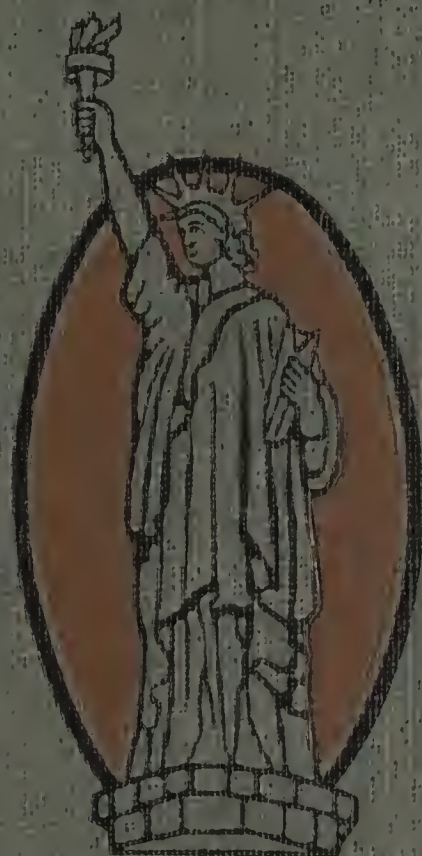
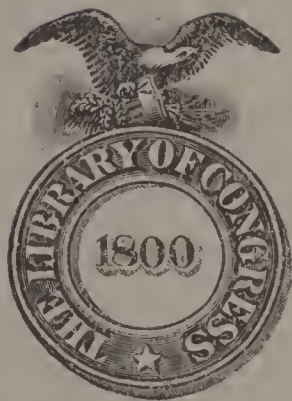


THE YOUNG AMERICAN CITIZEN



KENTUCKY EDITION

JOHNSON PUBLISHING COMPANY



Class JK 274

Book . B55

Copyright N^o 1924

COPYRIGHT DEPOSIT.

THE YOUNG AMERICAN CITIZEN



INDEPENDENCE HALL

THE YOUNG AMERICAN CITIZEN

CIVICS FOR GRAMMAR GRADES

BY

J. H. BINFORD

ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS
RICHMOND, VIRGINIA

AND

E. U. GRAFF

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS
INDIANAPOLIS, INDIANA

*WITH A SECTION ON THE
GOVERNMENT OF KENTUCKY*

BY

LEE KIRKPATRICK

SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS
PARIS, KENTUCKY

JOHNSON PUBLISHING COMPANY
RICHMOND, VIRGINIA

JK 274
B 55
1924

Copyright, 1922, 1924 by
Johnson Publishing Company

MAR 20 '24

© C1A777620

no. 11

PREFACE

THE principle of self-development through self-activity is now well established in education. Modern schools have made remarkable advances in its application. The child is no longer regarded as a mere receptacle. Both the courses of study and the programs of schools attempt to make provision for the training of children by allowing them to carry on such activities as are needed to develop in them certain desirable qualities. This principle is well understood by most educators, but not so well by the general public. Many activities criticized by school patrons as fads or entertainment are in fact the very activities provided for learning by doing.

The value of the principle of self-development is so obvious that subjects which lend themselves to this form of treatment are assuming greater importance in the curriculum than ever before. Among these subjects is civics. Because it is a social study, it is well adapted for direct application in the school and in the community.

The ultimate purpose of the teaching of civics is to train for citizenship. Necessarily, facts about government are a part of this training, but the work should by no means end with a mere knowledge of facts. There are so many ways in which to apply social and political principles that it would be a pity to limit the teaching of civics to the purely academic side of the subject. The training that the pupil receives in home and in school in making him a helpful, law-abiding member of his group is indeed the most effective training for future citizenship possible. In the home he learns the lessons of community of interest, division of labor, self-denial, and obedience to constituted authority. In the school he learns the same lessons in contact and association with a somewhat larger group, and thus develops the attitude and the habits which fit him for community life. It should, however, be the peculiar province of civics to bring the pupil into touch with the great community problems, and thus definitely to enlarge his horizon and prepare him for the duties of citizenship.

In *The Young American Citizen* the subjects of city, county, state, and national government are treated in each of the three parts of the book. This progressive treatment is necessary since

the pupil is unable on first presentation to grasp such subjects in their entirety. The topics most easily understood come first, more detailed study later, when the pupil is better prepared for it. Such large and important subjects as health and thrift, which because of their essential nature must be repeated at reasonable intervals, are given the same spiral development.

This text has made provision for group activities by the organization of a class club. The class club will find many opportunities for work in the school through various committees. For example, one class club in a certain school had a "noon committee," the function of which was to assist in taking care of the building and grounds during the noon hour. It had a "room committee" by whose efforts the schoolroom was made attractive. There were boys' and girls' "basement committees," and a "lunch committee" to supervise the lunch hour. There were also a "yard committee" and a "hedge committee," the duties of which were to beautify the grounds and building and to improve the appearance of the school. Other occupations for the school club will suggest themselves to every teacher. Such an organization can be made of real assistance in obtaining the coöperation and the enthusiastic interest of the pupils.

In addition to the class club, there are four principal ways in which pupils may be stimulated to undertake applied work in civics: (1) Dramatization and pageantry; (2) Student organizations which exemplify the working of civic bodies; (3) Actual participation by children in adult community activities; (4) Visits to and study of community utilities. (See page 310.)

The authors earnestly believe that this text, which presents high civic ideals and practical plans for putting these ideals into effect, will be welcomed by teachers who aim to secure maximum results from an elementary course in civics.

CONTENTS

PART I

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. THE JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB ORGANIZED	11
II. WHAT A COMMUNITY IS	18
III. DIFFERENT KINDS OF COMMUNITIES	23
IV. THE PLAYGROUND	29
V. COURAGE AND FAIR PLAY	35
VI. WORK AND COÖPERATION	40
VII. A HEALTH LESSON	46
VIII. THRIFT	52
IX. THE GOOD CITIZEN	56
X. OUR CITY	60
XI. OUR COUNTY	68
XII. OUR STATE	73
XIII. OUR NATION	79

PART II

XIV. THE JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB REORGANIZED	85
XV. OCCUPATIONS	91
XVI. KEEPING THINGS CLEAN	98
XVII. SAVERS AND WASTERS	104
XVIII. BEAUTY	111
XIX. SAFETY	116
XX. FIRE PREVENTION	124
XXI. EDUCATION	129
XXII. LAWS	136
XXIII. TRIALS	141

CHAPTER	PAGE
XXIV. CITY GOVERNMENT.....	148
XXV. COUNTY GOVERNMENT.....	157
XXVI. STATE GOVERNMENT.....	163
XXVII SOME THINGS THE NATION DOES FOR US.....	175

PART III

XXVIII. THE JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB REORGANIZED.....	184
XXIX. CHOOSING A VOCATION.....	187
XXX. OUTDOOR LIFE.....	194
XXXI. AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURING.....	202
XXXII. TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION.....	213
XXXIII. WHERE OUR LIBERTY CAME FROM.....	228
XXXIV. THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.....	235
XXXV. THE PRESIDENT AND THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS....	241
XXXVI. CONGRESS AND ITS WORK.....	249
XXXVII. THE FEDERAL COURTS.....	255
XXXVIII. MONEY AND CREDIT.....	260
XXXIX. HOW THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT RAISES REVENUE....	268
XL. POLITICAL PARTIES.....	271
XLI. NATURALIZATION.....	277
XLII. EXPANSION OF THE UNITED STATES.....	283
XLIII. AMERICA AND THE WORLD.....	292
XLIV-LI. GOVERNMENT OF KENTUCKY.....	299

APPENDIX

SECTION	
I. SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.....	329
II. MEETING OF A JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB.....	335
III. PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS.....	340
IV. THE TEXT OF THE CONSTITUTION.	344

The American's Creed

I believe in the United States of America as a government of the people, by the people, for the people, whose just powers are derived from the consent of the governed; a democracy in a republic; a sovereign nation of many sovereign states; a perfect union, one and inseparable; established upon those principles of freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and fortunes.

I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it; to support its Constitution; to obey its laws; to respect its flag, and to defend it against all enemies.

— William Tyler Page



HOUDON'S STATUE OF WASHINGTON, CAPITOL, RICHMOND, VA.

The Young American Citizen

PART ONE

CHAPTER I

THE JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB ORGANIZED

Problems: (1) To learn the value of organization; and (2) to effect an organization.

A Great Fire.—A fire broke out some years ago in the city of Manila, in the Philippine Islands. The lightly built wooden houses blazed like tinder, and in a short time the flames spread until a large part of the city was on fire, and its entire destruction seemed at hand. The natives, unused to thinking quickly, were in a state of panic. They could neither stop the fire nor save their household belongings. Terrified, they looked on helplessly at the leaping flames.

Help Appears.—Two groups of helpers appeared on the scene of the fire at the same time. One was the fire company, which promptly set to work throwing streams of water on the burning buildings. The other was a patrol of Boy Scouts, who hurried to the fire at the first alarm. They helped to carry furniture to a place of safety; they gave help to the fire companies; they bore messages. Acting in obedience to their Scout Master and the chief of the firemen, who gave orders, they did wonders. Their work that day greatly lessened the horrors of the fire, which burned a

great part of Manila and left three thousand people homeless.

Power of Organization.—How was it that two bands of workers could do so much while the natives stood around helpless from fright? It was through the power of organization. The firemen had practiced their calling for years. The boys were organized and trained to be of use at just such times—therefore they knew what to do. They knew how to *coöperate*—that is, how to act together. They knew how to take orders and carry them out. A small number of Boy Scouts, organized and trained, were of more use than hundreds of grown men who had had no experience in teamwork.

Girl Scouts.—What is done for the world of boyhood by the Boy Scouts is done for girls by the similar societies of Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls. These clubs have taught girls how to do many things about the house, given them a knowledge of outdoor life, and helped to make them strong and healthy. Like the Boy Scouts, the Girl Scouts and Camp Fire Girls learn the lessons of organization and the ideals of citizenship.

Organizing a Club.—How would you like to organize your class into a club similar in many respects to the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls? This society will add to the pleasures of your school life because its meetings will be different from your regular classroom exercises, and it may lead you to undertake a number of projects that you will enjoy. Through this club you will take up a new study, *civics*, in which you should learn many things about the history and government of your country, facts that will help you to vote rightly, when the time comes, and to be a good

citizen in all ways. Just as the Boy Scouts organization teaches boys to be strong, kind, courageous, and honorable, so your Junior Citizens Club will train you in the public duties of men and women in a free country.

Way to Organize a Club.—"How shall we organize a Junior Citizens Club and what work shall we do after we have organized?" you ask. This book has been written to guide and help you. In each chapter you will find a study of facts about your government or a discussion of the duties of citizens. At the end of each chapter you will find certain things outlined for your club to do, questions to be discussed, and suggestions for other work.

But we must first organize our Junior Citizens Club. The following is an account taken down in shorthand of the organization of a club in the 5-A grade of a large city school. Read it carefully and then organize your own club.

JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB OF LONGFELLOW SCHOOL

The class was called to order by the teacher, who acted as chairman until the organization of the club was completed. The teacher, after explaining the purpose of the Junior Citizens Club as the teaching of citizenship by practical lessons, appointed a committee to bring in reports on a constitution for the club and a pledge to be taken by the members.

On the following Friday the club met again. The teacher, as chairman, called for the report of the committee on the constitution and pledge. The committee made the following report:

CONSTITUTION FOR JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB

Article 1. This organization shall be known as the Junior Citizens Club of the Fifth Grade of Longfellow School.

Article 2. The object of this association shall be to train members for real citizenship and, furthermore, to accomplish each year at least one thing of importance for the school or the community.

Article 3. The officers of the club shall be a president, a vice president, a secretary, and a treasurer. They shall be elected by ballot and shall hold office until the end of the school year.

Article 4. The meetings of the Junior Citizens Club shall be held on Friday afternoon of each week of the school term and shall begin at two o'clock.

Article 5. The following committees shall be appointed: Visiting, to visit sick members of the club; Improvement, to assist the teacher in bettering the appearance of the school-room; and Entertainment, to get up programs for Christmas and Easter, and other special days. Each committee shall consist of three members, and the committees shall be changed at the middle of the school year.

THE PLEDGE

We will never bring disgrace to our school, city, or country.

We will obey our school, city, and country's laws.

We will stand for the right, with others or alone.

We will aid the poor, the old, the young, and all who need help.

We pledge allegiance to the flag of our country and our most earnest efforts to keep ourselves worthy of that flag.

The teacher then said: "All who are in favor of adopting this constitution and this pledge as the law of the Junior Citizens Club will say 'Aye.'"

A chorus of "Ayes" came from the class in reply.

The teacher went on: "All who are opposed to adopting the constitution and pledge will say 'No.'"

Not a single student said "No."

“As the ‘Ayes’ have it unanimously,” said the teacher, “the constitution and pledge are adopted as the law of the Junior Citizens Club. The constitution calls for the election of a president by ballot. Nominations for president are now in order.”

“I nominate Sam Blackburn,” said Henry Brown, rising.

“Sam Blackburn is nominated,” went on the teacher. “Are there any other nominations?”

Willie Smith rose from his seat. “I nominate Mary O’Callaghan,” he said.

“Mary O’Callaghan is nominated,” said the teacher. “Are there any other nominations?”

No one spoke, and the nominations were declared closed.

“Sam Blackburn and Mary O’Callaghan are nominated for president, and we are ready to vote,” said the teacher.

She appointed two boys to act as tellers. The tellers tore up sheets of paper into small bits and gave one piece or ballot to each member of the class. According to the teacher’s direction, each member of the class wrote on the piece of paper the name of the candidate for whom he or she voted. When all the ballots had been written, the tellers collected them and read them, one by one, aloud. As they did so, the count was kept on the blackboard by two students, a boy and a girl. It was found that the result was as follows:

Sam Blackburn.....	22
Mary O’Callaghan.....	18

“Sam Blackburn, having received a majority of the

votes cast, is elected president of the Junior Citizens Club," said the teacher, "and he will now come forward and take the chair."

Sam Blackburn came forward, and the teacher gave up her seat to him. Then the president called for the election of a vice president in the same manner in which he himself had been elected. The election of a secretary and treasurer followed in order.



· OFFICERS OF A CIVICS CLUB

After the election of officers, the president appointed the members of the Visiting Committee, Improvement Committee, and Entertainment Committee, and asked them to report at the next meeting of the club.

A general talk then took place as to the way in which the club could best further the study of civics. The teacher gave her views, and several of the students spoke. It was decided that committees should report

daily on the special topics at the end of each lesson in the textbook. These committees were to be appointed by the president with the aid of the teacher. It was also agreed that committees should work out practical projects suggested in the book.

The president called for a motion to adjourn. The motion was made, seconded, and carried, and the president declared the Junior Citizens Club adjourned until the next meeting.

ORGANIZING YOUR CLUB

- I. Appoint committees to report on the following:
 - Name of the organization.
 - Object of the club.
 - Constitution and Pledge.
 - Slogans.
 - Time and place of meetings.
- II. Report of the committees. (The teacher will hold the chair until the permanent organization is completed.)
- III. Election of officers by ballot.

CHAPTER II

WHAT A COMMUNITY IS

Problems: (1) To learn what a community is; and (2) to find out all you can about the early history of your community.

Robinson Crusoe.—Suppose you were the only person on an island: would you be happy? You know you would not, for you would be lonely and in constant fear that some wild beast or savage man would kill you. You have read the story of Robinson Crusoe, who was shipwrecked on a lonely island in the Pacific Ocean. He had to do everything for himself, since there was no one to help him. He built a house; killed goats and dried their flesh; fashioned furniture; molded pots from clay; and made from goatskins a hat, a suit of clothes, leggings, and an umbrella.

His Own Master.—Robinson had all the necessities of life and he was master of his island. He could do as he liked all the time. He rose in the morning when it pleased him and spent the day as he chose. He cut down as many trees as he wished and killed goats whenever he felt like going shooting. He had no taxes to pay, no rent, no grocery and clothing bills. Yet he was unhappy because he was alone. As the years passed, his desire for the sight of a human face and the sound of a human voice grew almost unbearable.

Footprints in the Sand.—One day while he was walking along the seashore, Robinson suddenly came

across the footprints of a man in the sand. He stopped, almost overcome by his feelings. There was another man—or men—on the island! He knew that they must be savages, and so enemies to himself, and yet the very presence of other people on his lonely isle filled his heart anew with the thirst for human companionship. Some time later he saw several canoes approaching the shore. A number of savages landed, carrying with them two prisoners. One of these was killed and cut up to eat. The other, before he could be put to death, made a dash for freedom. He ran toward the spot where Robinson lay hidden in the bushes, followed by two of his captors. Robinson made up his mind to help the fleeing savage. He knocked down one of the pursuers and killed the other with a shot from his gun.

Friday.—The captive fell on his knees on the sand to show his gratitude for his rescue. Then he spoke some words in a language that Robinson did not understand. Sweeter sounds never came to Robinson's ears. At last, after years of loneliness, he heard a human voice and felt the comfort of human companionship. He took the man to live with him and named him Friday, because he had come on that day of the week.

A Community Formed.—The coming of Friday changed Robinson Crusoe's life. Why was this? There was some one to be with, to talk to, and to work alongside. As the Bible says, man was not made to live alone: he was made to live with others. Something else followed from Friday's coming. Robinson Crusoe had to think of another besides himself. Before

Friday came he could do as he chose, but now he had to consider his companion's rights and interests as well as his own—otherwise, he and Friday could not have lived together. What resulted from Friday's coming was that a *community* was formed. True, it was the smallest possible community—only two men—but it was a community, because each had to help the other.



A PIONEER'S HOME

Coöperation is the essential feature of any community: it is the cement that binds the parts together.

Jamestown and Plymouth.—The story of Robinson Crusoe is fiction, but the history of the early colonists who settled our country shows that men must live in communities—that this is the natural mode of living. Suppose the settlers who landed at Jamestown and Plymouth had at once gone out as separate families

into the forest. What would have become of them? They would have perished from hunger or from attacks of Indians. So at first they lived together in settlements, and in this way subdued the forest, conquered disease and famine, and kept the savages at bay. Even when they scattered, they had a community organization binding together the settlers in a region. The colonists in Virginia called their communities “hun-



A COLONIAL HOME

dreds,” and the New England settlers named theirs “towns.”

Community Life.—From the study of history we learn that it is natural and necessary for people to live in communities. It is because of this fact that they have risen from savagery to a state of civilization. There could be no farms, factories, railroads, stores, churches, and schools if men did not dwell and work

together. Because people live in communities, they have learned to observe certain agreements that are for the good of all. These we call *laws*, and the power that enforces laws we call *government*. The community you know is your neighborhood. Go to the top of a tall building or high hill, and your community spreads out before you with its homes, roads, streets, churches, stores, and schoolhouses. Farther than the eye can see lie larger communities of which you are also a citizen—your city, county, state, and nation.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the things you would like to show a visitor to your community.
2. Write the names of the men and women from your community who have played a prominent part in the building of our nation.
3. Find out from histories or from old people facts about the first settlement of your community: from what place (or places) the settlers came; why they moved; and how they made the journey.
4. Describe the difference between your community as it is now and as it was in the days of your grandfather.
5. Tell: (a) what a citizen receives from his community; (b) how he can help his community.
6. Let each club member bring in writing on a slip of paper one answer to the following question, "How Can We Help Our Community?" Write the five best answers on the blackboard.

CHAPTER III

DIFFERENT KINDS OF COMMUNITIES

Problems: (1) To study the different kinds of communities; and (2) to learn about the spirit that makes each community a success.

The First Community.—The community formed by Robinson Crusoe was accidental—that is, it was the result of the meeting of two lonely men on a desert isle. But the first community that all of us know is a natural one—the home. Wherever a father, mother, and child live together is a home.

Rights of Home.—Friday had certain rights that Robinson Crusoe was obliged to respect; and in the same way the child in the home has rights. You have the right to good food, good training, good surroundings, and other advantages, which your parents gladly give you. However, what the home teaches primarily is that *every* member of the little community has rights which it is necessary to observe. You have the right to play in the fresh air as much as you wish. But if some one lies ill near your playground, you will go elsewhere to play or not play at all for the time: to make a noise near a sick person is to disregard the rights of others. In the home father, mother, and child have rights, and the proper observance of these rights is the first step to be learned in the larger coöperation of life.

Home Old as the Race.—The home is as old as

the human race. Ages ago, before men were civilized and lived in houses or even tents, when their dwelling places were nothing but caves, they lived in families and had homes. The home has remained ever since, through the thousands of years of human progress, as the greatest institution of humanity, the base on which everything else rests.

What Has Grown Out of Homes.—In early times,



Copyright. Publishers Photo Service

A COMFORTABLE COUNTRY HOME

before the beginning of civilization, each home was a little community all to itself, ruled by the father. Then a number of families combined to form a tribe, which elected some one to be chief. Later, a number of tribes united to form a little city. This process of combining tribes and cities has gone on ever since, until there have come into being the great empires and republics of today.

