid? How many years must a pupil attend school?

267. **State Institutions.**—At the time of statehood Oklahoma had no charitable institutions. These homes for the helpless, the feeble minded, and persons suffering from mental and other diseases dangerous to other people had to be erected immediately, and since Oklahoma had entered the Union with the largest population of any state ever admitted, the task of building institutions for the care of the unfortunate proved quite a burden. Other states of equal population had been from fifty to more than a hundred years in building their institutions, but Oklahoma was required to do this work of mercy in less than fifteen years.

268. **Penal Institutions.**—When the state of Oklahoma was formed its convicts were confined in the State Prison of Kansas at Lansing. As soon as possible they were brought back to this state and confined in a prison of their own building at McAlester. This penitentiary is now among the best in America. Later a State Reformatory was built at Granite and a Training School for Incurable Boys at Pauls Valley. An Industrial Home for Incurable Girls has since been erected at Tecumseh, while a Reform School for Incurable Negro Boys has been opened at the penitentiary at McAlester. The state also operates a farm by convict labor at Aylesworth.

269. **Charitable Institutions.**—For the treatment of patients suffering from nervous diseases the state main-

tains three highly efficient hospitals at Norman, Vinita, and Supply. There is also a model home for feeble-minded patients at Enid. For the treatment of tubercular patients sanatoriums are maintained at Clinton and Talihina with one for negroes at Boley. The state likewise has three homes for orphan children, one at Pryor, one at Helena, and one for negroes at Taft.

Oklahoma has done more for her soldiers than any



STOCK-YARDS.

other state perhaps, maintaining for their treatment and comfort the Soldiers Memorial Hospital at Muskogee, the sanatoriums for tubercular soldiers at Sulphur, and a ward for nervous cases at the state hospital at Norman. There is a state home for Confederate soldiers at Ardmore and one for Union soldiers at Oklahoma City. In connection with the Medical School of Oklahoma University the state operates the University Hospital in Oklahoma City.

270. **Fish Hatcheries.**—In addition to other institutions, the state maintains fish hatcheries at Medicine Park and Durant and has made provision for still other hatcheries in the eastern part of the state. Recently there has developed considerable enthusiasm for the preservation of fish, game, and the wild life of the state in general. The Isaak Walton League of America is taking a leading part in creating a sentiment for the preservation of wild life and is meeting with splendid success. The purpose of the organization is to protect wild life, to encourage true sportsmanship, and to cultivate a love for out-door life in America.

How does Oklahoma take care of its unfortunates? Where are the convicts confined? Are they all kept in prison? What has Oklahoma done for her soldiers? Where are the fish hatcheries located?

QUESTIONS

What provision did the Indian Territory have for schools? When were free schools first established in Oklahoma? How long may students attend free schools now? What are some of the most important colleges in the state? What are the different kinds of districts?

How is money raised for the schools? Who administers the county schools? the city schools? How did the state acquire its school lands? What has it done with them?

Which are the chief penal institutions? Where are the leading charitable institutions located? What is done in the state to encourage out-door life.

THEMES AND EXERCISES

A Summary of Oklahoma's Educational Progress.

The Care of the Soldiers.

The Treatment of Convicts.

The Different Types of School Districts.

CHAPTER XXII

PAYING THE BILLS

271. **Taxation.**—It requires a great deal of money to operate a government of any character, whether that government be national, state, county, or municipal. Since a government has no money of its own, it must necessarily obtain the money necessary for its maintenance and operation from the people. The system by which money for governmental support is collected from the people is called the system of taxation. The money paid by the people to support their government is called *taxes*.

To guard against oppressive and unjust taxation provisions are often contained in written constitutions setting forth the kind and amount of taxes that may be levied on the people. Both the Constitution of the United States and the constitution of Oklahoma clearly state how and to what extent the people may be taxed. Both federal and state officials are sworn to observe these constitutional provisions, and are subject to impeachment if they violate such provisions. Hence the people should respect and solemnly preserve the constitution, for it is the constitution that protects them from excessive and illegal taxation.