Government Springs from the Home.—The first government was that of the home itself. But at a very early period men found that they could not live to themselves, with their families. They had to come together for mutual benefit. Before there were any laws and rulers, the men of a locality would meet and talk over matters of common concern. Perhaps disputes over land were to be settled. Perhaps the cattle of one man had been seized by another. Perhaps enemies were troubling the neighborhood and there was need of defense against them. For the protection of all, the families in a neighborhood—most of them relatives—would combine to form a larger community, putting some man or men at the head. They would agree to do or not to do certain things, and these agreements came in time to be called *laws*.

The Church.—Families united for other reasons besides mutual protection. Even in very early times the tribes came together for worship, and neighborhoods have gone on ever since meeting in churches. The church is an important community. It teaches the relation of God to man and right living, but in the past it did much more than this. A few generations ago the majority of people could not read or write. They depended on preachers, who were educated men, to teach them by means of sermons. Many people obtained their whole knowledge of history, politics, geography, and other subjects by attending church. In public meetings the preacher played a leading part because he was well informed. No matter how poor and ignorant a neighborhood might be, there was almost always a Bible in it and some people able to

read the Bible. The laws and moral ideas of the Hebrews thus became the rule of conduct for Europe and America.

The School.—In still another way families meet to form a community—a community much newer than home and church. The school is a community formed by the union of families. Formerly, in the country,



A COUNTRY SCHOOL

the school was a small community because bad roads made it impossible for the children to come long distances to school. But with modern good roads, there have arisen *consolidated* schools, which have large buildings and a considerable number of students. Because of this consolidation, it is possible for country children to have wider opportunities in study and in play.

Teamwork in School.—The school itself includes smaller communities. Members of baseball and football and basket-ball teams are parts of little communities, for they are persons working, or rather playing, together for a common end. Teamwork, or coöperation, is the essence of success in athletics as in many other affairs of life. Students who learn teamwork not only play games better; they do better work in the schoolroom and they feel a common interest in the welfare of the school. They try to make the school, outside and inside, a more attractive place in which to live, and they sometimes have a newspaper in which to record the various activities of the school community.

County and Town.—These first communities—the home, the church, the school—serve to introduce us to the larger communities of which we are also members. The study of civics deals with these larger communities—political communities—of which every man and every woman are parts. The first of the political communities with which we come in contact is the county or the town. The *county* is a community made up of all the farms and villages and stores and churches—with the people—in a certain part of a state. The *town* or *city* is the community made up of all the people living within the limits of a group of houses large enough to form a town or city.

The State.—The next political community is the *state*. A number of counties, cities and towns form a state, which is a community of importance. The state makes most of the laws under which we live. Most courts which interpret the laws are state

courts. The state officers who enforce the laws come in contact with everybody in one way or another. In nearly all the relations of life we touch the state and its government.

The Nation.—The largest community of which we are members is the *nation*. The American nation is made up of forty-eight states and the District of Columbia. The nation makes certain laws under which we live and attends to our relations with foreign nations. The well-being of all the citizens of our country is dependent on the wisdom with which the national affairs are conducted. This is the reason that it is so important to have a good *President* and a competent *Congress*.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Give a brief account of the growth of the home and tell how government springs from it.
2. Discuss in class this question: Should children receive a weekly allowance for chores done at home? (See page 302.)
3. Organize your club into committees to do the following tasks:
 - Keep the floor clean and free of paper.
 - Beautify the walls.
 - Purchase pictures.
 - Beautify the school grounds by cleaning up and planting trees and flowers.
 - Make money to buy books for a library.
 - Make the school more healthful.
4. Make a list of all the communities of which you are a member. Explain why the following are communities: a baseball team; a school; a home.
5. Show how your neighborhood community helps other communities.
6. Show how communities in other parts of the state and nation help your community.

CHAPTER IV

THE PLAYGROUND

Problems: (1) To study organization as shown in the playground; and (2) to organize some kind of team.

Organization.—The best place in which to learn organization is in your play. You have found that when you play games you must have government, unless the play is to be mere romping. Without rules you cannot play any game, because you do not know what may and what may not be done in the course of the game. All coöperation depends on such rules.

Rules in Games.—Boys' games are played according to strict rules. The game of marbles even employs a term used in law, for a boy sometimes says "venue" when he wishes to gain a certain advantage, and unless he says "venue" before another boy can say it he loses the advantage. Most girls' games also have rules that must be observed carefully; indeed, children pay more attention to them than grown people.

Baseball.—It is, however, in the leading athletic games, such as baseball, football, basket ball, and hockey, that the importance of regulations is seen. There are many rules in baseball, and they must be known to the umpire. The umpire is the person who decides what happens in each play and enforces the rules. If the umpire is not obeyed the game breaks up, because the same play cannot be decided in two ways. If the umpire says that a batter is out at first base,

the decision must be accepted, even if it is wrong. Usually the umpire is right; we go ahead on the principle that he is, because if we act on any other plan there can be no government of the game.

Football.—The rules of football are even more numerous and rigid than those of baseball. Thus, one cannot tackle or seize hold of anyone but the boy



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

HARVARD PRACTICING FOR THE VARSITY ELEVEN

with the ball, cannot run out of bounds, and in making a forward pass must observe a number of things. The principal official of a football game is the referee; he decides when a play is ended and when the penalties for making mistakes should be applied. Two linesmen determine whether or not the required distance has been made in the number of plays allowed.

The Captain.—The playing of baseball and football is under the control of captains. Every baseball, football, or basket-ball team has its captain, who governs it. The captain makes up his mind as to what boys, or girls, are to be on the team and what style of game is to be played. In football, the quarterback decides what plays are to be made while the game is going on, because he is the player who gives the signals. The team is taught to know and obey the signals, and if one of the players fails to attend to them the result is disastrous to his side. The eleven which has good teamwork usually beats an opposing eleven which has finer players but poorer teamwork. In fact, the game of football is a most excellent training in organization. The boy who plays football learns from it the value of government better than in almost any other way, because the good lessons we learn while we are enjoying ourselves are the best lessons of all. We see what they mean to us.

Choosing the Captain.—At the end of every season a football team chooses a captain for the next season. Who is chosen—a fractious boy? Never. The men who coach, or train, the team have a voice in the election of the captain, and they always want a boy who knows how to work with others. The boy who can do this will be the best one to teach other boys coöperation—and that means success in football as in most of the other things of life. The captain must be a good player, or the other players will not respect him. He must, too, be a leader—that is, he must know how to make others follow his leadership. He must be an honorable boy, one in whom the other boys feel

confidence, or else they will not believe that he is fair in choosing the players to make up the team. In football the rule of merit must apply; otherwise good players will give up the effort to get on the team. This choosing of the captain is the first step that boys and girls take in government. You are called on to vote for the baseball, football, or basket-ball captain now, and when you grow up you will be called on to vote for the officers of the government. The judgment you develop in helping to choose the right captain will aid you in later life in selecting the right governor, or Congressman, or President.

Sacrifices of Play.—Sometimes boys and girls are called on to make sacrifices in games. Perhaps a girl has to give up her place on the basket-ball team because another girl has become a better player and will help the team more. President Roosevelt on one occasion did honor to a football player for the fine spirit of sacrifice he showed in a Harvard-Yale game. One of the Harvard halfbacks had played splendidly through both halves of a hard-fought game: largely by his efforts the ball had been brought close to the Yale goal posts. But the game was near the end and would result in a tie unless Harvard could kick a field goal. Then the halfback who had played so well was taken out of the game in order to make way for another player who could kick goals. He went without a word of remonstrance, and the newcomer kicked a goal and won the game. The sacrifice of the first player made victory possible.

Freedom in Play.—Organization does not mean the doing away with freedom, either at home or in play.

In homes where there is organization, the children have more time for themselves than in houses where there is constant quarreling, where meals are not on time, and where the children do not go to bed and get up at regular hours. In the same way, the football player who coöperates loyally with his team mates has more freedom than the player who does not. The very fact that he plays in harmony with ten other boys, and helps them and is helped by them, gives him a chance to do things he otherwise could not hope to do. It is by teamwork that the ball is advanced toward the goal, near enough for the watchful player to seize his opportunity. Then, suddenly, he is thrown the ball and is free to do his best behind the screen of fellow players who protect him and are called his "interference." He is free to make a touchdown and win the game, when without teamwork, or coöperation, he could accomplish nothing.

The Benefits of Play.—There are great benefits to be derived from play: the development of character and the strengthening of the body. There are other good things besides. Play trains for later life. Most boys who play games well and learn the value of organization do well in after life—often they do much better than brilliant students. The reason for this is that they know how to do their best under hard circumstances, how to work with others, and how to stand rough knocks. Play also develops judgment, good will, sportsmanship, and a sense of justice and honesty. The world is not an easy place to succeed in: it demands all of the qualities mentioned—coöperation, hard work, and endurance particularly. If you learn

these things at play, you have learned most valuable lessons.

Playgrounds.—Once upon a time people paid little attention to playgrounds for children. That was before they realized the great importance of play in the life of a child and his training. Today we sometimes fear that children will not get enough play. We have learned that happy, healthy children will make happy, healthy men and women, and that in depriving them of fresh air and plenty of play we are depriving them of their birthright.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of games which can be played in your section in summer; in winter.
2. If you have no baseball, football, basket-ball, or hockey teams, organize one or more of them now.
3. Make plans for raising money for these teams.
4. Suggest games suited to a lower grade and help teach the boys and girls of that grade how to play them.
5. Make fields or courts for games.
6. Write good cheers and songs for your team.
7. Make a large poster on which members of teams will sign their names.
8. Make a list of the recreations provided by your community.
9. Go to the front of the room and speak for two minutes on your favorite game, giving your reason for preferring it.

CHAPTER V

COURAGE AND FAIR PLAY

Problems: (1) To discuss courage and fair play; and (2) to tell of instances of fair play in your school life.

Courage.—Both physical and moral courage can be learned, in a high degree, on the playground. It requires bravery to be a good football player. It takes courage to dive at the man running with the ball, and it demands courage to run with the ball when you know that you will be tackled and thrown to the ground. This is physical courage. Moral courage comes in not losing heart when the odds seem against you. Often a football team is beaten before the game begins, because of its fear of the other team. We should make up our minds to play our best and refuse to acknowledge defeat beforehand, no matter what the odds may be.

Moral Courage in Play.—A good example of moral courage was shown by a Harvard football team in a Harvard-Yale game a few years ago. Yale had won all of its previous games; Harvard had had a bad season. Almost everybody thought that Yale would win easily, but the Harvard players refused to be beaten beforehand. When the contest began, it was evident that the Yale players were heavier and stronger; they made great gains at first. But Harvard always rallied when the danger seemed greatest and held Yale from its goal line. The first half passed, the second half was

nearing an end, and still the weaker Harvard team was not beaten and the stronger Yale team was not the victor. Then, suddenly, something happened. The lightest and frailest player on the field, the Harvard quarterback, made a great run that changed the whole course of the game. Harvard turned from the defensive to the offensive, stormed across Yale's goal line and won the game. It was a triumph of "gameness," gained because the team which everybody expected to lose resolved on victory and won.

Patrick Henry.—There is another and harder kind of moral courage, and that consists in doing what you think to be right when the crowd is against you. It sometimes happens in life that the crowd is against you—that the majority is mistaken. A great example of moral courage was shown by Patrick Henry in 1765, in the Virginia House of Burgesses. The English Parliament had put a tax on the American colonies. The Americans felt that the tax was wrong, but a majority in the House of Burgesses also thought that it would be wrong to refuse to pay the tax. Then Patrick Henry arose and declared that the tax was tyranny and should not be paid, that the king of England was a bad ruler. It took both moral and physical courage to do that. The House of Burgesses might have looked on Henry as a traitor; the British government might have hanged him. As it was, his courage and oratory carried the House of Burgesses with him; the majority agreed with him, and the American Revolution began.

Need of Moral Courage.—The need of moral courage is no less now than then. Our country at the present time faces dangers of many kinds. If it rises above

them, it will be because we are brave and dutiful. We must learn to be brave in civic matters—to oppose cheating and waste and the election of bad men to office. We must learn to vote as we think right, even if it is sometimes to our disadvantage. We must learn to put what we believe to be the good of the country above all other things. If we do this, the future of America will be great and glorious.

Need of Fair Play.—There is another quality needed in civics, as in all other affairs of life, and that is a sense of fair play. We must be just to others. To do this takes courage. The coward seldom believes in it or practices it. We may say that fair play is the motto of our country: always the United States has stood for that. The republic was founded on the great idea of seeing that everybody gets justice. In the relations of this country with foreign powers, we have always contended for fair play. We have fought for it, and, if necessary, we will fight for it again.

Fair Play on the Playground.—The way to learn fair play is on the playground. There are always opportunities to cheat in games or to do something that is not quite right. If you are playing football, you will be tempted to “hold” an opposing player, which is wrong. If you are running the bases in a baseball game, you will be tempted to cut them if you think the umpire is not looking. Make up your mind to lose rather than do these things. The great law of life is *Play the game by the rules*.

A Fair Play Story.—Owen Johnson, in one of his stories, has given a fine example of fair play and also of moral courage. Two football teams in a school were

playing for the school championship. Dink Stover, one of the boys, had expected to play, but instead he was made a linesman—that is, one of the officials of the game. Both teams played well and the contest was hard fought. Stover was wild to see his own team win, the team on which he hoped to play next time. In the last moments of play the opposing team made a touch-



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

A STRUGGLE AT THE GOAL

down, tying the score. Then the goal was kicked, but there was doubt whether it was really a goal. Everything depended on this. If a goal had been kicked, Stover's team was beaten; if it had not, the game was a tie. This is what followed:

“No goal,” said Slugger Jones, the umpire. “Time's up!”

The other team, the Woodhull, began to dispute the decision. Slugger Jones, surrounded by the mass of shouting

boys, began to take the vote of the officials. The referee and the linesman for the Woodhull both said that it was a goal. Then the question was put to Stover for decision.

“Dink, was it a goal or no goal?”

Stover suddenly found himself in a whirling, angry mass—the decision of the game in his own hands. He saw the faces of Tough McCarty and the Coffee-Colored Angel in the crowd about him and he saw the sneer on their faces as they waited for his answer. Then he saw the faces of his own team mates and knew what they, in their frenzy, expected from him.

He hesitated.

“Goal or no goal?” cried the umpire, for the second time.

Then suddenly, face to face with the hostile mass, the fighting blood came to Dink. Something cold went up his back. He looked once more above the riot, to the shadowy posts, and then, with a snap to his jaws, he answered:

“Goal!”

Thus Dink Stover, risking unpopularity, stood for fair play.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Give instances of moral and physical courage shown on your playground.

2. Tell stories you have read of moral and physical courage.

3. Discuss “fair play” in the following cases:

When a big boy fights a little one.

When a number of boys haze one boy.

When an outsider is put on a school team.

CHAPTER VI

WORK AND COÖPERATION

Problems: (1) To study the growth of occupations; and (2) to learn the value of coöperation.

Robinson Crusoe on his island home had to do everything for himself: he was a hunter, gunsmith, carpenter, potter, cook, tailor, hat maker, shoemaker, and he did many other things. Having no one to help him, he had to be a Jack-of-all-trades.

Colonial Life.—What was true of Robinson Crusoe was true of the whole world once, before people learned to coöperate. This was true even in the United States, in the colonial period. Every farm or plantation produced nearly everything that the people living on it needed. All the food was raised on the place or killed in hunting. The wool was clipped from the sheep; and carded, spun on a spinning-wheel, woven into cloth, and the cloth cut and sewed into clothes by the women of the plantation. The ironwork was also done on the place; and bullets were molded out of lead by the children. All that the people had to buy were powder and lead and tea. Everything else was supplied by the farm or plantation. There were not many physicians in those days; the women of the family doctored the sick with medicines made from herbs. Bad teeth were pulled with strings. Often there were no churches, and then the head of the family sometimes held prayers. Nearly all the



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood
(41) OLD METHOD OF SPINNING

functions of life were performed on the farm or plantation itself.

Modern Life.—Why do we not live in this way to-day? Because we have come to see that the old manner of living is wasteful. If a man has to do a dozen things, he cannot give time enough to any one activity to



MAKING COTTAGE CHEESE

become expert in it. We have learned that we can accomplish more by doing one thing to the best of our ability and by depending on other people to do other things for us. Thus one man becomes a farmer and gives all of his time and attention to raising cotton or wheat and corn. When he wants shoes, he sells a part of his farm products and buys them. When he has

need of a doctor or dentist, he sells something and goes to town to be treated. The shoemaker does nothing but make shoes, and by doing this for the farmer he gets flour and meat. Likewise, the doctor and dentist, by treating the farmer, earn their food. When the farmer wishes amusement, he takes some of the money



MAKING LARD

he receives for his wheat and goes to a moving-picture show. The moving pictures are made by managers and actors who spend their whole time in doing this one thing, relying on the farmer to give them food in exchange for entertainment.

Coöperation.—In this way, everybody in the community who makes an honest living helps everybody

else. By such coöperation the community thrives. The blacksmith who shoes horses and repairs farming implements helps the farmer in his work of growing food. The clothing factory makes clothes for him; the shoe factory makes shoes for him; the lawyer protects his property; the doctor and dentist attend to his health; the moving pictures furnish amusement; the preacher cares for his soul. The farmer provides food and the raw material of clothing for everybody else in the community, and everybody else does something for the farmer in return.

The Law of Service.—You will see from this that everyone who makes an honest living does good to other people—he performs some service for others. This is the beautiful law of service. While you are earning a living and gaining property for yourself, you are at the same time helping your fellow men. You are feeding them, or clothing them, or curing them, or amusing them, or elevating them, or helping them in some other way.

Idleness.—In every community there are people who will not work—that is, will not perform any service for other people. There are young men who lounge around country stores, or pool rooms in towns and cities. There are young women who never learn to do any useful work, such as cooking and sewing, but spend all of their time in seeking pleasure. These persons wish to live without doing anything; they wish to have food and clothes and shelter given them by others without giving anything to others in return. We say that they *consume* and do not *produce*. Such persons are of little worth to their communities.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the occupations in your community. Tell what preparation is needed for each.

2. List the occupations which you consider most useful to the community.

3. Answer these questions:

What occupation do you expect to take up when you are through school? What are you doing to get ready for it? What studies will help you prepare for it?

Why does a stenographer get a higher salary than a waitress?

Why should a rich young man engage in business or other work rather than spend his time in idleness?

4. Find out whether there are any coöperative markets in operation in your section. If there are, tell all you can about them.

5. Trace the growth of some of our industries, as, for instance, the making of cloth.

6. Write a short paper on "What I Wish to Do When I am Grown."

CHAPTER VII

A HEALTH LESSON

Problems: (1) To study health conditions of the community; and (2) to plan ways of improving them.

A Typhoid Story.—Mary Cardwell was a bright sixth grade schoolgirl living in the village of Pleasant View. Late in the summer she was stricken with typhoid fever and for many days her life was despaired of. She finally recovered from the fever but was several months in regaining her health and strength. When she re-entered school in the first week of November, she found herself far behind her classmates. At the end of the term, Mary failed for the first time in her school life.

Cause of Illness.—Why did Mary have typhoid? Nobody knew at first, because the water supply of the village was good and there had been no epidemic of fever. Finally, an inspector sent by the state board of health came to Pleasant View and spent two days working on the case. He succeeded in tracing the fever to the farm of a small dairyman who supplied Mary's family with milk. The dairyman's daughter was ill with the fever at the time of the inspector's visit and died soon after. The inspector found everything about the dairy farm dirty and illy kept. The house was not screened against flies; the stable was in a filthy condition, and one of the boys on the place milked the cows without washing his hands. The

result of such carelessness was that the farmer's daughter was taken with typhoid fever and Mary Cardwell contracted it from the same source. But for the inspector's visit, many more people might have been stricken.

Community Health.—This case will give you some idea of the importance of health regulations for the protection of the community. In old days, there were no health rules, and then smallpox, typhoid fever, and diphtheria visited whole towns and counties, causing many deaths. Nowadays there are laws for health protection, and all cities have health officers to enforce them. The counties do not always have health officers of their own, but the state board of health does a great work in making known to the country people the means of preventing disease. In cities there are regulations for protecting the milk supply and inspectors to enforce them. Persons violating the regulations are punished. Dairies are kept clean and the milk is put in bottles, which must be scalded before being used again. Milkers must wash their hands before milking. Houses where cases of contagious diseases exist, together with their occupants, are quarantined. In many cities the water supply is treated with chemicals or filtered, in order to prevent typhoid fever. Children are vaccinated against smallpox. In the great influenza epidemic of 1918, schools, churches, and theaters were closed to prevent the spread of the disease.

Health Departments.—We have seen that cities, and sometimes counties, have health departments and these departments make and enforce rules about

quarantines, the water supply, plumbing, trash and garbage, stables and pigpens, and about other health matters. In some communities the health board employs physicians, school and visiting nurses, inspectors, chemists and bacteriologists to protect the public health and give aid to sick people who have not adequate means to care for themselves. There is much less sick-



STORY TELLING AT A CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL

ness and death in such communities than in others where less attention is paid to health. In some cities mothers are given instruction in the feeding and care of babies, in order to prevent the many deaths that would otherwise occur. In all cities of any size, there are hospitals for the treatment of sick people at public expense. All of the states have departments of health, which care for the health of the people. If a certain

disease, such as typhoid, breaks out in a section of the state, an inspector is sent to search for the cause. Cases of contagious diseases are studied, and epidemics are carefully looked into in order to prevent other outbreaks. Tons of literature are sent out to the people of the state telling them how to keep from having typhoid, hookworm, and other diseases. Diphtheria



MODERN HEALTH CRUSADERS GIVING A PLAY

and anti-typhoid vaccine are sometimes given free of charge. No department of the state government is busier than the board of health, and no money that the people pay in taxes is better expended. Money spent on disease prevention earns a return a thousand times over.

Modern Health Crusade.—Many people are deeply

interested in spreading information regarding health and in teaching children good health habits. The Modern Health Crusade was organized to carry on this great work. Have you joined it? Millions of children are members of the organization, which teaches them how to care for their bodies. Here are the "Health Chores," to be done each day by all those who become Modern Health Crusaders:

1. I washed my hands before each meal today and before handling food prepared for eating.

2. I gave thorough attention to personal cleanliness today. I endeavored to keep both myself and my immediate surroundings neat.

3. I kept out of my mouth and nose today every object that I have reason to consider unclean or injurious to my health.

4. I brushed my teeth thoroughly before breakfast and after the evening meal today.

5. I took ten or more slow, deep breaths of fresh air today. If I spit, coughed, or sneezed, I was careful to protect others.

6. I had more than thirty minutes of muscular exercise or active play outdoors or with windows open today.

7. I was in bed (^{eight}/_{nine}) hours or more last night and kept my windows open.

8. I drank six glasses of water today, including one before each meal. I drank nothing that I have reason to consider injurious to my health.

9. I was careful today (1) to eat only wholesome foods, meeting the varied requirements of nutrition and promoting proper bowel action; (2) to chew thoroughly; and (3) to attend to each need of my body at its regular time.

10. I endeavored today to maintain a straight posture, standing and sitting; to keep my thoughts clean, cheerful, courageous, and constructive; and to be helpful to others.

11. I took a full bath on each of those days of the week that are checked (X).

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss some rules made by the health department of your community.

2. Name some diseases that are quarantined in your community.

3. Mention some rules a consumptive should follow for the protection of those with whom he lives and works.

4. Appoint a committee to inspect the school premises and report on how the health of the pupils can be better protected.

5. Appoint a committee to gather newspaper clippings relating to the health of the community. Post these clippings on the bulletin board.

6. Let each member of the class tell of one thing he has done to make his home more healthful.

7. Get the secretary of your Junior Citizens Club to write to the National Tuberculosis Association, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York City, for full particulars about the Modern Health Crusade and see if your club will not vote in favor of introducing it in your class.

8. Decide what steps should be taken when unsanitary conditions are found in your community.

CHAPTER VIII

THRIFT

Problems: (1) To study the benefits of thrift; and (2) to establish a school savings bank.

Waste.—A feature of the savage the world over is *improvidence*. “Eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow you die,” is his motto. When the savage kills game, he gorges himself so that he can hardly move; he seldom puts away any of the food for winter and hard times. When winter comes he starves. Even in the most civilized communities there are people who are as thriftless as savages. They spend all the money they get on the desire of the moment and make no provision for the “rainy day.” Then when trouble comes they are dependent on the charity of their neighbors. Such people are not entirely civilized. They still have the savage’s improvidence. What distinguishes civilization above all other things is its vast *capital*, and capital is simply wealth, or money that has been saved. All the buildings you see, and all the other property, are the result of saving. When you look at a great skyscraper, remember that it could never have been constructed if people had not saved the money to build it. The railroad you travel on was also built by savings, and the same thing is true of all the houses, factories, and steamships. The tallest building in the world, the Woolworth Building in New York, resulted from the savings of the owner of

a chain of five and ten cent stores. In some parts of the world there are no railways, no churches, no factories, no schoolhouses, or any of the other comforts of our life. The reason for this condition is the people in that part of the world have not produced and saved wealth. They are satisfied with what nature gives them and do not seek to make money and keep it. Needless to say, these regions are ignorant and backward.

Savings Banks.—The man who saves is a help to the community. It is not enough to make money; we must save it. If the people in a town have earned ten thousand dollars in a week and if a circus comes on Saturday and carries away the greater part of the ten thousand dollars, the town is little better off as a result of that week's work. But if the ten thousand dollars goes into savings banks, it will remain in the town and bring a return to the owners.

A School Savings System.—Have you a savings account? If you have not, you should lose no time in opening one. The boy or girl who does not learn to save in school will not be likely to save afterward. Such habits are formed in youth or not at all. Hundreds of schools have put in savings systems. Each student who opens an account is given a pass book or card in which is entered his deposits as he makes them. The money is placed in a bank and interest is paid on the deposits. Have you a savings system in your school? If you have not, discuss the matter at the next meeting of the Junior Citizens Club and appoint a committee to work out a scheme for a savings system. The great advantage of the school savings plan is that

a student may deposit any amount—cents, nickels, and dimes—while in regular savings banks the smallest amount accepted in opening an account is a dollar.

Postal Savings.—Another good way of saving is to invest in Postal Savings. Postal Savings stamps are sold at post offices by the United States government. A stamp costs ten cents. When the buyer has pasted



CHILDREN DEPOSITING IN A SCHOOL SAVINGS BANK

ten stamps on a Postal Savings Card, he can exchange the card for one Treasury Savings Stamp. This stamp is pasted on a Treasury Savings Card, which has spaces for twenty stamps. When this is filled, the buyer may receive twenty dollars or exchange it for a Treasury Savings Certificate worth twenty-five dollars in five years.

Thrift Maxims.—The great men of the world have

usually understood the value of thrift and practiced it. The following are a few of their sayings on this subject:

Economy makes happy homes and sound nations. Instill it deep.—GEORGE WASHINGTON.

The way to wealth is as plain as the way to market. It chiefly depends on two words—industry, frugality.—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Teach economy. That is one of the first and highest virtues. It begins with saving money.—ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

The man who does not and cannot save money cannot and will not do anything else worth while.—ANDREW CARNEGIE.

Make all you can; save all you can; give all you can.—JOHN WESLEY.

Thrift is such a simple thing—and it means so much. It is the foundation of success in business, of contentment in the house, of standing in society.—RUSSELL SAGE.

No boy ever becomes great as a man who did not, in his youth, learn to save money.—JOHN WANAMAKER.

If the young man ever expects to succeed in business he must be economical. No matter how small the sum the boy or young man is receiving, he should always save a portion of his income.—HENRY C. LYTTON.

It's hard for an empty bag to stand upright.—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Mention different ways by which boys and girls may earn money.
2. Discuss this problem: Mary who is twelve years old is given an allowance of fifty cents a week. Tell how much she should spend per week for the following items:

Amusements.

Church and Sunday school.

Charity.

Savings account.

3. Make plans for establishing a savings bank in your school.

CHAPTER IX

THE GOOD CITIZEN

Problems: To find out (1) what are the qualities of a good citizen; and (2) how you may be one now.

The Boy or Girl Citizen.—Can a boy or girl be a good citizen? Yes, you can be a good citizen now. Here are some of the things boys and girls may do. Study them carefully and see if you can give a reason why each of them helps you to be a good citizen:

The good citizen takes care of his health.

He is clean in person and neat in dress.

He exercises self-control.

He is law-abiding.

He is generous.

He loves fair play.

He practices thrift.

He is courteous to classmates.

He works with and for his group.

He is honest, truthful, and courageous.

The Citizen at School.—In your school life you will have a daily opportunity to become a good citizen. You can show consideration for others by entering the school building quietly and by doing nothing in the schoolroom to interfere with the rights of your classmates. You can take part in all class activities and learn how to coöperate with others. On the play-

ground you will have many chances to develop teamwork and to stand for fair play.

Qualities of Good Citizenship.—The good citizen has the following primary virtues: ability to coöperate, industry, honesty, and thrift. These are very necessary qualities, and because the majority of Americans possess them the United States is the greatest country on earth. But another quality is needed in the make-up of the good citizen. Industry, honesty, and thrift have to do with our own immediate concerns: they are the qualities we use in our daily work, in dealing with the people with whom we come in contact. The one other thing needful in the good citizen is the performance of *public duty*. Public duty is the duty one owes to all the members of the community—the community of the town or county, the state and the nation.

Voting.—There are duties we owe the government as well as the body of our fellow men. These duties are called *political* duties. Nobody is a thoroughly good citizen, no matter how honest and industrious he is, who neglects such duties. The reason for this is that bad men will come to control the government if good men fail to take interest in it. Sometimes you may hear a man say that he will not vote, that he will have nothing to do with politics. But whether he does or does not have anything to do with politics, politics will have something to do with him. The welfare and happiness of all depend, in no small degree, on the kind of government we have. We cannot have a good government when citizens are careless. This is a danger at the present time. There are thousands of



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

VOTING BY BALLOT BOX

(58)

educated people who neglect to take any part in the government of the country. They pay no attention to public questions and they do not vote: they are shirkers. To read about public questions in the newspapers is somewhat troublesome, but it is a duty that every citizen of a free country owes that country. When you get old enough to vote, inform yourself upon the questions of the day, register your name, and pay your poll tax. Then vote in every election.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Name some other virtues which a good citizen ought to possess in addition to those listed in the lesson.

2. Tell how books, magazines, and newspapers help to make good citizens.

3. Discuss in class these questions:

Can an ignorant person be a good citizen?

Is a grown person who fails to vote a good citizen?

4. Prepare a class poster for your schoolroom setting forth the most important virtues to be possessed by boys and girls who are good citizens. The poster may be made by inviting each pupil to prepare a poster or by the appointment of committees. The poster should be approved by vote of the class before being posted.

CHAPTER X

OUR CITY

Problems: (1) To study your city (or the nearest city); and (2) to discuss plans for making a "City Beautiful."

The Manufacturing Section.—Let us take a ride over a city. We will first go into the manufacturing section. Here we see a great factory from which comes the steady hum of machinery. Perhaps it is an iron works, and the flash from the forges gleams through the windows. Perhaps it is a shoe factory, and we hear the clatter of the sewing machines. There are factories of many sorts in this part of the city, each of them contributing to the wealth of the community.

Office Buildings.—Let us turn now into the office-building section. Here we pass skyscrapers filled with the offices of business men and lawyers, and the street swarms with hurrying people bent on making a living for their families. Here, too, are the banks, and crowds of men and women are going in and coming out of them. This section is the real heart of the city, the place where the business is done that brings prosperity to the community.

The Shopping District.—Next we go to the shopping district. Here we see few men but crowds of women. This is the most attractive part of the city. The streets are lined with shops displaying every kind of goods. Now and then we come to a great department store, with immense plate-glass windows, running the length

of a block. If it is near Christmas, this is the busiest part of the town, for people are buying Christmas gifts. Everywhere there are toys and candy and the other things that children like.

The City Hall.—The city hall is the home of the city government—the city capitol. Here the officers of the local government have their offices, and here are the courts. People come to the city hall to pay taxes, to get permits for various purposes, to record



THE JOHN HANDLEY PUBLIC SCHOOLS, WINCHESTER, VA.

deeds, and for all the other reasons that bring them into contact with the government.

The Residential Section.—Leaving the business section, we ride past large hotels into the residential portion of the city. Here we see street after street of dwelling houses, some of them neat and small, some of them fine and large. Now and then we come to a park offering recreation and a breathing space in the wilderness of houses. From time to time we see a schoolhouse, and if we are strangers in the city we will judge it largely by the look of the schoolhouses. If

they are well built and modern in appearance, we may know that the city is prosperous and progressive. Nothing tells more of the character of a community than its schoolhouses.

As you know, the people of a city elect officers to pass laws and carry on the public work of the community. In this chapter we wish you to make a study of what the city does for the good of the people.

The Streets.—One of the most important public works of the city government is the care of the streets. We cannot get out of our homes to play or go to school without using the streets. Can you imagine a city without well-paved streets? Well, it has not been so many years since streets were paved with roughest cobblestones or not paved at all. In some towns wagons were stalled in the mud of the streets in winter time, and people crossed them with difficulty. Formerly in many places it was the custom to throw trash of all sorts in the streets and leave it there to decay. Do you think that such streets were pleasant or healthy? They were not, and public-spirited citizens urged improvement until intelligent care was given to the highways. Nowadays in all cities worthy of the name the streets are cleaned and kept in repair, so that even in the worst weather, and soon after a snowfall, they are just as passable as in summer. The good streets that we enjoy are one of the features of modern civilization.

The Police.—What would you do if some one were to annoy or threaten you on the street? Your first thought would be of the police, those protectors of the people. If a policeman were in sight, you would feel

that your troubles were over—that you were safe. You would call to him, or he would come of his own accord if he saw that you needed help. In homes and schools, in moving-picture theaters, on the streets, in church, and everywhere we go, we are protected by the police. This was not always the case. In olden times there were no police to protect citizens. Life and property were both very unsafe before the government took into its hands the matter of caring for citizens. Nowadays the police are always at work, hunting down criminals, arresting people as they break the laws, and protecting houses, banks, and stores from thieves and burglars. Another important work they do is to regulate traffic. By their efforts the thousands of automobiles and trucks pass through the crowded streets with few accidents. But for the police there would be many accidents each day, and all traffic would be dangerous. So you see that the money spent in supporting the police force is well expended, since the welfare of us all depends on the sturdy “guardians of the law.”

The Fire Department.—The city has laws for the prevention of fires. However, since there are fires, the city also maintains a fire department; but for the fire department a large part of each city would be burned frequently and many lives would be lost. In spite of the great size of modern cities and the tall buildings, fires were much more numerous once than they are now. Owing to our fire departments, most fires are put out before much damage is done, and not very many people lose their lives in burning buildings. Only a few generations ago, cities did not have regular

fire departments. Fires were put out by volunteer fire companies. These volunteers would leave their work at the sound of the fire bell and come running to the firehouse to drag the hose through the streets to the burning building. Needless to say, this method was ineffective, and regular fire departments were



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

A MODERN FIRE ENGINE

found necessary. The fireman, like the policeman, is one of our best friends. Like the policeman, he follows a dangerous calling. In all large cities firemen lose their lives in fighting the flames and saving the property of citizens.

The Public Library.—Another public service performed by most cities is the maintenance of free libraries. Usually there is a central city library,

with branches in various parts of the town. These libraries are of the utmost value to the community. They enable high school and college students to go more deeply into subjects than school libraries do; they offer grown people of little education a means of



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

SCENE IN RAINIER NATIONAL PARK

cultivating themselves in their spare time; they afford thousands of people innocent recreation without cost. Most city libraries have children's rooms where boys and girls may read books. Have you a public library in your city?

Parks and Playgrounds.—You have no doubt heard of Central Park in New York City. This park, one of the largest in the world, is daily visited by

thousands of people, especially women and children, who wish to get away from stuffy tenement houses and hot streets. It is a lake of green vegetation amid the grim stone desert of the mighty city—a place to benefit the body and refresh the mind. The land which Central Park occupies is worth many millions of dollars, but the city thinks that the money



Courtesy of Miss Emilie Yunker

VACANT LOT TRANSFORMED INTO A PARK

is well invested in maintaining this breathing place for the people of New York. In the same way, every city keeps parks of varying size and attractiveness. One of the most beautiful, if not the most beautiful, in the country is Druid Hill Park at Baltimore. In addition to the parks, which are usually playgrounds as well, in many cities there are playgrounds especially

maintained for children. Does your city have parks and playgrounds to help make it a "City Beautiful"? If it does not, it fails to do its full duty both to the grown people and the children. They must have such open spaces and playgrounds if they are to be healthy and happy.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of things done by the city in addition to those outlined in this chapter.
2. Write a list of the leading articles manufactured in your city.
3. Make a list of the places of historic interest.
4. Write a list of the city offices, with the names of the officers if you can get them.
5. Describe the most beautiful street in your town or city.
6. Describe the most beautiful park you have seen.
7. Find out how your city gets money to carry on its work.
8. Write a composition on your city, telling about its history, industries, and attractions.
9. Discuss these questions in class:
 Who is more useful, the policeman or the fireman?
 Which are more important, parks or libraries?
10. Carry out a definite undertaking that will make your city more beautiful. The picture on the opposite page illustrates the work of school children in Louisville, Kentucky.
11. Invite a city official to talk to you about the work of the city.

CHAPTER XI

OUR COUNTY

Problems: To discuss (1) another unit, the county; and (2) the advantages of country life.

Country Life.—About one half of all the boys and girls in the United States live either on farms or in small towns and villages. You will often hear people speak of the “advantages of the city,” but if you live in the country you will know of the advantages of the country. The average person is probably better off in the country than in the city, because of the fresh air and the outdoor life. Most city work is done indoors, not out in the sunshine. Living in the city is very costly, because rents are high and most people do not own their homes and because there are many expenses people do not have in the country. The country dweller does not pay the high city taxes. His taxes are usually small, because the country does not keep up departments requiring the services of large numbers of persons. Crime is less frequent in the country than in cities, as criminals usually live in towns.

Roads and Bridges.—There is much that the county does for its citizens. When you leave your home for school, you probably pass over a concrete bridge. That bridge was put there by the county. You may travel for several miles on a good road. The county made that road. Country people pay higher taxes than they used to do, but they are willing to pay

more and have beautiful roads in place of the mud lanes of the old days. Indeed, good roads have made living in the country a different thing from former times. Formerly people were often kept at home for months at a time because of the muddy roads. At present, the country boy and the country girl find little difficulty in going to school or church or visiting at any season of the year.

Schools.—The county also spends much more tax money on schools than it used to do. Once upon a time the good schools were in the city and the poor schools in the country. Sometimes the buildings were log cabins, unworthy of the name of schools. The teachers knew little, and the students used books that had been in service for many years and were torn and dirty. All that is changed now. There are large and beautiful schoolhouses, many of them consolidated schools, in every country section of the United States; the school term has been much lengthened; the teachers are graduates of normal schools and receive fair salaries. If you live in a county which has good school buildings, a nine-months term, and well-paid teachers, you have a right to be proud of it. It is a progressive county.

Protecting Life and Property.—In the country, citizens are sometimes called on to help protect the community from lawless men. Every county has its sheriff or constable who is paid to look out for the safety of the community. Usually the sheriff is a brave and competent man. If a crime is committed, he arrests the criminal, alone or with the help of several deputy sheriffs. If a dangerous criminal defies the law,

the sheriff calls on all good citizens to help him, and these citizens are sworn in as policemen for the occasion. The sheriff and his helpers then go, with guns and pistols, and arrest the lawbreaker. Often sheriffs and deputies are killed in the doing of their duty, but danger does not deter them. In spite of the fact that there are no regular policemen in the country, life



COURTHOUSE AT WILLIAMSBURG, JAMES CITY COUNTY, VA.