Why is taxation necessary? Why does the state constitution contain tax provisions?

272. **Limitations.**—Under the Oklahoma constitution the total tax for all purposes shall not exceed thirty-one and one-half mills on the dollar valuation, unless the total amount shall be increased by a vote of the people. This

total levy is divided as follows: state tax, not more than three and one-half mills; county tax, not more than eight mills; township tax, not more than five mills; city or town tax, not more than ten mills; school district tax, not more than five mills, provided that by a vote of the people it can be increased to any amount not exceeding fifteen mills. This total tax is what is called an *ad valorem* tax. This means that it is levied on real and personal property, according to value. Real property consists of lands and houses. Personal property consists of all movable property, such as merchandise, vehicles, and live stock.

At a special election held October 2, 1923, the people ratified an amendment to the state constitution which provides a substantial increase in the state tax levy. The amendment empowers the State Excise Board to levy a tax that will produce at least \$15.00 per pupil for all the pupils in the common schools of the state. The validity of the election at which this amendment was adopted has been attacked in the courts and at the time this text was written the case had not been decided.

What is the legal limit of the tax rate for the state? for the county? the township? the city? the school district? How may rates be increased?

273. Special Taxes.—Several special taxes are collected in addition to the *ad valorem* tax levied on real and personal property. A gross production tax amounting to three per cent of its value is levied on all the oil procured in the state. Motor-driven vehicles are taxed according to the horse-power of their motors. An income tax is levied on all annual incomes in excess of \$3,500, and there is also an inheritance tax. Men between the ages of twenty-one and fifty years are subject to a poll tax or road tax, while cities usually levy what is called an *occupation tax* on certain occupations.

274. **Exemptions.**—All property owned by the federal, state, or county government, or by any other subdivision of government is exempt from taxation. Likewise all property used for religious or educational purposes is exempt from taxation. Household goods and tools to the value of \$100 when owned by the head of a household are exempt, while former Federal and Confederate soldiers are allowed an exemption of \$200.00.

What special taxes and exemptions are there in Oklahoma?

275. **Assessment.**—The first step in the process of tax collection is what is known as tax assessment. The work of assessing taxes is done by the county assessor. He visits each voting precinct of his county and assesses, that is, officially estimates, for the purpose of fixing the amount of taxes to be paid on all the personal and real property. Real property, however, is assessed for a two-year period, the assessment being made every odd-numbered year.

The law of the state provides that property shall be assessed at its actual cash value. In practice, however, this is rarely done, most property being entered on the assessment books at much less than its fair valuation.

276. **Equalization.**—It is naturally difficult for one assessor to make a fair and equitable assessment of all the property in an entire county. The property of one citizen is liable to be assessed relatively higher or lower than the property of another citizen. To prevent injustice in this respect the law has provided that property assessments shall be equalized and this work of readjustment is done by the Board of County Commissioners sitting as a Board of Equalization.

How does the state guard against injustice in the levying of taxes?

277. **Budgets.**—Tax budgets are made up every year

by the school district, city, town, and county officers. Each of the departments estimates how much it will be required to spend during the fiscal year and sets down this amount as its budget. The various budgets are then assembled and submitted to the County Excise Board, which is composed of the county clerk, county assessor, county attorney, county judge, county superintendent, and one member of the Board of County Commissioners. This board meets on the last Saturday of July. It examines the different budgets submitted, revises the budgets if it sees fit to do so, and increases or reduces any item that it thinks needs revision. It may even eliminate any item in its entirety.

278. Levies.—When the Excise Board has completed the annual budget and approved it, it levies a tax sufficient to raise the approved amount plus ten per cent for taxes that may for any reason not be collected. The certified levies are then taken by the county assessor who makes up the annual tax rolls, showing the name of each tax payer and how much tax is to be paid by him. The completed rolls are then delivered to the county treasurer, who collects the taxes.