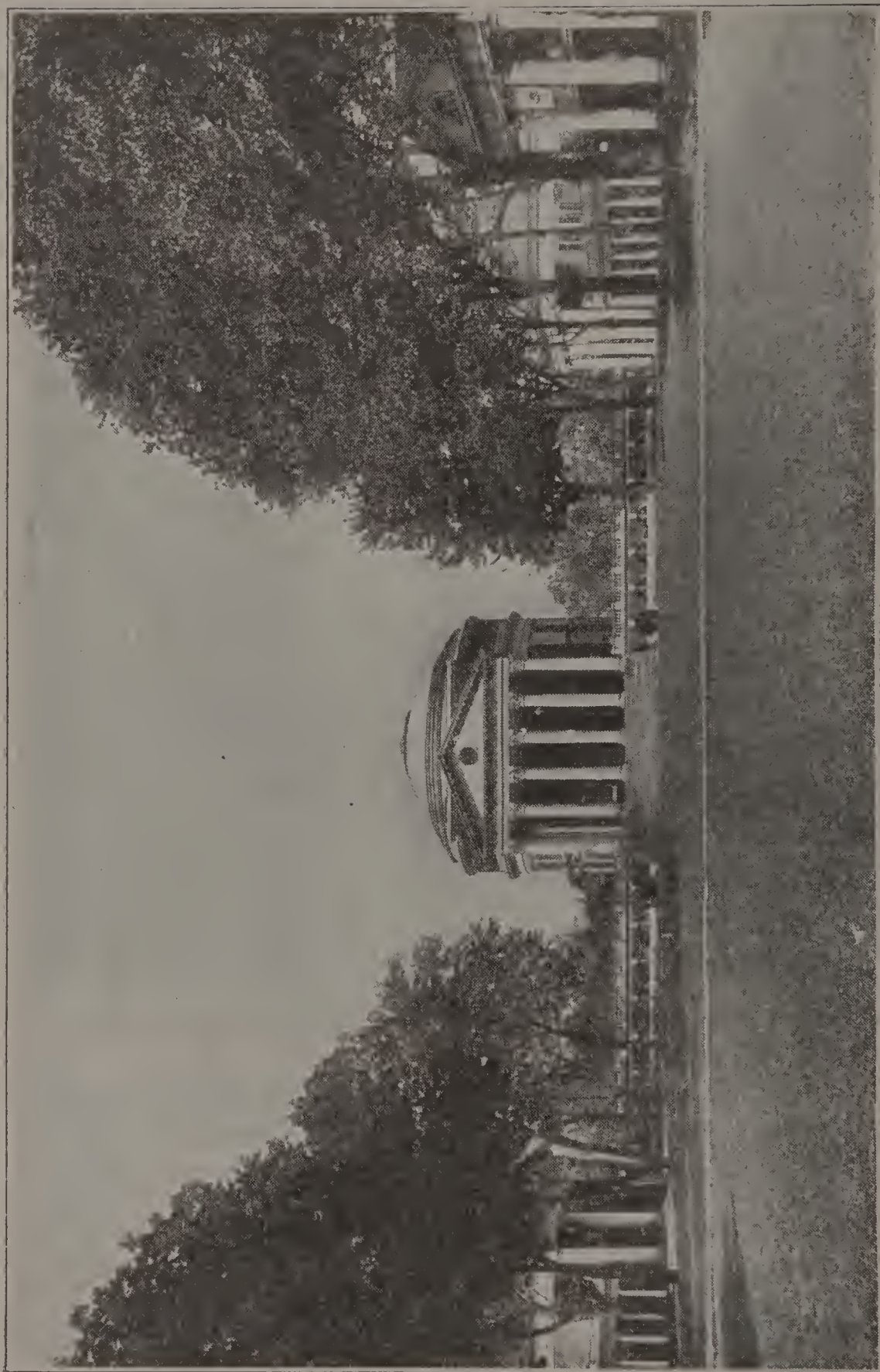
and property are safer there than in cities. Crime is rare in the country at a distance from cities.

The Courthouse.—Each county has a county seat which corresponds to the capital of a state or to Washington, the capital of the nation. At the county seat are the courthouse, the clerk's office, and the jail. The courthouse and the clerk's office correspond to the city hall of the town. There cases are tried before

the circuit court, records are preserved and examined, and taxes are paid. Prisoners are kept in the county jail. Most of the county officials, such as the superintendent of schools, the sheriff, the treasurer, and the commonwealth's attorney, have their offices at the county seat. You have, no doubt, often visited your county seat and seen the courthouse and other buildings. Perhaps you have been there on court day, when cases were being tried and the people for miles around came to hear them. When you are grown, you will have to do your part as a citizen of your county. You will serve on juries; you will vote for the county officials and you will pay taxes—perhaps you will run for the legislature and represent your county at the state capital.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the leading crops of your county.
2. Make a list of the manufactured articles which your county sends to other sections.
3. Make a list of food products brought into your county.
4. Make a list of your county officers and tell their duties.
5. Invite a citizen to talk to your club on the early history of your county.
6. Discuss in class this question: Which is the better place in which to live, the city or the country?
7. Draw a map of your county showing the county seat, the principal towns and villages, rivers, railroads, and improved highways.
8. Draw another map showing where schools might well be consolidated.



ROTUNDA AT THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

CHAPTER XII

OUR STATE

Problems: (1) To study a larger unit, the state; and (2) to carry out some plans that will make you more familiar with your state.

Work of the State.—We have seen that the home, school, and church are communities. We have also given some study to larger communities made up of homes, churches, and schools—the city and county. We come now to a still larger community, made up of cities and counties—the state. In this chapter we shall learn some of the things the state does for its citizens. Just as the city and county perform certain duties, the state does certain other things necessary to the welfare of its citizens. The city and county take care of the streets and roads, give police and fire protection, keep up schools, and care for the health of the community. The work of the state is similar, but in addition it has other activities that counties and cities do not attempt.

Colleges and Public Schools.—All counties and cities have schools and high schools, and some cities have colleges. The state maintains a university for the people of the whole state, as the University of Virginia, the University of North Carolina, and the University of Indiana. State universities usually have schools of law and medicine in addition to undergraduate college courses. Besides the universities, the

states, aided by the federal government, maintain agricultural and mechanical colleges, such as the Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College and the Alabama Polytechnic Institute. They maintain normal schools and colleges, and in some instances colleges of other kinds, such as the Virginia Military Institute, and The Citadel, of South Carolina, which are military schools much like the United States Military Academy at West Point. The states spend millions of dollars each year in keeping up these universities and colleges, some of which, as the University of Michigan, the University of Wisconsin, and the University of Illinois, are among the foremost institutions of learning in the world. Besides these higher institutions, the state aids in maintaining the public schools in the cities and counties. In some states, a community receives a grant of money from the state to aid in building high schools on condition that the community itself raises a certain sum.

Hospitals.—The state also supports hospitals for the insane, who are kept in these institutions at the expense of the taxpayers. We believe that it is better for the government to care for these unfortunate people than to have them as a burden on their families or their communities. In some states, there are also institutions for the feeble-minded, where they receive a training which often enables them to earn a living. Sanatoriums for consumptives are maintained by most states. These valuable hospitals restore to health many people who lack the means to go to private sanatoriums.

Imprisonment.—Counties and cities keep jails for

the imprisonment of persons awaiting trial or those convicted of small offenses. Imprisonment for serious crimes is one of the duties of the state. Persons found guilty of stealing large sums, or of burglary, or of manslaughter, or sometimes of murder, are sentenced to the penitentiary for terms varying from two years to a lifetime. In this prison are electric chairs or gallows, by which persons who have been convicted of murder, or some other "capital" crime, are put to death.

Good Roads.—In recent years the states have created highway departments to assist the counties in building good roads. In some states, notably New York, Pennsylvania, and North Carolina, millions of dollars have been spent in this work. The highway departments keep engineers whose duty it is to see that road making is properly done.

The Governor.—The head of the state government, or the chief executive officer, is the governor. He is elected for different terms in different states, usually two or four years. The various departments of the state government are under the general direction of the governor; he has many duties. He appoints some officers and sometimes removes them. In some states he appoints supreme court judges. He proposes measures to the legislature and vetoes bills. The governor takes part in most of the honorary activities of the state: if a statue is unveiled, he is usually present to make a speech; if a great man visits the state, the governor welcomes him; he also makes addresses at school and college commencements. Another important duty of the governor is to provide

for the protection of the people in cases which the police of the cities and the sheriffs of the counties cannot handle. Sometimes a riot breaks out and much damage is done. The rioters may be so numerous that they are able to defy the police. Then the governor calls out the soldiers, or militia, of the state and sends them to the scene of the riot to restore order.

The Governor and Jerry.—The governor encourages all kinds of movements tending to aid the state. A few years ago a boy named Jerry received a letter from the governor of his state inviting the lad to visit him in his office in the capitol. Jerry was excited at receiving a personal invitation from the chief executive and gladly accepted it. He lived on a farm several miles from the railroad, but his father drove him to the station, bought him a ticket, and saw him off to the capital. Jerry arrived in the city and went to the capitol building. When he entered the governor's outer office in the capitol, he found a large room crowded with people waiting to see the great man and he felt very small and young: he supposed that he would have to wait his turn. But, on the contrary, some one came to him and conducted him into the governor's private office. There the governor greeted the boy warmly, shook hands with him, patted him on the back, and finally pinned on his coat a beautiful gold medal. Needless to say, Jerry felt very proud at being so highly honored. Why do you suppose he received a medal from the governor? Because he was the champion corn grower of South Carolina, having raised two hundred and twenty-eight bushels of corn on one acre of land. The governor knew

that by honoring Jerry for his ability and industry he was encouraging other boys to do likewise, and so aiding the development of the community.

The Courts.—There is also the judicial branch of state governments. The courts that try small offenses and small “civil cases” in cities are city courts and are maintained by the city. The other courts are state courts. The lowest of these are the justices’ courts in the counties; then come county courts or circuit courts. Most states are divided into circuits or districts, composed of several counties, and judges appointed by the state, or elected by the people, preside over them. The highest court in the state is the supreme court, which deals with all cases brought up to it from the lower courts for retrial. In some states there are still other courts of a special nature.

The Legislature.—We have studied in this chapter two branches of state government—the *executive* and *judicial*. The executive is the branch, presided over by the governor, which has to do with the various departments. The courts form the judicial branch. There is still another branch—the *legislative*. This is the law-making part of the government, and the lawmaking body of the state is known as the *legislature*. The members of the legislature are elected by the vote of the people. It meets in the capitol at certain periods and passes laws for the government of the state.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a map showing the various state institutions such as colleges, normal schools, and hospitals.
2. Make a list of some of the more important state officers, telling their duties.

3. Answer these questions:

- How did your state get its name?
- When was it admitted to the Union?
- What is the capital city?
- Who is the present governor?
- Who are your representatives in the legislature?
- What great men were born in your state?
- What is its population?
- What are its principal industries?
- How does the state help to support your school?
- How does the state help to build good roads?
- What are some ways in which the state helps the farmer?
- Why is your state "the best state in the Union"?
- How does the state get the necessary money to do its work?
- Why are some lawbreakers sent to the penitentiary while others are sent to jail?

4. Invite one of your representatives in the legislature to talk to you about how laws are made.

5. Collect pamphlets from your state department of agriculture and from the chambers of commerce of various cities for your classroom library.

6. At the next social meeting of the club let each member represent a state institution or a state officer. Make this a guessing contest.

CHAPTER XIII

OUR NATION

Problems: (1) To study the largest unit, the nation; and (2) to tell of some of its special activities.

The United States.—We have seen that homes make up cities and counties, and that cities and counties make up states. We are to consider now the community that states make up—the largest community of which we are members. This is the nation. The name of our nation is the United States of America, though we speak of it as the United States, and abbreviate it as U. S. We sometimes playfully apply the letters U. S. to refer to “Uncle Sam,” who is shown in comic pictures as a tall, thin man with stars on his coat and stripes on his trousers. It would be better, perhaps, to say that the two letters stand for US; for our country consists simply of the men, women, and children who live under the star-spangled banner. The United States is a country that belongs to the whole people.

The Land of the Free.—Sometimes the United States is called “the Land of the Free.” Do you know what is meant by that term? Before the Revolution, the United States consisted of colonies of England, subject to the English king. They could not make laws without the king’s consent, and the English Parliament sought to lay taxes on them for the benefit of England. This led to the memorable American

Revolution (1775–1783), which resulted in the United States winning its liberty under the leadership of George Washington; since that time the American people have had no king to govern them. The chief ruler is the President. In 1776, Thomas Jefferson wrote in the Declaration of Independence that all men have the right to be free. In America the people elect their President. Congress, which consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives, is also elected by the people. In the Capitol at Washington, where Congress meets, the United States Supreme Court sits. This is the highest court in the land and the members are appointed by the President for life. Washington, the capital of the United States, is a city of wide streets, beautiful parks, and fine government buildings. You will probably visit the national capital some day in order to see these buildings and Congress in session. Then you may wonder if you are destined to be a Congressman and to take part in making your country's laws.

Coinage.—The national government has many important duties. One of the principal things it does is to make money. Once upon a time the states made money, and even cities have done so. This may seem odd to you, but it is a fact. In the Revolutionary War, both the United States and the states issued large quantities of paper money; but after the United States adopted its present system of government, under what is called the Constitution, the right of making money was taken away from the states and from all other bodies. Only the national government makes money. The United States makes the *coin* used in the country

in several money factories, called *mints*. Perhaps you will visit the great mint at Philadelphia some day. Here metallic money is minted. Red-hot gold, silver, nickel, and copper run into molds, and great presses stamp imprints on the metal disks as they come from the molds. Then the coins are ready to be exchanged for food and clothing and everything else that people buy.

Paper Money.—The United States makes paper money in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing at Washington. These are silver and gold certificates and the bank notes issued by the Federal Reserve System and by other authorized banks.' These forms of paper money vary in color and in wording but are otherwise similar. There is not much difference between one-dollar and one-thousand-dollar bills. Have you ever seen a hundred-dollar or a thousand-dollar bill? The government even issues a ten-thousand-dollar bill, but few such bills are made because people do not need large single pieces of money. Imagine going into a store and asking the storekeeper to change a ten-thousand-dollar bill! Do you think he could do it? Only workmen of the highest skill are employed in engraving paper money, and only fine paper of a singular kind is used. This paper is full of silk threads and other marks in order to prevent persons, called *counterfeiters*, from trying to make money just like it and deceiving and robbing people with the false bills. Counterfeit money was once very plentiful; it is now rare, because the difficulties of making an exact imitation of bills are so great that counterfeiters are usually promptly found out and arrested.

The Post Office.—Another duty undertaken by the national government, and not by the city and the county or the state, is that of sending and distributing mail. Once upon a time letters were sent by private business companies, just as express packages are today. But this was such an expensive system that the government took over the post office itself and



A PARCEL POST DELIVERY TRUCK

charged a small fee for carrying letters. Benjamin Franklin established the postal system of the United States before the Revolution. When he became Postmaster-General of the colonies, there were only seventy-five post offices in America; now there are many thousand. When Franklin was postal chief it took weeks to send a letter from New York to Charleston; now it takes only a few days to send a letter from New

York to San Francisco. Thousands of people are employed as postmasters and clerks, and the amount of mail handled amounts to millions of tons annually. Not only letters are carried: you may send almost any package you wish by the Parcel Post for a small fee and you may send money by the Money Order. You may also deposit the money you save in the Postal Savings Banks. The government not only delivers mail in the city but in the country as well. The Rural Free Delivery takes mail to every part of the country—in some cases many miles from any town. The accuracy and speed of the system are such that letters are seldom lost and are sent from one part of the country to another in a short time. Letters that are lost are usually lost because of the carelessness of the writers. Every year millions of letters go to the Dead Letter Office at Washington because the writers have addressed them illegibly or because they have sent them to the wrong addresses.

The Government is Yours.—You see that the national government does a great many things for you. The money you earn and spend is good because the authority and credit of the government are behind it. The letters you write to your friends go for a trifling fee to their addresses because the government carries them. The banking system of the country is largely under the management of the government. Later on you will find that the railroads and many other activities of the country are mainly under governmental control. The government works for you and belongs to you. The President in the White House is taking measures for your safety and welfare; Congress passes

laws to protect you; the Supreme Court of the United States looks out for your rights as a citizen. If you realize that the national government is yours, you will be a better and more useful citizen because you will be willing to do your part toward making the government a success.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Name as many different postage stamps as you can.
2. Get some member of your class to tell how to send a package by parcel post.
3. Answer these questions:

When was Washington inaugurated President and where?

How many of our Presidents have been assassinated?

Can you name some things which the nation alone has the right to do?

Who is your Representative in Congress?

Why would it be unwise to let private individuals and states issue money?

If the baby at home should tear into small pieces a twenty-dollar bill, would there be any way to redeem it?

Why do you think the government stopped coining one-dollar and two-and-a-half-dollar gold pieces?

PART TWO

CHAPTER XIV

THE JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB REORGANIZED

Problem: To reorganize your Junior Citizens Club.

Reorganizing Your Club.—In the opening chapter of this book suggestions were given for organizing your class into a civics club. (See page 13.) The first thing to do on resuming the study of civics is to reorganize your club by electing a full set of officers. The next step is to plan some work to be carried on during the present term. Club meetings should be held weekly or at least twice a month. You are now prepared to have short debates at your meetings, and you may wish to give a play or a historical pageant. Your club can also do something for the improvement of the community. The following is a stenographic report of the meeting of a school club. Read it carefully. It will suggest work for your organization.

A MEETING OF A JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB

TEACHER: It is now two o'clock and time for the Junior Citizens Club to hold its regular meeting. The officers will come forward and take charge.

The president and secretary advance to the front of the room and occupy chairs at the teacher's desk.

THE PRESIDENT: We will open our meeting by standing and repeating our class pledge:

We will never bring disgrace to our school, city, or country.

We will obey our school, city, and country's laws.

We will stand for the right, with others or alone.

We will aid the poor, the old, the young, and all who need help.

We pledge allegiance to the flag of our country and our earnest efforts to keep ourselves worthy of that flag.

THE PRESIDENT: The secretary will please read the minutes of the last meeting.

The secretary reads the minutes of the last meeting from a blank book kept for the purpose.

THE PRESIDENT: Are the minutes correct?

FRANK BROWN: Mr. President, the minutes, as read, state that I was appointed a member of the Program Committee. This is not correct. I was added to the Committee on School Grounds.

THE PRESIDENT: You are right. The secretary will please make this correction. If there are no other objections to the minutes, I declare them approved.

THE PRESIDENT: We will now have the report of the treasurer.

TREASURER: Mr. President, I make the following report:

Balance on hand from last month .	\$4.60
Receipts from dues65
Profits on sale of candy for library	
books	2.10

Total balance on hand . . \$7.35

THE PRESIDENT: If there is no objection, the treasurer's report will be filed with the secretary, who will record it in the minutes. We will now hear from our standing committees.

SUSIE LOWE: Mr. President, as chairman of the Room Committee I wish to report that we have talked with two members of the club who continually drop paper on the floor. Both have promised to stop this practice and they seem to be living up to their promise. I wish further to report that the plants you see in the windows were given to the class by Mrs. Bowers, the mother of our fellow club member, Frank Bowers.

THE PRESIDENT: What will you do with this report?

MAUDE ELAM: Mr. President, I move that our secretary write a note of thanks to Mrs. Bowers for the flowers she has given us.

ABRAHAM LEVY: Mr. President, I second Maude's motion.

THE PRESIDENT: All who favor this motion will say "Aye." The vote is unanimous. The secretary will write the letter and read it tomorrow at the Current Events period.

THE PRESIDENT: We will now hear from the Committee on School Grounds.

JAMES CABOT: We think that too much waste paper is left on the school grounds at the noon hour. We went to our principal and asked him to get two waste paper barrels. He agreed to do this if our club would appoint a committee of three to report to him all who fail to put lunch wrappers in the barrels. We therefore recommend the appointment of such a committee.

THE PRESIDENT: What will you do with this report?

ADA WORKS: Mr. President, I don't like this plan.

OSCAR SIMMS: I second the motion.

THE PRESIDENT: All who favor this motion say "Aye"; all opposed, "No." The motion is carried.

THE PRESIDENT: We will now have the special program. Irma Brownlow, the chairman of the Program Committee, will please come forward and take charge of the meeting.

IRMA BROWNLOW: We will have a debate on the following subject: Resolved, That every boy and girl should graduate from high school.

The debaters on the affirmative are:

FRANK BUTZNER

MILDRED SMITH

Those representing the negative are:

JAMES SIMPSON

REBECCA FAIRCLOTH

The first speaker was Frank Butzner. Frank was followed by James Simpson, after which the other two speakers presented their arguments. The rebuttal then came: that is, an opportunity was given each debater to answer arguments advanced by his opponents. After the debate had closed, the club members decided by a vote of twenty-eight to six that the affirmative side had won.

IRMA BROWNLOW: This completes the program. I will now turn the meeting back to the president.

THE PRESIDENT: Is there any other matter to come before the club? If not, I await a motion to adjourn.

ADA WHITE: I move that we adjourn.

ZIHLA KAPLAN: I second the motion.

THE PRESIDENT: All who favor adjournment will say "Aye"; all opposed, "No." The motion is carried, and the club stands adjourned.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Reorganize your club.
2. Appoint standing committees: committees for improvement, for entertainment, and to visit the sick.
3. Write new songs, new cheers, and a class slogan.



Courtesy of Miss Emilie Yunker

HANGING MAY BASKET AT CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL

CHAPTER XV

OCCUPATIONS

Problems: (1) To make a study of occupations; and (2) to discuss your future vocation.

What do you intend to make of yourself? What is the calling in life you wish to follow? Are you going to be a farmer, or a business man, or a lawyer, or a doctor, or a preacher, or a teacher, or an accountant, or a mechanic, or a painter, or a plasterer, or a carpenter, or a mason, or what?

Making Up Your Mind.—Perhaps you have not made up your mind yet as to your life work. Perhaps you have not given the matter much thought. Possibly you are so absorbed in your school and your play that you have not taken time to think what you will do when your school life is ended and you enter the great world. The sooner you make up your mind as to the vocation you are to follow the better for you, because you can then shape your education and training for a definite end. The world is full of people who drift about from one occupation to another without ever knowing what they really wish to do. Such people seldom succeed. They hold minor positions all their lives and have little chance to reveal their talents. They never *function* properly, we say.

Choosing Early.—On the other hand, a few long-headed people make up their minds early in life as to what calling they will pursue. This gives them the

advantage of being on the lookout for everything that may help them to realize their aim. The girl who decides at the age of thirteen to be a teacher has an advantage over the girl who simply drifts into teaching at the end of her schooling: the former will make a better teacher than the latter. The boy who decides to be a doctor at an early age will pay special attention to science in his school work and will go to college better prepared to study for his profession than the boy who enters medicine merely because it seems to be a profitable occupation. The same thing is true of the boy who expects to be a lawyer, or preacher, or anything else. Nature decides for many of us. You may see the future business man trading with the other boys on the playground and getting the best of his bargains. The future lawyer is usually a keener debater than the other boys; the future newspaper reporter writes for the school paper; the future mechanic knows all about automobiles; the future salesman is noted for his persuasive talk.

Few Callings Once.—In early times there were few callings, because people had not *specialized* then as they have today. A man would be a farmer—and nine out of ten men in the United States were farmers—or he might become a clerk in a store or a mechanic. Only a few men became lawyers, doctors, and preachers, partly because there was not a great demand for professional men in those days and partly because education was very expensive and difficult to get. Nobody could make a living in literary vocations, and teachers had to be instructors in private schools or open schools of their own.

Modern Vocations.—In the last hundred years most modern vocations have come into existence. Railroads give employment to hundreds of thousands of people. Early in the nineteenth century the only public means of transportation by land was the stage coach, and there were few stage coaches. Automobiles have opened a number of occupations that did not exist twenty-five years ago, when private transportation was by horse-drawn vehicles. A few generations since there were no insurance agents, stenographers, typewriters, real estate dealers, electricians, house painters, photographers, trained nurses, brokers; and hundreds of other callings now employing thousands of people were unthought of. This diversity of occupations is at once a blessing and a drawback: it gives us a far wider range of choice than our ancestors had, but at the same time it puts us in danger of making a mistake in our choice. With so many roads to success open, we are likely to enter one for which we are not suited. The occupation that one likes is usually best, for a man or woman does far better work when the work is congenial than when it is not. Indeed, nothing is more difficult than to succeed in a distasteful calling.

Farming.—Although the range of vocations is so much wider today than even one generation ago, it nevertheless remains a fact that farming is still in many ways the best calling of all. The farmer profits by the inventions which brought so many new occupations into existence. Labor-saving machinery makes it cheaper for him to produce crops than formerly; and automobiles, telephones, and radiophones do away with the old-time loneliness of country life. The

farmer who owns his own farm—if it is fairly good land—is the most independent of all men. He is not worried constantly, as nearly all city dwellers are, by the increasing cost of living. He does not pay rent and he makes most of his own food. In bad seasons he will not save much money, but he always earns a living. He has far more leisure than any other class of workers, for he has holiday much of the winter.



A HAYFIELD

His children help him on the farm instead of being a great expense, as children are in the city. In many ways the farmer in the long run of years has an advantage over other men.

Other Outdoor Vocations.—Other outdoor occupations are: civil engineering, structural iron work, house painting, insurance soliciting, lumbering, forestry, street cleaning, road making, automobile driving. Out-

door work is usually healthier than indoor employment, but the number of outdoor occupations is far smaller than of indoor vocations. With the exception of farmers, the body of the people of the United States do their work in houses.

Indoor Occupations.—The great world of business and manufacture is mainly an indoor realm. Merchants and business men of many sorts, clerks, stenographers, typewriters, secretaries, lawyers, doctors, dentists, factory and mill workers, do their work indoors. Indoor work is not injurious to the health, provided the worker gets outdoor exercise after hours and on Sundays. In many ways it is better than outdoor work, for there is no exposure to bad weather and less hard manual labor.

Skilled and Unskilled Occupations.—Nearly all people with any education are skilled workers. In fact, this is the main advantage of education, for skilled workers are paid more and have easier working conditions than unskilled laborers. The most highly skilled occupations are the professions, which require years of training. It is a mistake to think, however, that they pay better than other occupations. The callings that pay the best for the amount of training and education involved are skilled trades. In proportion to their education, locomotive engineers are among the highest paid workers in the world. Printers, carpenters, masons, paper hangers, plasterers, structural steel workers, steel mill workers, and, in fact, nearly all members of the skilled trades receive good wages. Some of these workers make more money than the average doctor, lawyer, or business man.

Few clerks in business offices get as much pay as the workers in skilled trades and they are not as independent. Boys and girls have an excellent chance in junior high school to take vocational classes. These classes are in wood and metal work, printing, electricity, millinery, dressmaking, and other subjects. By giving



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

MANUAL TRAINING IN SCHOOL

attention to them one may find that he has a talent for some skilled trade—a talent the cultivation of which will lead to success in life.

Unskilled Labor.—Contrasted with the skilled trades is what is known as unskilled labor. This latter range of vocations includes ditch digging, street work of most kinds, house wrecking, shifting materials,

the rough labor of railway construction, mining, and a number of other occupations. Unskilled labor is poorly paid in comparison with skilled work, though much better paid now than formerly. Few people that pass through high school become unskilled laborers. The work is too severe, the pay too small, the chance of advancement too poor to make this kind of occupation attractive.

Practical Education.—Make up your mind that you will have a good practical education—one that will definitely fit you for some bread-winning occupation. Much of education is of little practical benefit, as, for instance, knowledge of the Greek language. Formerly most education was of this sort, and students left high school or college poorly fitted for the battle of life. Modern education, however, is all the time becoming more practical and therefore more beneficial. All that you learn at school and high school will prove of value to you in the struggle of making a living. And if you go to college resolved to secure a useful education, you may select studies that will do much to insure your success in life.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Give the laws concerning child labor in your state.
2. Debate this question: *Resolved*, That the work of a farmer is more useful than that of a merchant.
3. Write a short paper showing that an early choice of an occupation is necessary to success in life.
4. Plan and give a pantomime in which the members of the club represent the various occupations.

CHAPTER XVI

KEEPING THINGS CLEAN

Problems: (1) To study the relation of cleanliness to health; and (2) to organize a campaign against mosquitoes, flies, and other pests.

Cleanliness and Health.—One of the most important dates in the history of the United States is 1850. In that year the modern bathtub was invented. Few inventions have done more for the happiness and welfare of humanity. Because of this invention the people of the United States adopted the habit of cleanliness, and the example of the United States is converting the whole world. People have found that they are far healthier, and therefore far happier, when they are clean.

Clean Houses.—In former times many people cared little for the cleanliness of their houses. This was natural, because they cared little for the cleanliness of their bodies. Clean houses came with clean bodies. It is considered a disgrace now for a family to live in a dusty, dirty house. Trash that once was allowed to lie on the floor is removed, and floors are swept and furniture is dusted. Dust is dangerous, as people have come to learn. This has led to the use of vacuum cleaners, which take up dirt and dust without letting particles fly into the air. Clean floors, dustless furniture, and clean beds insure us against many sicknesses which used to play havoc with hu-

manity. Dirt and disease go together. If you wish to be healthy, *keep yourself clean and live in clean surroundings.*

Clean Streets.—People who have neat houses wish to live in a clean city. Once upon a time the streets of cities were filled with rubbish of all kinds. They were never cleaned by the city government and were sometimes inches deep in mud. On busy streets, where there was constant passing, street sweepers made paths across the mud, for which they received coppers in return. All this is changed. Garbage, rubbish, and ashes are carted away and destroyed. Trash receptacles are kept in certain places, so that people will not throw things in the street. In some cities rotary street sweepers are used. In others, the streets are flushed with water at night, the best method of all. Cities that wash the streets regularly have a low disease rate.

Clean Yards and Beautiful.—Strangely enough, many people are still somewhat careless about their yards, especially back yards. In cities back yards are often littered with waste paper, tin cans, and garbage. In the country you sometimes find pigsties near dwelling houses and barnyards covered with rotten straw and other refuse. Such conditions promote disease. It is not difficult to remedy them. A few hours' work each week will make your back yard a healthful and beautiful spot instead of an eyesore. Instead of weeds you may have beautiful flowers blooming. The same thing applies to your school lawn. Is it ornamented with grass, shrubbery, shade trees and flowers, or is it just a bare, unsightly

lot covered with paper and ashes? The Junior Citizens Club should do something each year to make the school grounds the most attractive spot in the whole community.

Swatting the Fly.—One of the ways in which you can help to make things clean is by killing flies and by destroying their breeding-places. Kill every fly



A NEGLECTED BACK YARD

you see. The common house fly is more dangerous to the human race than all the lions, tigers, and other beasts of prey put together: it is a spreader of disease. Fly-killing is a matter of even more importance in the country than in cities, because flies are more numerous in the country than in cities. In the country, where the people have no assistance in cleaning up, flies still breed numerously in stables and barnyards. The

best way to prevent flies is to keep the premises so clean that they will have no breeding-places. And when one of the pests does appear, "Swat the fly!" should be the cry raised immediately.

Pure Water.—Clean water is our prime necessity. In former times people paid little attention to the cleanliness of water, with the result that thousands



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

COVERING FOOD FROM FLIES

died annually from typhoid fever and other diseases. They did not know then what caused these ills. When it was learned that water is the chief medium in which typhoid is conveyed, cities began to study the sources of their water supply. If the water supply comes from lakes or streams, care is usually taken to see that garbage and filth are removed from the neighborhood. Sometimes water is brought from great distances in

order to insure purity: New York City is supplied with water brought from the Catskill Mountains, a hundred miles away. In some cities chemicals are used to make the water pure, but purified water is not so good as water originally pure. Country people now take pains to have their wells and springs



WATER SUPPLY FOR A CITY

clean. They know that if they do not they are likely to be sick.

The Pledge.—In some cities clubs have been organized to further the great work of making cities cleaner and healthier. The following is the pledge taken by the members of a “Keep Your City Clean Club” organized in a large city school:

MOTTO

I will do all in my power to make a cleaner and more beautiful city.

PLEDGE

I will not throw paper, fruit skins, or other trash in the streets, alleys, or school yard.

I will not write on fences, buildings, posts, or sidewalks.

I will keep my front and back yards free from waste paper, weeds, and all rubbish.

I will help to keep all garbage at my house covered up.

I will make every day a Clean-Up Day at my home.

I will help to make my school the prettiest in the city.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Tell how some diseases can be prevented. Which is better, to prevent or to cure disease?

2. Appoint a member of your class to write to your state health department for a pamphlet on pure drinking water for schools and homes.

3. Get your class to make a survey of the school premises in order to learn in what respects health conditions might be improved.

4. Explain how parks and playgrounds promote health.

5. Answer these questions:

What diseases does your board of health quarantine?

What disposition is made of sewage in your community?

How is garbage disposed of?

What is being done about the water supply? The milk supply?

What officer in your community is responsible for health?

Why are city dump piles a menace to health?

What is the bubonic plague and how is it spread?

What is the hookworm disease and how is it spread?

Which of the following water supplies is most dangerous: a well; a spring; a stream? Why?

6. Organize a campaign against mosquitoes, flies, and other pests. (See page 304 for suggestions.)

7. Organize a neighborhood "clean-up" campaign. Consult your local or state board of health for plans and methods.

CHAPTER XVII

SAVERS AND WASTERS

Problems: (1) To study how others have succeeded by thrift; and (2) to learn how to save and to spend wisely.

Meaning of Thrift.—Many of us have an idea that thrift simply means self-denial—going without the things we want. This is a mistake. Thrift does mean going without certain things. It means going without unnecessary and often not very desirable things in order to gain other things more necessary and highly to be sought. It means giving up the pleasure of the moment in order to win lasting happiness. This is the point that should be understood, because it makes saving easy—thrift is far more than self-denial: it is profit, gain, prosperity.

Andrew Carnegie.—When Andrew Carnegie was a boy he was very poor. He came of a family of workers; his father was a weaver of linen who was ruined by the introduction of machinery in linen making. So Andrew had to go to work at an early age. While he was still a young boy, the family moved from Scotland to America and settled in Pittsburgh. Andrew went to work in a factory there at a very small wage. Leaving the factory, he rose to be an operator in a telegraph office. All the time he was saving—a little money, it is true, because the family largely depended on him, but still a little. At last the chance came to secure a good investment. The family mortgaged

its humble house in order to eke out Andrew's savings, and thus he was able to make his first investment. This was the beginning of such success as few men have ever gained. From a boy working in a factory, Andrew Carnegie rose to be one of the greatest millionaires on earth. Thrift was the basis of his success. It was better for him to have denied himself the pleasures of the moment, in order to win immense wealth and high position in later life, than to have spent his money as he made it and so lose his chance for the future. That is the essence of thrift: it is the building of a future. Almost all people who are thrifty in youth do well in later life, because money, as the saying is, breeds money. The thrifty boy or girl is not only making money by his or her own efforts but by the use of the money saved. He or she has two sources of income—work and *interest*, which is the payment made for the use of money. It is easy to see that the thrifty person soon outdistances the people who have to depend altogether on work.

Return on Money.—This return on money is the reason for thrift. All grown people, if they are sensible, practice thrift to some extent, but children frequently are not expected to do so. Children often spend every cent given them or that they earn on candy, moving pictures, or in other ways that bring in no return. They expect to save, but at some time in the future, not realizing that thrift cannot begin too soon, that no one is too young to observe it. If you regularly put a little money in a savings bank you will be surprised to see how much it will amount to in a few years. Often one has a chance to lend money at six per cent.

interest—that is, to receive a return of six dollars for the use of a hundred dollars for a year. Sometimes one is able to get eight dollars for the use of a hundred dollars for a year. In an old church a twenty-dollar gold piece, which bore the date 1808, was recently found. If that gold piece had been loaned from 1808 to 1922, at six per cent interest, compounded semi-annually, it would have increased to \$16,474.64. You see from this how money grows.

A Budget.—But it is not easy to save before saving has become a habit. The dimes and nickels get away from us without our knowing how they go; the stores are full of things we want. How then shall we set about saving? The best way to save is to begin by keeping an expense account. Put down in a little tablet every cent you spend each day for a month; then look at the account. You will be surprised to see how much money you spend on things you do not need and which do not give you great satisfaction. Perhaps you bought ten cents' worth of candy three times a week: once a week would do as well. Perhaps you have been to the moving pictures six evenings in the month: four would be enough. After you have kept an expense account for some time, you will begin to see how you might save here and there and yet have just as much pleasure. Make what is called a budget. Put down your necessary expenses and then make a certain addition for pleasure and extras. If you keep to the budget, you may be sure you are thrifty. If you spend much more than it calls for, you may know that there is a leak, that money is going unnecessarily.

Need of Thrift Universal.—Everybody needs to

exercise thrift. Even rich men will not get along if they spend money recklessly. If this is true of the rich, how much more so is it of the poor! Thrift indeed usually marks the difference between the employee, the man who takes orders, and the employer. The man who saves nothing is always under some one else, always insecure, always afraid that he will lose his place and not be able to get another. The thrifty person—the person who has money in bank or who owns property—does not have this worry, because he knows that even if he should be out of work for a time he will have something to fall back on. If he continues to be thrifty, he will become an employer of others and will give orders instead of receiving them.

Needlessness of Waste.—The great thing about thrift is that after one begins to be thrifty, thrift comes easy. It is largely a matter of thought. We do not wish to spend money on unnecessary things, yet we often waste. We obtain pleasure from spending money for amusements, but when we waste we get nothing at all in return. There is no pleasure in waste. In most families much good food is wasted—food which could be served the second day in some appetizing form but which, instead, is thrown in the garbage can. Clothes are often wasted in the same way: why should we not wear old clothes at certain times and save our good ones? Frequently we throw away shoes that would last for months by patching. Furniture is sometimes allowed to go to pieces for lack of a little repairing. Children often destroy school books which could be sold or passed on to another child in the family. Likewise, they waste paper by writing

only on a part of a sheet and then throwing it away. There are a thousand ways in which we waste: nearly all of us are guilty of it in some form and to some extent. We should fight against it: waste is not only wrong; it is stupid. If we come to understand how much saving means, we are far less likely to waste.

When People Save.—If a farmer does not spend all of his earnings for clothing, amusements, the doctor and dentist, and in other ways, he has a sum left over. With this he may buy a few more acres of land. The new acres will mean that next year he will raise a larger crop and get more money; and, if he is a very thrifty man, he may go on in this way year after year until he turns a small farm into a great estate. If a business man does not spend all of his earnings for food, clothing, doctor's bills, and in other ways, he has a sum left over. This will enable him to buy more goods next year, and the larger stock of goods will mean an increased profit. He can do this year after year; his wealth will increase, and he may eventually become rich, perhaps a millionaire. The same thing, in some degree, is true of the professional man, the mechanic, the factory worker, and nearly everybody else.

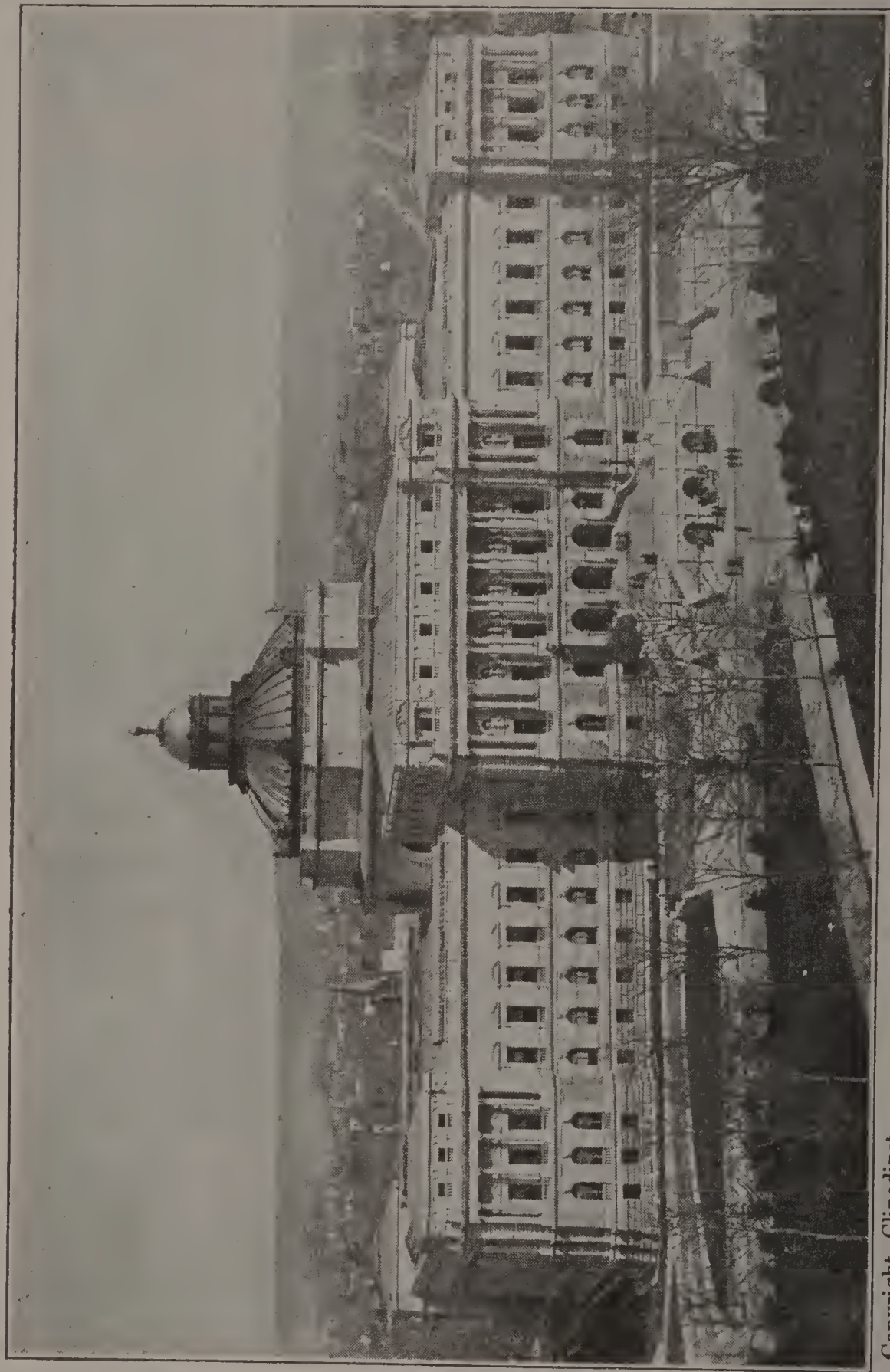
How You May Save.—You have a chance to earn money by thrift, just as the farmer and business man and doctor have. You can begin by putting a little money in a savings bank or in Postal Savings stamps. If you put one dollar in a savings bank, you will receive three cents at the end of the year for the use of your money. This may seem a small amount, but if you put ten dollars in the savings bank you will get thirty cents in interest, and one hundred dollars will bring

you in a return of three dollars. There are other ways of investment. Nobody need be without means of gaining interest on money.

The Way to Wealth.—Thrift is the way to wealth. There is really no other way. Nearly everyone who has made a success of life has done so by thrift. The man who spends all he makes and never saves anything is at the mercy of every misfortune. He must borrow money when he is sick or in trouble, and he has no means to invest when opportunities come. Such men almost never become rich. The place to be is in the ranks of the thrifty, the *savers*, and not in the ranks of the unthrifty, the *wasters*. Those who take this stand and stick to it will be practically certain to meet with some measure of success at least.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of different ways in which people waste time; money; material.
2. Write a short composition on "Why I Should Have a Bank Account."
3. Find out all you can about the manner in which the banks in your community are conducted.
4. Let the club originate and give a "Thrift" play. The proceeds may be used to add books to the library.