In what way is the tax levy made to fit the needs of the community?

279. Taxes Due.—Taxes are due November first, but if one-half of the taxes are paid prior to January first, the other half does not become due till June first thereafter. If taxes are not paid when due, they become “delinquent,” after which there is added to them a penalty of twelve per cent, which runs until the taxes and penalty accrued are paid. If delinquent taxes are not paid within the time specified by law, the county treasurer must advertise the property and sell it for the taxes.

280. State Levies.—When the County Equalization Board has equalized the tax assessments, it forwards a copy of its report to the State Equalization Board, which equalizes tax assessments among the counties just as the County Excise Board equalizes the assessments among citizens. The state levy is made by the State Excise Board, which consists of certain state officers. The law provides that public service corporations shall be assessed by the State Excise Board.

When are taxes due? What penalty is there for “delinquent” taxes? What is the work of the State Board of Equalization?

281. New Excise Board.—The legislature in 1924 enacted a law which provides for an excise board consisting of five private, tax-paying citizens, who shall not be public officials. This law, however, applies to Oklahoma County only. Proponents of this law contend that it is against economy and efficiency for the officers who spend the money to have authority to say how much they may spend and that the law will result in greater efficiency and economy. If this contention proves to be correct, it is probable that the legislature will presently extend the operations of the law to all the counties of the state.

282. Duties of Citizens.—It is the legal and moral duty of every citizen to pay his taxes and pay them promptly. At the same time it is the duty of every citizen to study honestly and carefully every proposition that calls for the expenditure of public funds that he may know if the money is being honestly and carefully spent. It is his duty to acquiesce in the expenditure of public funds whenever there is a real need for such expenditure, but to insist on the elimination of all waste. Since it is natural for public officials to want to make the best showing possible, it follows that they

are likely to be too liberal in spending public funds. Unless the tax payers themselves study the needs of government and insist on economy in government, extravagance is almost sure to increase from year to year.

283. **Increase in Government Costs.**—For several years past there has been a marked increase in the cost of government in all its departments, federal, state, county, and municipal. This increase is partly due to an increase in official salaries caused by high prices incident to the Great War. It is partially due to a vast increase in the number of government officials and employees. But the greater part of the increase is due to a natural but rapid growth in the business of government. A great deal of work formerly done by private concerns and individuals is now being done by government bureaus and commissions. This extension of government inevitably calls for the employment of more officials and forces the expenditure of larger sums of money for government maintenance. Just how rapidly this expansion and enlargement has proceeded is shown by the fact that whereas thirty years ago only one man out of each thousand was an employee of government one out of each twenty is an employee of government in 1924. At the close of the Buchanan administration in 1861, the per capita cost of the federal government was \$2.08. At the beginning of 1924 the per capita cost of the federal government was estimated at approximately \$30.00.

Do you think the new Excise Board in Oklahoma County a good thing? Why? What are some reasons for the increase in government expenses?

QUESTIONS

Who pays the state's bills? How is the money raised? What has the constitution to do with taxation? Why does the constitution limit the rate of taxation?

What is real property? personal property? What special taxes has Oklahoma? What is an *ad valorem* tax? What kinds of property are exempt from taxation?

Who decides the amount of tax each person shall pay? To whom can you appeal if you think you are unjustly taxed? About how much above the annual budget is the annual levy?

What happens when taxes are not paid? Has a citizen who fails to vote a right to object to high taxes?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

- Taxation in the Federal Constitution.
- Taxation in the State Constitution.
- The School Tax.
- Special Taxes.
- Exemptions.
- The Different Steps in Raising Tax Money.
- The Duty of the Citizen.
- The Increased Cost of Government.

CHAPTER XXIII

THE CITIZEN

284. **Importance of the Citizen.**—The citizen is the most important factor in the government of Oklahoma. It was by him that civilization was brought to Oklahoma; It was by him that government was established here. It is for his protection and well being that government is maintained in the state. Any scheme of government that ignores the natural and constitutional rights of the citizen is an evil thing and should speedily be changed by the voters.