Copyright, Clinedinst
(110)

THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS

CHAPTER XVIII

BEAUTY

Problems: (1) To learn the importance of beauty in one's surroundings; and (2) to take steps to beautify your own community.

Beauty of Washington.—If you go to Washington, you will find a city different from any you have seen before. You will see wide, asphalt-paved streets, bordered by beautiful trees; parks, whose refreshing loveliness will tempt you to linger in them; public buildings, massive and yet graceful and pleasing. Nowhere will you see smoke and dirt and confusion. The reason for this is that Washington is a city where beauty has been greatly considered and where efforts for improvement have been put forth for many years. There is probably no more beautiful city in the whole world than the capital of our country.

Beauty in Other Cities.—What has been done so well in Washington is being done to some extent in all the cities of the country. For many years Americans were too intent on growth to care much for appearances. The fine old houses that had been built in the early period of our history were neglected; buildings were put up for purposes of usefulness alone and with no regard to grace and beauty; telegraph, telephone, and trolley poles raised their unsightly heads everywhere; front yards were neglected; hideous advertisements were scattered through the streets, even the best

residential streets; there were few parks; there were few streets with trees. But a number of years ago some of the public-spirited people of the country began a movement to improve the appearance of our cities, and this has been under way ever since. Much has been accomplished. In many large cities telegraph and telephone poles have been taken down; streets are properly paved; trees are planted throughout residential sections; frequently ugly houses have been replaced by pleasing ones. Everywhere our cities have been cleaned up; the streets are no longer left littered with paper and rubbish; window boxes bloom in houses. The former hardness and bareness of our cities is fast being replaced by soft beauty—by grass and trees and flowers.

Beautifying the Yard.—In no respect has the movement for beauty accomplished more than in the beautifying of yards. The time was when we paid little attention to front yards, especially in the smaller cities. Now nearly everybody who has a front yard has a lawn. In many places the competition between house owners in the matter of fine lawns is keen. When men come home from work they like to trim the grass with the lawn mower, and each season they make efforts to have better grass. Often flowers add a dash of color to the cool and grateful green of the grass. Not so much has been done in the case of the back yard. Sometimes fine houses with well-kept lawns have unsightly back yards: cans, waste paper, and rubbish still litter back yards, even in good streets. This should not be the case. We should have clean yards. But we may have back yards sufficiently clean for

purposes of health and yet bare and dreary. A little patch of grass, a border of flowers, a row of trees, or a creeping vine will add immensely to the attractiveness of the surroundings. People are insensibly affected by their surroundings; a man with a beautiful back yard will be happier than one who looks out on dismal bricks and mortar unrelieved by vegetation.

Trees.—Perhaps the most important factors in community beauty are trees. Nowadays we are so alive to the value of trees that we not only plant large numbers of young ones, but we pay much attention to old ones. There are “tree doctors” whose work is to save trees beginning to decay. An old tree is treated by surgery and medicine, somewhat as a sick man is. In some cities people are fined for cutting down trees, even on their own places, unless the trees are replaced by others. In nearly all the cities of the country there are long tree-lined streets which are the pride of the community. Trees are not only beautiful; they are an advantage in many ways. They screen houses from the glare of the summer sun, and they protect passers-by from the heat. They soothe the eyes and help tired nerves. They benefit body and mind.

Better Housing.—Another movement which concerns both health and beauty is that of affording better houses for working people. Formerly, in many cities, working people lived in tenements—large, bare, barracklike places without grace or ornament—or in little tumble-down houses on the outskirts. These brought a low rent and the owners spent little or nothing in repairs. Fortunately this condition of

affairs is passing away. Only houses of decent appearance may now be built in most cities, and owners are required to clean up and keep buildings in repair. We demand good living conditions for citizens.

Advertisements.—Twenty years ago visitors from foreign countries spoke most unfavorably of the advertisements which then flooded every city. No section of an American city was free from enormous signs



BEAUTIFYING THE SCHOOL GROUNDS, CHESTER (VA.) HIGH SCHOOL

advertising every commodity under the sun in a glaring manner. Billboards stood on nearly every vacant lot, even on the finest streets. Roads and railroads were lined with advertisements of every sort. Turn where one would, there was no escaping signs. Within the last few years this condition has been improved. In some cities large signs can be put up only in certain sections; in other sections advertisements are restricted. Besides, the advertisements themselves have changed.

They have become much more artistic and pleasing, and the traveler's sense of beauty is no longer offended on every side as formerly.

What You Can Do.—All of us can help to create civic beauty. You have an opportunity to do much yourself. In the first place, you can help to make your own home beautiful. You can see that the lawn is cut and the back yard free of cans and rubbish. You can plant trees and paint the fences and gates around your home. More than this, you can aid in making your school beautiful. Most school buildings are built for beauty as well as use: in every city there are handsome and graceful schools. But sometimes the surroundings of these schools are not what they should be. It is there that you can help. You can take part in the movement for making the outside of the school beautiful and for keeping the inside clean and attractive. This is an important matter.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Find out what town or city ordinances aid in beautifying your community. Name others which might be made.
2. Keep a class record of various efforts made to beautify your community.
3. See what your club can do to prevent needless destruction of trees or other natural beauty in your locality.
4. Appoint committees to take steps to beautify your schoolroom and school yard.

CHAPTER XIX

SAFETY

Problems: (1) To make a study of "safety-first" regulations; and (2) to suggest means of carrying them out.

Drive to the Right.—Certain things are agreed on for the good of all. Suppose there were no road laws and no traffic regulations for the streets: everyone who rode in an automobile or crossed a street on foot would be in imminent danger of death, for one could never tell in which direction cars would be coming. Collisions would be endless. Every curve in every road would have its accident, because automobiles going in opposite directions and traveling on the same side of the road would crash into each other. As it is, the road law is to *keep to the right*, and this simple regulation makes travel possible. Drivers know just what to do. In cities regulations are much more elaborate: automobiles must go at a certain speed; those going in certain directions have the right of way and certain streets are used for one-way traffic. Unfortunately, however, regulations are sometimes broken, and the breaking of them leads to the death and maiming of many persons. If everybody carefully observed traffic regulations, there would be few mishaps. Carelessness is the cause of most accidents.

Fourth of July Celebrations.—We all like to celebrate the Fourth of July, the birthday of the nation. We have found that the "sane Fourth" is the best

kind of celebration. Formerly the Fourth of July was observed by shooting off firecrackers and pistols. Some of these firecrackers were of immense size and produced almost as loud a report as a cannon. Every Fourth of July a large number of persons, mostly boys, were injured or killed by explosives and many houses were destroyed by fire. The newspapers contained long lists of terrible accidents. In recent years the shooting of pistols and firecrackers has been forbidden in large cities. The result has been that the Fourth of July accidents have nearly ceased while everybody enjoys Independence Day as much as ever.

Fire Drills.—Fire drills are a great protection to schools, as they enable children to leave the building rapidly. When a fire breaks out in a school where the rule for going out quickly has been practiced, the children almost always leave in safety.

Firemen's Methods.—All city fire departments have a thorough organization for handling fires. Usually a space for some distance about the burning area is roped off and none but firemen are permitted to come within the ropes. This is done for two reasons: citizens, if allowed to come near the burning buildings, would get in the firemen's way; and they would also be in great danger of being killed by falling walls. In order, therefore, to do their work properly and protect the public, firemen have strict regulations. Each fireman knows just what is expected of him and when the time comes he is able to do his work quickly and effectively.

Police Regulations.—The police enforce many regulations for the safety of citizens. In some cities people

are not permitted to cross the streets except at corners, in order to lessen the danger of accidents from automobiles and street cars. Another law is that fire escapes must not be clogged up. The reason for this is that they may be needed at any moment, and persons have lost their lives on account of the blocking of



AFTER THE ACCIDENT

fire escapes with luggage. People are forbidden to spit on the sidewalk, since in this way disease germs are spread, bringing suffering and death to many.

Railroad Safety.—The regulations on railroads are very strict, because the lives of people depend on regularity. Why do you suppose that trains leave at certain hours? Partly that people may know when to

go to the station, and partly because a regular schedule has much to do with insuring the safety of trains. The railroad officials and workmen know when each train is expected at each station, and this means that other trains are not likely to be in the way. Train workmen are not allowed to drink alcohol. This regulation was adopted by the railroads years ago, because it was found that drunken engineers were sometimes the cause of terrible accidents. Pedestrians are warned not to walk on railroad tracks and cross railroad bridges; many persons have been killed by getting on the tracks. Likewise, passengers are warned by notices in coaches not to stand on the platform while the train is in motion, as fatal accidents have occurred in this way. Railroad regulations forbid a train to enter a "block," or a certain small section of a road, where a train is standing, until the train already in the block has gone on. This is done to prevent collisions.

Health Laws.—No person is allowed to land from a ship coming into a port of the United States until the passengers have been examined and the health officials are satisfied that no cases of dangerous epidemic diseases are on board. Sometimes a ship is kept in *quarantine* for ten days before the officials are certain that there is no peril. When smallpox, diphtheria, scarlet fever, and some other diseases break out in a house, the occupants of that house are kept quarantined until the health authorities are satisfied that the danger of the spread of the disease is past. In every city there are authorities engaged in enforcing laws to protect the health and lives of citizens.

Theater Regulations.—In all cities there are laws

for the protection of people who visit theaters and moving pictures. Theaters are required to have asbestos curtains, so that in case a fire breaks out on the stage it can be shut off at once from the audience by the lowering of the curtain. People are not allowed to stand in the aisles of theaters; in many theaters they are not allowed to stand at all. This rule was established to prevent jams in case of panics caused by fires or other accidents. In some states the law requires moving-picture operators to be licensed, in order to prevent the occurrence of fires from ignorance and inexperience.

Handling of Crowds.—At parades and on all occasions where great crowds gather policemen are at hand to protect the public. Mounted policemen usually ride in front of parades to see that no persons are in the way. People attempting to cross a street while a parade is passing are kept back by the police. This is done to prevent accidents. If spectators were allowed to get in the way, especially in circus and automobile parades, they would be in great danger of being killed. Likewise, at open-air political gatherings policemen are stationed to preserve order and prevent overcrowding. At ball parks, policemen see that the people do not press into the entrances too rapidly. A dense crowd is a dangerous place in which to be, and people have been frequently killed or injured by being caught in jams.

Safety on Street Cars.—In many cities the street cars bear notices warning persons not to get off cars backward and not to step away from cars without watching for oncoming automobiles. These notices also urge passengers not to get on and off cars while in mo-



Photograph by Underwood and Underwood

(121)

A CIRCUS PARADE

tion and not to step across another track on alighting from a car. Many accidents have been caused by disregarding these precautions.

Protection of Employees.—In factories and mills great pains are taken to protect employees. In most factories there are notices warning employees to observe measures for their protection. In factories where flying particles cause injury to the eyes or lungs, employees are urged to wear glasses and, in some cases, gas masks, in order to protect themselves. In nearly all manufacturing plants where dangerous work is done the regulations are very strict. Observance of them usually insures the safety of workmen, and violations are frequently followed by disaster.

Safety-First Movement.—The whole country has awakened recently to the importance of the “safety-first” movement. This movement was begun some years ago by a group of public-minded citizens who were saddened by the great number of avoidable accidents that occur in the United States every year. By posting warnings in dangerous places and by other means they have aroused the people to make efforts to reduce the perils of our daily life. It is a step in the right direction. People in civilized countries should not constantly go about in danger of their lives.

TEN SAFETY-FIRST RULES

1. Never cross a street or railroad track without being sure the way is clear. Observe the rules of the traffic department when crossing streets.
2. Be careful while working with tools and machines.
3. Do not play with automobiles. Do not play in the streets.

4. Do not play with firearms or hold in the hand lighted firecrackers.
5. Keep away from open fireplaces.
6. Do not play dangerous games, such as "rock battling." Do not dare others to skate on thin ice, to climb high walls, or to jump from low buildings.
7. Do not venture into deep water either in swimming or boating unless you are a good swimmer.
8. Do not build fires with kerosene.
9. Avoid all broken wires that may be charged with electricity.
10. Do not handle gasoline, dynamite, or other explosives.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Secure for the bulletin board newspaper clippings describing accidents to children and adults.
2. Mention some state laws that help to prevent accidents on the public highways and on railroad tracks.
3. Appoint a committee to secure a copy of the traffic laws of your city. Read and discuss the most important of these rules.
4. Describe in an oral composition how you met with an accident through carelessness.
5. Find out what protection against fire your community provides.
6. Discuss and adopt a set of safety-first rules which will prevent accidents at school and in going to and returning from school.
7. Appoint a committee to make a poster containing these rules for display in your room or in the school corridor.

CHAPTER XX

FIRE PREVENTION

Problems: (1) To study fire prevention; and (2) to learn how you may help in this work.

The Cost of Fires.—Sometimes as you drive along a country highway you see standing in a deserted field or grove a lone chimney. Around it is piled rubbish fringed with rank weeds and shrubs. This dreary spot marks the place where there was once a happy home; but some one grew careless, the house caught on fire, and in a few hours nothing but a naked chimney and blackened ruins remained. There are thousands of such chimneys in America, for we have not yet learned the important lesson of fire prevention.

A Fire a Minute.—Fifteen thousand lives are lost each year in the United States by fire, while the property destruction reaches the enormous sum of \$400,000,000. You can get an idea of what this means by the following illustration: there are 1440 minutes in a day, and there are about 1500 fires every day in the United States. Watch a clock for a few minutes. Every time the long hand passes a minute mark say to yourself, "Another fire has broken out." Besides factories and hotels, eight hundred dwelling houses are destroyed by fire in our country each day of the year. The saddest fact about these fires is that so many of them are due to carelessness.

Forest Fires.—Some of the most disastrous fires that

occur are forest fires. If you live in a wooded section, you must have seen the sky lit up for miles by acres of blazing woods. The great trees were decades, perhaps centuries, in growing, but one careless act, such as a camp fire left burning, laid waste in a few hours what nature was long, long years in perfecting. It is esti-



A FOREST FIRE

mated that one third of all the timber in our country is destroyed by forest fires. The United States government has established a number of forest preserves throughout the country and maintains in each area a fire patrol to put out fires.

Fire Fighters and Insurance.—Loss of life and de-

struction of property are not all that is to be charged against fires; the people of America spend millions of dollars annually in maintaining fire departments and in paying fire insurance. Fire departments are a great comfort; we feel safer when we lie down to sleep, knowing that brave firemen will come to our help in case of fire. Still, if people were more careful and there were fewer fires, your city would not have to purchase so many engines or employ such a large number of fire fighters. Besides, many millions of dollars paid each year to fire insurance companies would be saved. Few men fail to insure their property against loss by fire, but if fires were infrequent occurrences insurance would cost much less.

Carelessness.—A fire insurance paper gives the following incidents to show that carelessness is at the bottom of some of the greatest fires. A woman in Augusta, Georgia, who was using an electric iron, forgot to turn off the current when she went to luncheon. The result of this little piece of carelessness was the burning of a large part of Augusta. Property to the value of \$5,000,000 was destroyed, and hundreds of people had to live in tents until their homes were rebuilt. In Chelsea, Texas, the people thought a “dump” was a good thing until it caught fire and burned them out of their homes. In an Ohio school a stovepipe was too near the ceiling, and one hundred and seventy-three children and three teachers paid the penalty with their lives. A man threw a lighted cigarette into some trash in a shirtwaist factory, and one hundred and forty girls died. A hundred other examples might be given.

Causes of Fire.—If you wish to prevent fires you

must watch the things listed below. With some exceptions, they are among the most useful things in the world, but, handled carelessly, they cause enormous destruction. Take up each one of these articles sepa-



Photograph by Underwood and Underwood

DANGER—CLEANING WITH GASOLINE

ately and tell how it should be handled so as to lessen the danger of fires:

Matches.

Bonfires.

Lamps.

Stoves.

Gasoline.

Electricity.

Waste paper and rags.

Lighted cigarettes and cigars.

How the Community Works to Prevent Fires.—We have many laws to prevent fires. It is against the law,

for instance, to sell kerosene after dark. Nearly every state has laws stating in what way gasoline, gunpowder, and other explosives and inflammable material shall be stored. Cities have codes requiring that buildings of a certain height shall be fireproof; that in certain sections all buildings must be of brick or stone; that buildings of a certain height must be equipped with fire escapes; and that all electric wiring must be done in a thorough manner. A person who seeks to erect a building of any kind must go to the building inspector's office, file plans, and secure a permit. The law requires that theaters, hotels, and other public buildings shall have a sufficient number of exits, clearly marked with red lights. The law also demands that the doors of public buildings, including schoolhouses, shall open outward. There are other regulations of a similar sort.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Inspect carefully your home from cellar to garret, including the back yard, and make a list of the things that might cause a fire. Pay special attention to stovepipes, waste paper, kerosene, matches, and oiled rags. Give this list to your parents and do what you can to remove the dangers.
2. Appoint a committee of your club to inspect the school for the purpose of making a similar list.
3. Invite a fireman to visit your school and talk to you about fire prevention. Have him explain to you how to turn in a fire alarm.
4. Invite some pupil to bring a fire extinguisher to school and demonstrate how it puts out a fire.
5. Get the entire school to observe a fire prevention week during which cellars, garrets, and back yards are to be cleaned up with the view of lessening fire hazards.

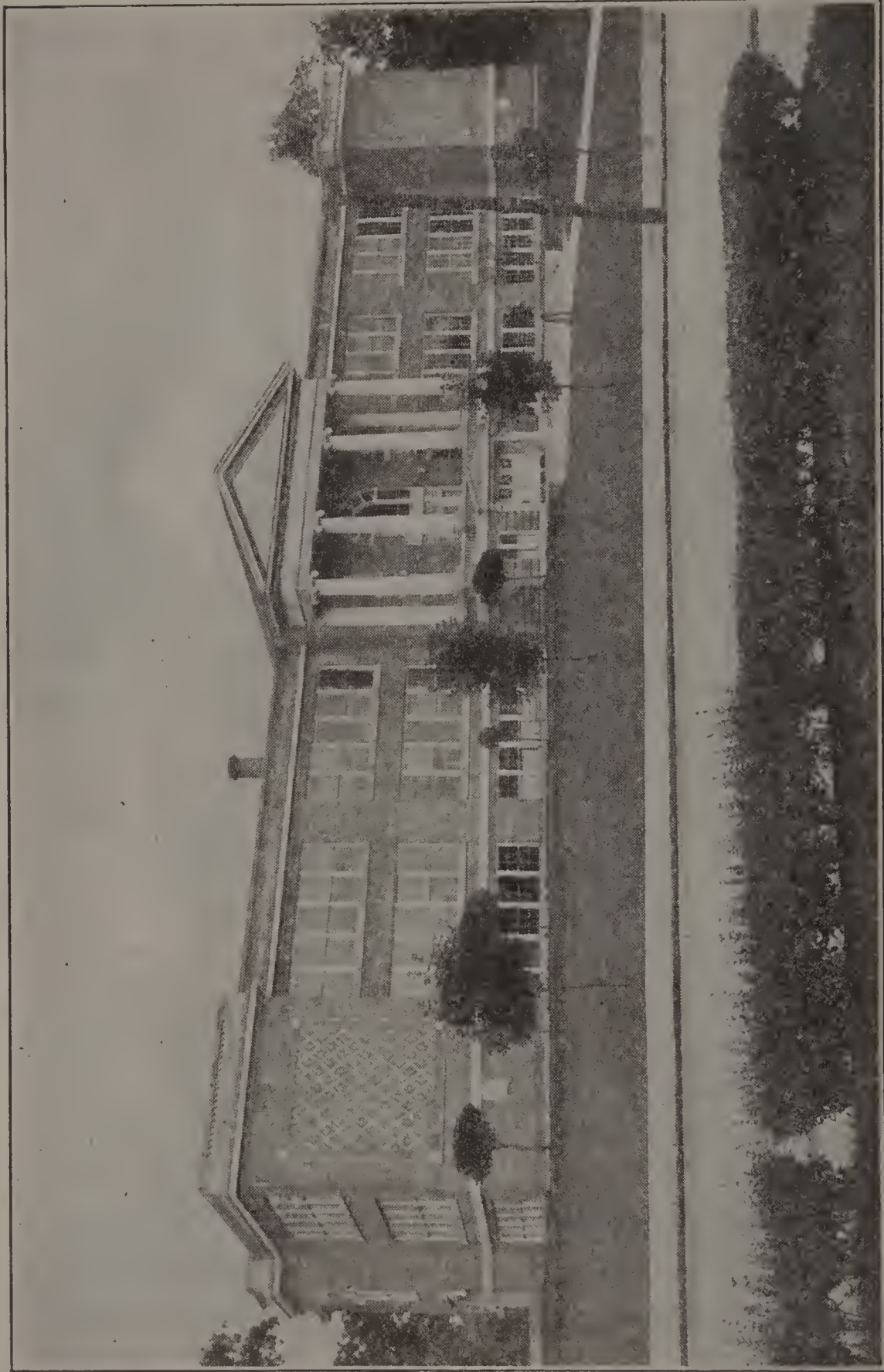
CHAPTER XXI

EDUCATION

Problem: (1) To study the growth of schools; and (2) to find out all you can about the schools of your community and your state.

Early Schools.—Once upon a time there were few schools; the majority of people did not go to school at all. Taxes were not paid, as they are now, in order to provide education for all the children of a neighborhood. Men of means would hire a teacher to instruct their children or a teacher would come into a neighborhood and open a school as a business, charging children a certain fee for attending it. Thus education was the property of a few, not the free possession of all. There was a vast difference in every neighborhood between the men of learning and the poor people who could not read **or** write and who had to make their mark when they signed a legal document.

Public Schools.—In the United States, however, there early arose a feeling that everybody should have some education. It was felt that it was a good investment to found schools which all children might attend free of charge. Property owners in some places were persuaded that it would be to their benefit, as well as to the benefit of others, to pay taxes for free schools. They came to see that the greater intelligence of the people resulting from education increased the wealth of a locality. There was another reason why free



A MODERN SCHOOL BUILDING

schools were needed. Early in the nineteenth century many of the states of the United States conferred on all male citizens the right to vote; before this time only property owners voted. It would not do to have voters who could not read, for such men would not vote intelligently. Consequently some of the states established public schools, and gradually the system spread throughout the country. At present every state in the Union has good public schools employing large numbers of teachers and spending millions of dollars. No investment ever brought so rich a return as public schools have to the United States. Partly because of them America is the foremost country on earth.

Democracy and Schools.—The public schools have had much to do with the growth of democracy in the United States. There is no longer the old division between the educated and the illiterate. In modern communities, all the people have some education. Men who work in manual trades are well informed instead of being ignorant and helpless, as they once were. Indeed, there is no great difference between the workmen of today, intelligent, well paid, and well dressed, and business and professional men. The public schools, then, have done much to overthrow the old differences between persons based on difference in knowledge, and to put people who were once poor and ignorant on a level with the educated. This is true democracy.

Place of the School.—The place of the school in the life of the community is constantly widening in scope. Fine buildings replace the cabins that were once schoolhouses. Once the “three R’s,” reading, writing,

and arithmetic, were all that was taught. Today schools not only give literary instruction, but train boys and girls in ways of making a living. They also serve as community centers, for adults as well as for children. School buildings are used for lectures, amusements, and public meetings. Teachers take an equal part in community affairs with lawyers and preachers. Their knowledge makes them valuable, and they more and more tend to become leaders in local and national affairs. They hold important offices in every city and state, and not many years ago a teacher was President of the United States. In every way the influence of schools is growing, broadening the country and bringing it countless benefits.

Elementary Education.—Elementary education is that period of schooling that extends from the age of six to about fourteen or fifteen. In many states elementary education is enforced by law, and the parents who do not send their children to school are liable to punishment. In this way the government protects children against the possible carelessness of parents. In the elementary schools children learn reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar and composition, geography, history, and other branches. They also often take up domestic science and manual training. The result of this system is that boys and girls who have to leave school at the end of the elementary period are not unprepared for the duties of life. Yet the benefits of high school are great. Boys and girls who attend high school put a finish on elementary education that is of the utmost importance afterward. It marks the difference between knowing things a little and knowing

them well. High school graduates are able to use English to better advantage than people who have had only elementary education. Their knowledge of mathematics is much greater. A further study of history and government broadens their vision and increases their knowledge of geography, while science prepares them to live and work in the modern world.



A CLASS IN COOKING

They are ready for the battle of life and therefore their chances of success are good.

Vocational Education.—One of the most important aims of education is to prepare boys and girls for occupations. Many states now provide vocational schools where skilled trades and other callings are taught. Trades, agriculture, business, domestic occupations may all be learned in these schools, and in most states colleges for teaching law, educational work,

medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and the various branches of engineering are supported by the government. The opportunities for obtaining education of any sort are now so great that few boys or girls remain ignorant and inefficient except by choice.

Special Schools.—Many boys and girls wish to learn an occupation without being able to give their whole time to the training. Some are obliged to go to work to support themselves on leaving the elementary school or high school. Modern schools provide for the needs of these ambitious workers. Part-time schools give students the opportunity to make a living at their trades while learning; they go to school for a time and also work at their occupations, and continue this until they have mastered their callings. Night schools provide instruction for those who have no opportunity to attend part-time schools. Most of the states now support extension work in education. By this method teachers from colleges go from place to place giving instruction in all sorts of subjects; information is also sent out from extension centers to those who desire it. Further, there are correspondence schools which conduct regular courses in almost every branch of learning through the mails, first sending information and then examination questions. There are many other kinds of schools. One of the most interesting is the open-air school, which is intended to strengthen the health of delicate children.

Control of Education.—While the United States government maintains an educational bureau and spends much money in promoting public instruction, control of education is in the hands of the states. In fact, it is the most important function of the states.

In every commonwealth there is a head of the educational system, called state superintendent or commissioner of education. In many states there are boards of education, which usually adopt the textbooks to be used in elementary and high schools. Locally, schools are controlled by city and county boards.

Payment for Education.—Schools are largely supported by local taxation—usually a part of the tax on real estate and other property goes to them. The state also levies special taxes for education and maintains educational funds: this money is distributed among the localities in aid of the schools. In some states, for instance, the state government pays a part of the cost of new school buildings while the locality bears the remainder. In this way, better school buildings are constructed now than formerly. It is interesting to note that the amount of money spent on public education is constantly increasing and that taxation for this purpose is borne by the citizens without complaint. The benefits of education are so great and so obvious that few people murmur against a system which imposes a small burden on everybody for the good of all.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Find out all you can about compulsory education laws and whether your state has any.

2. Answer these questions:

What board has charge of the affairs of your school?

Are you going to high school? To college? Why?

Does your state help boys and girls to go to college? Where?
How?

What colleges and universities are there in your state?

3. Discuss in class this question: Should children be compelled to attend school?

CHAPTER XXII

LAWS

Problems: To learn (1) something about the laws; and (2) the penalties for their violation.

What Laws Are.—Laws are regulations made by the government to protect life, property, health, dumb animals, business, institutions, the rights of people, and other things. Many laws permit us to act in certain ways. Many other laws *prohibit* us from certain actions. To violate laws which prohibit the doing of things is to make oneself liable to penalties. Serious violation is *crime*, and crime is considered an offense against the community and is punished by it. To act against the law in ways which affect not the community but only private persons, especially the property of persons, is to make oneself liable to *civil* suits—that is, to lawsuits to gain compensation or damages.

Cases in Court.—Cases of petty violation of laws and suits in regard to small debts and small amounts of property are tried in the lowest courts, the justices' courts in the county and the police courts in cities. Cases of graver crime or those involving larger amounts of property come before the circuit court in the county and the circuit or corporation court in the city. Cases tried in these courts are often *appealed*—that is, carried to higher courts. This is especially true of civil suits; there must be special reasons for carrying criminal cases to other courts. The supreme court is the highest state

court, but from its decisions there is an appeal to the United States Supreme Court in certain cases. But since the latter court can only hear cases that concern in some way the powers of the United States government, most cases go no farther than the state courts.

Penalties for Crime.—Crime is a serious matter. In former times nearly all crimes were punished by death: theft of property of more than a shilling's worth; forgery; counterfeiting; robbery; housebreaking and burglary, and others. Small offenses met with such penalties as the pillory, which was a wooden board that held the hands fast, or the stocks, which was a frame that confined the legs. The prisoner in the pillory or stocks had to remain motionless for hours in some public place, exposed to heat or cold and the insults of passers-by. Other offenses were punished by public whippings; the whipping post was a prominent feature of every community a century or so ago.

Improvement in Law.—People felt that such laws were too severe, that an effort should be made to reclaim criminals rather than kill or hurt them. In the United States, Thomas Jefferson was among the first to soften the laws: he revised the criminal code of Virginia. About a century and a quarter ago penitentiaries began to be built, and criminals were confined in them for a term instead of being hanged or whipped for offenses. Before this time prisoners had been kept in jail awaiting trial or until the payment of their debts, but not as punishment.

Laws Benefit All.—Because of the laws against killing or injuring people and taking their property from them, the great majority of persons go about their work

in security. Many crimes are indeed committed, but they are few in comparison with the number of people who go through their lives without criminal injuries. It is the duty of all citizens to teach respect for law by their example. People are often tempted to violate the law in small ways, such as failing to obey the traffic regulations. Small violations of law, however, tend in the long run to weaken the respect of the public for law, and in that way to injure the community.

Anarchy.—The condition when law is generally unobserved, or when there is no such thing as law, is called *anarchy*. Wherever there is anarchy the sufferings of the people are terrible. Murder and robbery go unpunished; the brutal overpower the weak; and human beings become like beasts. Probably the greatest evil that can befall a community—local or national—is to fall into anarchy.

Progress and Law.—Human progress is to a large extent the result of law. Because the law has protected the lives and property of men they have gone about their work in peace, built homes, saved money, and made discoveries and inventions. Those countries where the law is enforced are usually prosperous and happy: countries where the law may be broken without much danger of punishment are nearly always backward and miserable. In such lands life is never safe, and everyone fears that robbers will take his property. In the following chapter we shall study the methods of the government in seeking to find the probable criminal when a crime has been committed and then to determine whether the accused person is guilty or innocent.

Prison Reform.—Confinement in prison has undergone a great change from early times. Children were kept in prison with older criminals, a practice which hardened them in wrongdoing. The inmates were harshly treated by the prison officials: they wore repulsive clothes; they worked hard, or were kept in solitary confinement; they had almost no recreations to lighten their dark days. Few of them ever reformed, because the treatment they received tended to drive them to despair. But at present imprisonment is very different. Convicts are now kept in prison, not only because they would be a danger to the community if they were allowed to run free, but in order to *reform* them. Many criminals are ignorant men who have had no home training, and who commit crimes without clearly understanding the wrongfulness of their acts. In prison they are taught right and wrong, and are frequently led to a better life. They are given good books to read, and they have pleasures and outdoor sports as well as duties. Children are no longer kept in prisons with grown criminals. When they commit crimes, they are sent to reformatories, where they receive a good moral training and are taught trades. Often they become useful citizens when they go out into the world. At present, criminals sometimes have their sentences suspended—that is, they do not go to prison so long as they live rightly—while other criminals are released from the penitentiary after serving a part of their sentences, and do not have to go back unless they break the laws again. In the same way, children who have committed offenses are put on *probation*—that is, they are permitted to go at large so long as they

behave themselves and report to the court at regular intervals. The tendency of modern imprisonment for crime is to fit inmates of prisons and reformatories for the struggle of life, so that the weak and ignorant may gain strength and knowledge. The theory is that one who commits a crime is, in a sense, sick and in need of moral and mental treatment of a certain kind which will bring him into harmony with the world.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Appoint a committee to visit your county jail and find out why the prisoners are confined.
2. Tell what you know of prison improvement.
3. Debate this question: *Resolved*, That capital punishment should be abolished.

CHAPTER XXIII

TRIALS

Problems: (1) To study the various stages of a trial; and (2) to learn why the forms of the law should be strictly observed.

Criminal Investigation.—When a crime has been committed, the officers of the law at once *arrest* the person or the persons known or suspected to be guilty, if there is knowledge or strong suspicion. Sometimes, however, not only is the identity of the criminal unknown but it is even uncertain whether or not a crime has actually been committed. This often happens in the case of mysterious deaths. The *coroner*, whose duty it is to investigate all cases of death by violence or from unknown causes, forms a coroner's jury, and this jury decides if there is good reason for suspecting a crime.

The Grand Jury.—In the case of murder and of all other grave crimes, a *grand jury*, so called because it usually consists of a rather large number of members, sits to consider the evidence. If a murder has been committed and the criminal is unknown, the officers of the law—the sheriff and prosecuting attorney—with the help of police or detectives, seek to discover clues that will fasten the guilt on some one. If the evidence seems sufficient, a *warrant* is issued by the officers of the law and the suspected person is arrested and lodged in jail. In less serious offenses, he will be released for

a time if he can find friends to *go bail* for him. That is, the suspected person is freed when some other persons agree to pay a certain sum of money if he fails to appear for trial at a certain date, and give security for it. Persons suspected of murder are usually not bailed. At a certain time the grand jury, which may be the regular jury that considers all crimes committed within a period of time, or a special jury convened for the case, hears the evidence and decides whether or not the suspected person should be held for trial.

The Indictment.—If the grand jury finds that the evidence points to the guilt of the suspected person, he is held for trial and an *indictment* is framed. The indictment is a statement of facts about the crime committed and it must be drawn in strict conformity with the law or else the trial that follows may be thrown out by a higher court. The indictment is the act that hands the suspected person from the grand jury to the trial jury.

The Petit Jury.—The trial jury is known as the *petit*, or little jury, because it is smaller than the grand jury, consisting of twelve men or twelve men and women. Why is a man accused of crime tried by a jury at all? The practice comes down from the distant past of England, when persons on trial often could not depend on judges for right treatment. It was found that a man had a better chance to secure justice when a jury of his neighbors sat to decide if he had committed a crime than when a judge, who might have reasons to be unfair, decided the matter. Consequently, trial by jury became fixed in English law and

the usage has descended to us. The jury is chosen by lot from a number of names in a box. Both the prosecuting attorney and the attorney for the defense have the right to challenge the selection of persons whom they think may not be just to their side of the case.

Fairness of the Jury.—The law lays much stress on getting unprejudiced jurors. Persons called for jury duty are always asked if they have read newspaper accounts of the crime and made up their minds as to the guilt of the person accused. If they have done so, they are not accepted as jurymen. How careful the law is to secure fair-minded juries is illustrated by the famous Chicago anarchist case of 1886.

In May, 1886, as police officers were dispersing a meeting of strikers in Chicago, some unknown person threw a bomb, killing and wounding a number of the policemen. Since the anarchists of Chicago, by means of publications and speeches, had been urging strikers to commit dynamite outrages, they were brought to trial as accomplices, or aiders, in the murders. Public feeling in Chicago ran high against them. Large numbers of people were examined for jury duty and were not accepted on account of their having formed a positive opinion on the case. Not until weeks had passed and nearly a thousand men had been examined was a jury at length selected.

The Trial.—The *prosecuting attorney*, or commonwealth's attorney, begins the trial by bringing forward the "witnesses for the prosecution." These are persons whose testimony tends to prove that the accused has committed the crime. After they have told their stories, the attorney for the defense seeks to break down their evidence by *cross-examining* them—that is, attempting by means of questions to catch them in contradictory statements and so make it appear that

they are mistaken. In the same way, the prosecuting attorney cross-examines the witnesses for the defense, whose statements go to show that the defendant did not commit the crime. When the witnesses on both sides are dismissed, the prosecuting attorney and the attorney for the defense sum up the case in speeches.



Courtesy of the *Philadelphia Public Ledger*

A TRIAL IN PROGRESS

The judge then reviews the evidence and tells the jury what the law is. The final act takes place when the jury goes to a private room and decides on its verdict. Sometimes hours or days pass before an agreement can be reached, for it is necessary for the decision of a jury in a criminal trial to be unanimous, though not always so in civil suits in some states. When the jury has

agreed on a verdict, it goes back to the court room, and the foreman informs the judge. In case of murder in the first degree, the law usually fixes the punishment at death or imprisonment for life. In other crimes, the judge in some states determines what the prison sentence shall be: he has great latitude in this respect. In case the jury reports "Not guilty," the person on trial is at once released and he cannot be tried again for the same crime even though new evidence comes to light. By English law, which in its principles is also American law, a man can be tried only once on a charge unless the jury fails to render a verdict one way or the other.

Necessary to Prove Guilt.—In some countries of the world, persons on trial have to prove their innocence. By English and American law, a man is supposed to be innocent until he is proved guilty. Actual proof is necessary: no matter how strong the belief in the prisoner's guilt may be, he is released unless evidence is brought forward by the prosecution. This attempt of the law to protect the rights of persons being tried is well illustrated in the famous trial of Aaron Burr for treason in 1807.

Aaron Burr, who had been Vice President of the United States, was put on trial in 1807 at Richmond, Virginia, before the United States court, with Chief Justice Marshall presiding. It was very generally believed that Burr intended to separate the Southwest from the United States and set up another republic or an empire and that he had raised a body of armed men for that purpose. That he had raised a body of armed men for some purpose was certain, but it was not shown that he had actually done anything hostile to the United States. Justice Marshall summed up the evidence in favor of Burr, because the Constitution of the

United States declares that treason consists in making war against the United States or in aiding an enemy to make war and it had not been proved that Burr had done this. Burr was thereupon acquitted, though the jury was so hostile to him that instead of rendering a verdict of "Not guilty," it brought in one of "Not proven."

Witnesses Must be Allowed to Testify.—In another way the law seeks to protect a person on trial. It affords him every opportunity to bring forward testimony in his favor. The attorney for the defense has the right to present anybody who has evidence to give, and the prosecuting attorney cannot hinder this. The judge sees that both sides in the case have fair play during the trial. In the one celebrated instance in American history where a judge was notably unfair to the accused, he himself was later brought to trial and narrowly escaped removal from the bench by way of punishment.

Right of Appeal.—In the effort to secure justice, the law permits a person convicted of crime to appeal from the court in which the case is tried to a higher court if any mistake or irregularity has occurred in the trial. If the higher court finds that the case has not been tried in full agreement with the law, it may order a new trial. If this is done, a new jury is drawn and the evidence is once more presented. It often happens that a second trial results in the acquittal of the prisoner or in a lightening of his sentence. Thus while a man who is acquitted cannot be tried a second time for the same offense, a man who has been convicted may be, provided that a court of appeals decides that the trial has not been entirely in agreement with the law or there is some other weighty reason. This is a good

illustration of the intent of the law to prevent innocent persons from being convicted of crime and suffering unmerited punishment.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

Have legal forms an important meaning? Why do you think so?

What are some of the safeguards of the law?

What legal principle is illustrated by the Burr trial?

Why must the jury agree in a criminal trial?

2. Describe the process by which a jury is chosen. What instances can you give of the care of the law in selecting jurymen?

3. During the next session of your circuit or corporation court visit the court room and watch the proceedings.

4. Stage a mock trial, following the procedure of your court.

CHAPTER XXIV

CITY GOVERNMENT

Problems: (1) To study the various forms of city government; and (2) to discuss the best form.

How a Village Grows into a Town.—A village consisting of, let us say, a store, a church, and half a dozen homes has no occasion for a government separate from the county or district in which it is situated. When, however, the village grows into a place of a thousand or more inhabitants, it has needs which begin to cut it off from the county: it must have streets, lights, sewers, a water system, policemen, and firemen. The community therefore becomes incorporated; that is, it gets from the legislature a *town charter* which permits it to have a mayor and council and a few officers of its own. But the town does not separate entirely from the county; it is still, to some extent, a part of the county, having many things in common with the county.

How the Town Becomes a City.—As the years go by, this town or borough may grow into a place of many thousand people, with factories and mills. It needs a government strictly its own and obtains a *city charter* from the legislature. In many states it then becomes entirely separate from the county within whose limits it lies. The county has one government, the city another and distinct government of its own. In some states, however, a city remains a part of the

county. The city charter enumerates the officers and departments the city is to have, with their powers, and tells how the city laws, or ordinances, are to be made and how the funds are to be raised for the city government. The powers of this government are strictly defined by the charter; it cannot do anything that is not expressly permitted by the charter.

The Three Forms of City Government.—There are three forms of city government, the *council*, the *com-*



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

NEW YORK SKYLINE

mission, and the *city* or *business manager*. In the first form, the council is the chief arm of the government; in the second, a commission is in authority; in the third, a single person, the city manager, directs affairs. The council is the old form of city government and most cities are still conducted under it. The commission and city manager types of government came into existence not many years ago; a number of cities have adopted one or the other of these newer systems.

Branches of City Government.—City government, like state and national, has three branches—the executive, the legislative, the judicial. In the council system, city government closely resembles state and national government; but in the commission and city manager plans the difference is radical.

Executive Branch.—The mayor is the head of the executive branch of the government in the council plan. His duties are important. He has charge of the city just as the president of a manufacturing company has general control of the factory. He must see that the various departments do their work properly. He usually appoints and removes the heads of departments. He advises the council on the passage of city laws, or ordinances, and the raising of revenue. At one time the mayor was also the judge of the city police court, but this duty has been taken from him. The mayor, however, continues to preside at public meetings and to welcome distinguished visitors to the city. In the commission form of government, the mayor is one of the commissioners and has little more power than his associates. In the city manager government, the mayor has even less power.

The Departments.—Large cities have many departments, sometimes, as in the case of New York, employing thousands of clerks. The following is a list of the departments in a certain city of 200,000 people:

Schools.	Public Utilities.
Law.	Public Works.
Finance.	Public Welfare.