285. **His Rights.**—Every citizen has a right to the protection of the government. He has the right to pursue his chosen vocation in a peaceful way and to remain unmolested by other citizens. If others unlawfully interfere with his peace, quietude, and business activities, he has a right to expect the protection of his government working through its agencies for law enforcement.

He has a right to a fair education provided by his state in schools maintained or sanctioned by the state. He has a right to worship the God of his choice in the church of his choice after the manner of his choice. He has no right, however, to worship in such a manner as to mar the peace of the community or infringe on the rights of his neighbors.

He has the right to remain free from legal molestation or arrest save in the case of crime. He has a right to be considered innocent of crime until he has been declared guilty of crime by a jury of his peers in court. In case of his arrest and trial, he has the right to be faced

by the witnesses testifying against him, the right to be represented by a lawyer, and the right to appeal to a higher court in case he is found guilty.

He has a right to cast his vote on election day and help elect the officers of government. He has a right to assemble in public meeting with his fellow citizens, so long as they assemble in a peaceful manner and for no unlawful purpose. He has a right freely to express his opinion of his government and public questions as long as his opinions are not wilfully false and harmful to the reputation of



A BEAUTIFUL SCENE—CRATER LAKE.

others. He has the right to read a press that is free and unrestrained by unjust government.

Which of these rights do you think most important? Why?

286. **His Duties.**—Every right that the citizen enjoys, however, carries with it a corresponding duty. These priceless rights have been bought by the sacrifices of many brave men and women and those rights must be protected and preserved at all costs. It is his duty to pay the taxes necessary to support the government that affords him protection. While peacefully pursuing his

chosen calling, he must permit his neighbor to do the same. He must help support the schools that gave him an education. While enjoying the right of free worship and liberty of conscience, he must cheerfully grant the same right to others. He must refrain from falsely accusing or falsely causing the arrest of his neighbor; he must consider his neighbor innocent of crime until proved guilty; he must concede to his neighbor the right of trial by jury, the right of legal defense, and the right of appeal.

In casting his own vote on election day he must concede the same right to his fellow citizen. He must refrain from interfering with the peaceful assemblage of his fellow citizens. He must help preserve an honest opinion of government and public questions. He must cheerfully permit his neighbor to express an honest opinion of government and public questions. He must help to maintain that liberty of the press which is essential to free and intelligent government.

If danger menaces his government, it is his sacred duty to answer his country's call and yield his life if necessary to save it from destruction. Time and again his forefathers have fought and many of them have died to win the priceless advantages he enjoys, and as a worthy son of such forebears he must be ready to pay the same price they paid if his country ever should require a similar sacrifice.

What do you consider the most important duties of a citizen? Why?

QUESTIONS

Can a state exist without citizens? Should a citizen who does not vote criticize the government? To how much free education has the Oklahoma citizen a right?

Do you think a citizen gets more advantage from his rights than he pays for by his duties?

THEMES AND EXERCISES

The Right to Vote.

The Duty to Vote.

The Education to Which I am Entitled.

A Good Citizen's Chief Duties.

SUGGESTIONS

Seventh and eighth grade pupils cannot be expected to get much benefit from college text-books on sociology or political science. Even Professor Young's "New American Government," while remarkably interesting and helpful for the teacher, would hardly be suitable for junior high school pupils. The same might be said of Beard's "American Government and Politics." The teacher should also know such books as Howe's "The Modern City and Its Problems" (Scribner) or Carney's "Country Life and the Country School" (Row, Peterson). Read's "Form and Functions of American Government" (World Book Co.), Ashley's "The New Civics" (Macmillan), Magruder's "American Government" (Allyn and Bacon), Haskin's "American Government" (Lippincott), and Beard's "American City Government" (Century), are examples of books which pupils could use as well as teachers in the study of certain topics. Dawson's "Organized Self-Government" (Holt) will also give some interesting suggestions.

It is assumed that every teacher is thoroughly acquainted with the National Bureau of Education's Bulletin No. 23 (1915) and Bulletin No. 28 (1916). "Lessons in Community and National Life," issued from the same source, contain helpful discussions and questions. A teacher, too, should certainly know how to use the periodical indexes with which every good library should be provided, and thereby keep in touch with the constantly increasing number of valuable magazine articles. Such current magazines, by the way, as the *Literary Digest*, the *Independent and Weekly Review*, the *Outlook*, the *World's Work*, *Current Opinion*, *Review of Reviews*, the *Survey*, and the *American City* should be a constant source of inspiration and enlightenment in a Community Civics course.

Every class should have access to the World Almanac or some similar publication, to the Congressional Directory, and to the official handbook of the state, if one is published. Annual reports, special reports, and frequent bulletins are issued by a great many departments in local and state governments and should be employed frequently. The Government Printing Office at Washington, through the Superintendent of Documents, issues a list of the bulletins prepared by national departments and bureaus. Some of these can be

obtained free, while for others a small sum is charged to cover the cost of printing.

The list of kinds of illustrative material which the members of the class may obtain themselves is almost endless. The school should furnish some means of preserving and classifying as much of such material as is of more than temporary interest. Pictures, ballots, maps, charts, legal documents, forms used in public business, and the like, are exceedingly useful in promoting both the interest and the comprehension of the class.

Better even than reading a text-book or collecting information about the activities of somebody else is direct participation by the class in forms of community service. The work of the Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts, the Junior Red Cross, local improvement clubs, thrift clubs, garden clubs, canning clubs, junior civic associations, and numerous other means of employing the gang spirit in the right direction will make civics work real and practical to pupils, parents, and the community in general. Some of these organizations publish literature of their own which the class will find useful. Frequently such reform organizations as the Bureau of Municipal Research, of New York, the National Conference for City Planning, Boston, and the National Municipal League, Philadelphia, will supply helpful information in their book of appeals. If time is available for an extensive study of the chapters on transportation and wealth, there are all sorts of sources for illustrative material from railroads and business organizations. But do not let the pupils bother busy men with requests for literature which will not be used after it is obtained.

APPENDIX
CONSTITUTION
OF THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
PREAMBLE

WE the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. — LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. — CONGRESS

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives.

SECTION 2. — HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

2. No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

¹3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by add-

¹ Modified by Amendment XIV, Section 2, and Amendment XVI.

ing to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the Executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. — SENATE

¹1. [The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.]

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; ¹[and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies].

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

¹ Paragraph 1 and the last part of paragraph 2, in Section 3, have been replaced by Amendment XVII.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. — ELECTIONS AND SESSIONS

1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. — GOVERNMENT AND RULES

1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

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SECTION 6. — PRIVILEGES AND RESTRICTIONS

1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. — PROCESS OF LAW-MAKING

1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and, if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and, before the same shall take effect, shall

be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. — POWERS GRANTED TO CONGRESS¹

The Congress shall have power, —

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

12. To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

13. To provide and maintain a navy;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the

¹ Additional powers of Congress are mentioned in *Art. I*, Sect. 2, par. 3; Sect. 4, par. 1; Sect. 6, par. 1; *Art. II*, Sect. 1, pars. 4, 6; *Art. III*, Sect. 2, pars. 2, 3; Sect. 3, par. 2; *Art. IV*, Sect. 1; Sect. 3, pars. 1, 2; *Art. V*; *Amendment XIII*, Sect. 2; *Amendment XIV*, Sects. 2, 3, 5; *Amendment XV*, Sect. 2; *Amendment XVI*.

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militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings; — and

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9. — POWERS DENIED TO CONGRESS¹

1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

² 4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement

¹ Amendments I to X are also, directly or indirectly, limitations on the powers of Congress.

² Modified by Amendment XVI.

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and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10. — POWERS DENIED TO THE STATES¹

1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. — EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. — THE PRESIDENT: ELECTION AND QUALIFICATIONS

1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:—

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

¹ Supplemented by Amendments XIV and XV.

¹ 3. [The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the Electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]

4. Congress may determine the time of choosing the Electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

¹ Replaced by Amendment XII.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—“I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

SECTION 2. — POWERS OF THE PRESIDENT

1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. — DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT

He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public

ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. — REMOVAL OF OFFICIALS

The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. — JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. — COURTS AND JUDGES

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. — JURISDICTION AND METHODS

1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State,¹ between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within

¹ Modified by Amendment XI.

any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3. — TREASON

1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. — STATE RELATIONS

SECTION 1. — PUBLIC ACTS

Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2. — RIGHTS AND RESTRICTIONS OF INDIVIDUALS

1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3. — NEW STATES AND NATIONAL POSSESSIONS

1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no New State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION 4. — PROTECTION OF STATES

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature can not be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V. — AMENDMENT

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. — AUTHORITY OF THE CONSTITUTION

1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution;

but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. — RATIFICATION

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. *In Witness* whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

G^o: WASHINGTON,
Presidt. and Deputy from Virginia,
[and thirty-eight other delegates.]

ARTICLES

IN ADDITION TO, AND AMENDMENT OF, THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

ARTICLE I. — PERSONAL FREEDOM ¹

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II. — KEEPING AND BEARING ARMS ¹

A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III. — QUARTERING TROOPS ¹

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV. — SECURITY OF THE HOME¹

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.—SECURITY AGAINST THE GOVERNMENT¹

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. — RIGHTS OF PERSONS ACCUSED OF
CRIME¹

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII. — JURY TRIAL IN CIVIL CASES¹

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII. — BAIL AND PUNISHMENTS¹

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX. — UNMENTIONED RIGHTS ¹

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. — POWERS RESERVED TO THE STATES ¹

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI. — SUITS AGAINST STATES ²

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII. — ELECTION OF PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT ³

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; — the President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Represen-

¹ Amendments I to X were proposed by Congress in 1789. After ratification by the states they were proclaimed by the Secretary of State to be in force, 1791.

² Proposed, 1794, proclaimed in force, 1798.

³ Proposed, 1803, proclaimed in force, 1804.

tatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII. — SLAVERY ¹

SECTION 1. — PROHIBITION

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. — ENFORCEMENT

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV. — CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS OF CITIZENS ²

SECTION 1. — CITIZENS AND THEIR RIGHTS

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of

¹ Proposed and proclaimed in force, 1865.

² Proposed, 1866, proclaimed in force, 1868.

life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. — APPORTIONMENT OF REPRESENTATIVES

Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of Electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. — LOSS OF POLITICAL PRIVILEGES

No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. — PUBLIC DEBT

The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States, nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. — ENFORCEMENT

The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV. — RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE¹

SECTION 1. — NEGRO SUFFRAGE

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. — ENFORCEMENT

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI — INCOME TAXES²

The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes, from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII — ELECTION OF SENATORS³

1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislatures.

2. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, that the Legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointment until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

3. This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

ARTICLE XVIII — INTOXICATING LIQUORS⁴

SECTION 1. — PROHIBITION

After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the

¹ Proposed, 1869, proclaimed in force, 1870.

² Proposed, 1909, proclaimed in force, 1913.

³ Proposed, 1912, proclaimed in force, 1913.

⁴ Proposed, 1917, proclaimed in force, 1919.

importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof, for beverage purposes, is hereby prohibited.

SECTION 2. — ENFORCEMENT

The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

SECTION 3. — TIME OF RATIFICATION

This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the Legislatures of the several States as provided in the Constitution within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

ARTICLE XIX — EQUAL SUFFRAGE ¹

SECTION 1. — VOTING RIGHTS

The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

SECTION 2. — ENFORCEMENT

Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

¹ Proposed, 1913, proclaimed in force, 1920.

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