The department of law represents the city in suits and gives it legal advice; that of finance collects and

disburses the city's funds; that of public welfare takes care of the purity of the food supply, hospitals, public baths, and street cleaning; that of public utilities manages the gas, water, and electric lighting plants of the city; that of public works cares for the making and upkeep of streets, bridges, playgrounds, parks, and cemeteries; that of schools attends to public education.

Legislative Branch.—In the council government, the legislative branch is the most important. The size of the council varies considerably in different cities, being larger in large cities. The members are not paid and serve from a sense of duty or as a means of bringing themselves to public notice. Meetings are usually held every week or two weeks. The council sometimes wields a great power, authorizing public works that cost millions of dollars. In the commission and city manager governments, the council lessens in importance. Cities may not even have a council, since the commission may take its place. In city manager government the council usually passes measures recommended by the city manager. The city council ordinarily consists of two bodies, the board of aldermen and the common council. In most cities, the members of the council are elected from wards into which the city is divided; sometimes the whole body of voters elects the entire council.

How Ordinances are Passed.—You may be interested to know how an ordinance is passed. The council is a rather informal body, very unlike legislatures and Congress, which have elaborate rules. Discussion is more or less open, much like the meetings of boards. A member of one branch of the council introduces a



Copyright, Aeromarine Flying Company

AN AIRSHIP ABOVE NEW YORK

(152)

measure, often after getting the advice of the city attorney. The proposed ordinance is then referred to a committee, which considers it and sends it back to the council with a favorable or unfavorable report. If it is passed in this branch of the council, it is then sent on to the other branch, where the same course is followed. After it has passed both branches, it goes to the mayor for approval. The council committees usually correspond to the departments of the city government. Sometimes they are important, because in some cases efforts are made to smuggle improper measures through committees and have them passed as ordinances.

The City Budget.—Many cities now have what is called a *budget*. The budget shows how much money the city will have for the coming year and divides it among the various departments according to their wants. Each department tries to convince the finance committee, which makes the budget, that it needs more money than is assigned it, and frequent “hearings” are devoted to the budget.

Judicial Branch.—In some cities there is a *circuit* or district court. Other cities have no circuit court but only the *corporation* or hustings court. The *police* court, presided over by the police judge, hears cases in which people are charged with violations of the city ordinances—also small crimes, such as petty thefts, and some other cases. The *juvenile* court tries the cases of children of certain ages. Children are rarely punished by juvenile courts for first offenses; they are put “on probation”—that is, they are allowed to go home but are required to appear before the judge at intervals and show that they are behaving properly.

The probation method has sometimes turned reckless boys into good citizens. There are many other city courts. In some cities there are *criminal* courts dealing only with crimes. The *law and equity* court handles disputes arising from property and contracts. The *orphan's* or *probate* court admits wills to record, settles estates left by deceased persons, and appoints guardians for children.

The People's Share in City Government.—The government of a great city, spending many millions of dollars a year, is a complex and difficult matter. It has been hard, however, to arouse the people of the United States to the importance of city government. For this reason many abuses in the management of municipal affairs have arisen. A few years ago cities were frequently governed by small groups of politicians and business men without regard to the public welfare. That was the day of the “boss,” who kept his friends in power and had ordinances passed for the benefit of certain interests. But there has been so strong a revolt against this system that in many cities bosses no longer exist. Such organizations as the Chamber of Commerce and the Civic Improvement Association have helped city government by carrying on campaigns for needed changes and improvements. The newspapers, by attacking corrupt methods, have done much to bring about a better era in city government.

Council Form.—As said before, the oldest form of city government and the one followed in most cities is the council form. Its features have been included in the foregoing discussion.

Commission Form.—The commission city govern-

ment grew out of the demand for better administration. It was felt that the councils were usually too large and too busy to do their work properly, for councilmen are not able to devote much time to public affairs. People came to believe that city government would be better if it was looked on as business rather than politics, and that trained experts would handle the government more efficiently and economically than politicians. For these reasons the commission government came into existence—originally at Galveston, Texas. Under this plan there are three or five commissioners, elected by the people for a certain term of years. They are sometimes associated with a council, but in other cases pass the laws as well as carry them out. The commissioners therefore are in complete control of the city for the term of their office, appointing and removing officials and seeing that the departments are rightly conducted. If they do not give satisfaction, they are defeated for another term in the following election.

City Manager.—The city manager government is a kind of compromise between the council and commission plans. The city manager has far greater power than the mayor in the council government: his control of the departments is usually absolute and the council ordinarily passes such ordinances as he wishes. But the council is not done away with; it exists and has some power, especially over finances. It thus acts as a sort of check on the city manager. This plan of municipal government originated in Staunton, Virginia. Dayton, Ohio, and some other important cities have adopted it and it seems to be more popular at present than the commission plan.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the officers of your city who are elected by the people and another list of those who are appointed.
2. Appoint classmates to make reports on council government; on the city manager plan; on the commission form of government.
3. Appoint a classmate to report on the form of government in your town.
4. Vote on the plan of city government which you think best.
5. Appoint a committee to examine your city charter and report on it. They should tell how the charter can be changed.
6. Place on your bulletin board all the clippings from the newspapers that refer to new ordinances passed by your city council. Include also clippings that tell of the work of the different city departments.

CHAPTER XXV

COUNTY GOVERNMENT

Problems: (1) To study county government; and (2) to find out all you can about county officers.

Importance of the Local Community.—When we are about to elect a President, or when we are at war with a foreign country, we hear a great deal about the nation. When a governor and members of the legislature are to be elected, we hear much about the state. After all, however, the most important government to us is that with which we come in closest contact—that of our county, town, or city. Every year your father has to pay his taxes. The amount depends largely upon what it costs to conduct the affairs of the county or city. Do you have good roads, streets, and schools? Your county government is good or bad according to the answer made to these questions. It is therefore important to make a careful study of the local government, so that when you are grown you may know its needs and vote for officers who will attend to them honestly and skillfully.

Origin of the County.—Long before our country was settled the county form of government existed in England. The colonists who settled in Virginia brought this form of local government with them, and gradually each state has been divided into counties. The New England colonies did not have this kind of local government, but each little settlement or town governed itself.

Although the New England states are now divided into counties, yet the people of this section still cling to their "Town Meeting." It has thus come about that there are different types of counties in different states. The chief difference is that in some states the county government practically controls all important local affairs, while in other states the district or township is the main unit in county government. In Virginia and other states, the different districts of the county are not very important. The taxes are levied and all the county affairs are managed by a board of supervisors or commissioners who meet regularly at the county seat. In the New England states, on the contrary, each district or "town" governs itself, and the county has little power.

"Town Meeting."—The "Town Meeting" in New England (which is a district meeting) is a very interesting event. The voters come together once a year, vote on the tax rate, choose their selectmen, school trustees, and other officials, and decide all other questions brought up for discussion. The fact that most citizens take part in these meetings and mingle in the discussions has had much to do with training the people in self-government and democratic customs.

County Supervisors or Commissioners.—In many states the most important county officers are the supervisors or commissioners. They come together at the courthouse, just as a town or city council meets in the city hall, and decide all important questions for the county. They fix the tax rate, appropriate money for schools and roads, maintain county hospitals and farms for the sick and for paupers, offer rewards for the

capture of criminals, and pass such laws for the county as the state permits counties to pass. The legislative power of the county government is not large. County government is mainly executive.

The Sheriff.—You are perhaps familiar with the duties of the sheriff of your county. He has charge of the jail, arrests criminals, preserves the peace, and in some states collects the taxes. He is the most respon-



A MODERN BRIDGE

sible officer in the county, because the preservation of order depends on him.

The Superintendent of Schools.—This officer has general charge of all the public schools of the county. In many sections of the country the county superintendent acts largely as an adviser, because each district or town has a school board on which rests the duty of managing the schools. You should make a careful study of how your schools are conducted. Who makes the rules for pupils and teachers? How are the school

trustees chosen? Do you have a county school board, or does each district have trustees? What does it cost each year to run your school, and where do the funds come from?

The Clerk of the Court.—This officer has many important duties. He records deeds and wills, issues marriage licenses, and keeps the records of all cases tried in the courts. Have you ever visited the clerk's office at the courthouse? It is very interesting to see the great books in which the records are kept and the fireproof cases in which these books are protected against fire.

The Prosecuting Attorney.—This officer is a lawyer, of course, and it is his duty to prosecute all persons charged with crime. If a man commits a crime, the sheriff arrests him and places him in jail until he can be tried. When he is brought to trial, the prosecuting attorney conducts the case against him and tries to convict him, provided the evidence tends to show that he is guilty.

Other County Officers.—Other officers are treasurer; tax assessor; coroner; road engineer; health officer; constable, and justice of the peace.

How County Officers Are Chosen.—The supervisors, sheriff, clerk of the court, and most other county officers are elected by the voters, usually for a term of from two to four years. If they are honest and capable, the county's business will be economically and wisely conducted. It is therefore the duty of all grown persons to become voters and help to put into office the most capable men.

County Courts.—Formerly in many states each

county had its own court, which tried all the cases relating to that county. In most states at present there are circuit, or district, courts comprising several counties, or a city and one or more counties. The circuit judge holds court at one county courthouse in his circuit and then goes to another. This system reduces somewhat the cost of maintaining courts. There is also a chancery court, usually presided over by the circuit judge, to hear certain cases; and justices' courts, which try such small offenses as are dealt with in cities by the police court.

How the County Gets Money.—Money is needed to pay the salaries of the officers, and to carry on the work of a county. Thousands of dollars must be spent annually on schools and roads. This money is raised by levying taxes on each person according to the property he owns; corporations, such as railroads and mining companies, pay taxes as well as individuals. Some persons give false information about the value of their property in order to escape paying their just share. The good citizen is willing to do his full part toward paying the expenses of his county or town government.

The County and the State.—The county is a part of the state, and as such must obey all state laws. If the legislature passes a law requiring all children to attend school, the county cannot change this law. The courts in a county are state courts; when a person commits a theft or attempts to kill another person he is violating the state law. Most states now help the counties to support schools and build roads, and in doing so make laws setting forth in what manner schools shall be con-

ducted and how roads shall be built. Some people argue that the state will gradually exercise so much authority that there will be no need for county government. But this is improbable.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. See how many of these questions you can answer:

How many counties are in your state?

How many districts or townships are in your county?

Are the supervisors or commissioners elected from the county at large or by districts and townships?

Has your county government a head whose duties are similar to those of the mayor of a city or the governor of a state?

What officers of your county are not elected by the people?

Why is the justice of the peace an important officer? What kind of cases does he try?

How does your county safeguard the health of its citizens?

How are your officials paid—by fees or salaries?

How are roads built and repaired in your county? Does the county do this important work or is it left to the districts?

2. Make a visit to the county seat and report to the class on the uses to which the various buildings are put.

3. Mention some state laws that must be obeyed in your county, also a law made by the county itself.

4. Find out all you can about the duties of county commissioners.

CHAPTER XXVI

STATE GOVERNMENT

Problems: To learn (1) the activities of the various branches of the state government; and (2) the principles of the political parties.

States and Their Constitutions.—When you hear people talk of the governor, the legislature, and the courts, you think of the state, for these things belong to the state government. You think of Tennessee, Massachusetts, Indiana, and other states. How did the states come into being? The original states were colonies of England and were thirteen in number. Each colony had its governor, its legislature, and its courts. When the American colonies revolted from England, they had to form new governments and to define their exact powers. Such plans of government are called *constitutions*. As each new state has been formed, it, too, has adopted a constitution. There are forty-eight states in the Union, and therefore forty-eight different constitutions. All of the state constitutions, however, agree in one thing—they contain nothing contrary to the Constitution of the United States, which is the supreme law of the land. While the state constitutions differ much in details, they are alike in the great principles of government. All of them secure to the people certain rights that have come down from foregoing generations.

How Constitutions Are Made and Changed.—A

state constitution is made by a constitutional convention composed of delegates elected by the counties and cities. They discuss each clause of the proposed constitution day by day for weeks or months and decide what shall be accepted. Thus a constitution grows, little by little, from a few principles until it covers all the subjects that lie within the power of the state. When the convention has framed the constitution, it is usually, but not always, offered to the people for adoption or rejection. The constitution may be changed by *amendments*. In most states an amendment is first accepted by the legislature, and is then voted on by the people at the following regular election. In a few states the people themselves, by a system called the *initiative and referendum*, change the constitution without action by the legislature. For instance, in Oregon, if eight per cent of the voters of the state sign a petition asking for a certain amendment, the latter is submitted to the vote of the people, and, if approved by a majority at the election, it becomes law without further measures. The initiative and referendum are also used in the case of laws passed by the legislature. By means of them, the people have a direct part in lawmaking. The state government, like that of the city, has executive, legislative, and judicial branches.

The Governor.—The highest officer of the state is the governor, the chief executive. He is elected for a term of two or four years, according to the state. In Virginia the term is four years; in South Carolina it is two years. His powers are much the same in all states. The governor's most important duties are as follows:

1. To send a message to the legislature on its meeting, recommending the passage of certain laws. In some states the governor draws up a budget outlining the expenses of the state government according to his recommendations. This budget shows the people about how much the government should cost and how the money should be spent.

2. To appoint many officials, including the heads of a number of departments. In some states the adjutant-general, the head of the department of fisheries, and many other officials are appointed by the governor. In some states the governor appoints the judges of the higher courts, or some of them. However, the governor has power of removal in only a few cases.

3. To veto bills passed by the legislature if they meet with his disapproval. When a bill is vetoed by the governor, it is sent back to the legislature, and may be passed over his veto by a two-thirds vote.

4. To call out the state militia when local officials cannot protect life and property.

5. To inspect the different state institutions to see that they are properly managed.

6. To pardon persons convicted of crime. In some states this power has been taken away from the governor and given to a board of pardons.

Other State Officers.—Other important state officers are: the *lieutenant-governor*, who presides over the state senate and takes the governor's place when he is sick or absent from the state, and succeeds him in case he dies before the end of his term. The *secretary of state*, who has certain legal functions to perform. The *treasurer*, who cares for the state's money, and pays it

out on the auditor's demand. The *auditor*—sometimes there are a first and second auditor—who sees to the collection of the state's money. The *attorney-general*, who has charge of suits brought by the state and defends the state against suits. The *adjutant-general*, who controls the state militia. The *superintendent of public instruction*, or *commissioner of education*, who directs the public school system. The *highway commissioner*, who has control of the state's part in road building. The *insurance commissioner*, who examines the insurance companies doing business in the state. The *commissioner of charities and correction*, who inspects the state prisons and charitable institutions. In some states there are numerous other officers.

State Departments.—The work of the state is carried on by departments presided over by the principal state officers. The number of departments varies greatly in different states, being very large in New York and small in Nevada.

Department of Education.—This department distributes state school funds to the cities and counties; issues teachers' certificates; lays down general rules for the running of the schools; looks after the state normal schools; examines the workings of the public schools; makes recommendations for the improvement of education; assists in building schools; selects textbooks in some states, and performs many other functions.

Highway Department.—A few years ago each county had to build its own roads without help from the state. At the present time the state aids the communities to better the roads by maintaining state highways and by giving money to counties for the building of improved

roads. Some of the states, particularly New York and Pennsylvania, have made large bond issues for road improvement. The highway department employs trained engineers who plan new roads and grade and straighten old roads that are being improved. The road-building policy of each state is in the hands of the highway commission, which has grown to be one of the



Photograph by A. M. Black, Tazewell, Va.

A GOOD ROAD

most important departments of government. The United States helps the states to build roads, giving an amount of money in proportion to the amount spent by each state. The tendency is for the states to take almost entire charge of road building, as local road making is less efficient.

Department of Health.—This department has done

a splendid work in every state. Not so many years ago each locality had to care for its own health conditions, with the result that there were terrible epidemics of typhoid fever and other diseases. Nowadays inspectors are sent out by the department of health as soon as smallpox, typhoid, diphtheria, hookworm, and other contagious and infectious diseases become serious in any part of the state. Efforts are also made to prevent the occurrence of these diseases by sending warnings and instructions through the mails. Examinations of suspected water, and other investigations, are made free of charge by the scientists of the health department, who are always at the service of the public. The great improvement in the public health in recent years is largely due to the health departments.

Department of Agriculture.—In some states the department of agriculture is of great importance; in others it is less so. In agricultural regions it saves the farmers millions of dollars annually by teaching them the best ways of cultivating, harvesting, and marketing crops. In many of the states there are county agricultural demonstrators, whose business it is to give lessons in farming; and sometimes agents of the agricultural department are sent through the state to lecture on new methods of cultivation and to make known to farmers the discoveries of science in agriculture. In some states the department of agriculture aids the farmer in fighting pests, such as scales on fruit trees and the boll weevil on cotton.

The General Assembly or Legislature.—The law-making body of the state meets in the capitol building in the state capital at stated periods, every year or

every two years. The lower house is generally called the house of delegates or representatives; the upper house is always called the senate. The former has a larger representation than the senate, for the districts are much smaller: most counties and cities have at least one representative in the house of delegates. A number of counties usually go to make up a senatorial district, though sometimes, as in South Carolina, a single county composes a district. The first work of the house of delegates is to elect a *speaker* to preside over the body. It also elects clerks and sergeants-at-arms, as does the senate. The speaker appoints the various committees, and the body settles down to work. The senate does not elect its presiding officer, because the constitution names the lieutenant-governor for this position. This officer appoints the senate committees. Most of the work of legislative bodies is done through committees; the debates on the floor of the house are no longer of as much importance as formerly. Each member of a legislative body is a member of several committees. Men who have been long in the body and have gained influence are members of the principal committees; new members are assigned to less vital committees. The *finance*, or *ways and means*, committee is the most important committee of a legislative body, and the chairman of it stands next in power to the presiding officer. The principal committees usually are: finance; corporation; education; highways; agriculture; mining; labor and commerce.

How a Law is Made.—The following are the steps by which a *bill* becomes an *act*, or law:

1. A bill may be introduced in either house, except

appropriation bills, which must be first introduced in the house of delegates.

2. It must be in written form when presented by the member introducing it. It must also have a title, which is all that is required to be read by the clerk at the first reading.

3. The bill is then referred to the committee which considers such matters as it relates to. If favored by the committee, it is printed and sent back to the house for its second reading. Many bills, however, “die in committee,” that is, are never sent back to the main body.

4. The next step is the argument on the merits of the bill, *pro* and *con*, on the floor of the house. The bill may be, and usually is, amended—that is, changed. Sometimes it is so amended that it bears little likeness to its original form. After the amendments have been voted on, and either accepted or rejected, a vote is taken as to whether or not the bill shall pass on to the third reading. The roll of the body is called on this vote, as on most votes.

5. If the bill passes to its third reading it is on the way to final passage. It is read and a vote is taken as to whether or not it shall pass. Most bills that get so far as the third reading pass.

6. If passed by the house in which it originated, the bill must be sent to the other house, where it goes through the same course. Usually the other house adds new amendments before it accepts the bill. The newly amended bill is then sent back to the house where it originated. If that body accepts it, it becomes law unless the governor vetoes it. But if

the first house declines to accept the amendments made by the second house, it fails to pass the bill. Then conference committees are appointed by the two houses to meet and see if an agreement can be reached. A compromise is usually the result. The compromise bill is then voted on by the two houses, and, if accepted, it becomes an act, provided the governor does not veto it. If he does veto it, it goes back to the houses, which may or may not pass it over his veto. You will see from this that making a law is a long and difficult process. It should be so: otherwise many new laws would be made at every session of a legislature.

State Courts.—The judicial branch—the courts—interprets and enforces the laws. The number and names of courts differ greatly in different states. The framework of the state court system is as follows:

1. Justices' courts in counties and police courts in cities for trial of small offenses.
2. County courts. (In some states.)
3. City courts. (Several kinds in large cities.)
4. Circuit, or district courts, for the trial of most civil cases and most crimes.
5. Supreme court, or court of appeals, to try cases appealed from the circuit and city courts.
6. In New York, and one or two other states, a court of appeals, to hear cases appealed from the supreme court.

In addition to these ordinary courts, there are special courts outside the regular judicial system. The most important of these is the corporation commission. This court has control of railroad, street railway, steamboat and other transportation corporations; of telegraph and telephone companies; of public and private banks (except national and Federal Reserve banks); of

trust and loan companies. It enforces the laws in regard to such corporations, or companies, and grants charters of incorporation to various business enterprises. It has the power to make railroad, steamboat, and other public service rates, and it assesses the taxes to be paid by railways and other transportation companies.

The People and the State.—You will see from this chapter that the government of the state is a large and important undertaking. We speak of the people's governing themselves, but so far we have only heard of state departments, legislature, and courts. What have the people to do with these agencies of government? The answer is that the people elect the governor and most of the other important state officers; the legislature; and, in some cases, the judges. Every voter therefore has a voice in the government of the state. When you grow up you will have the right to vote—that is, to say who shall hold the important positions in the state government.

Qualifications of a Voter.—All citizens, male or female, twenty-one years of age, have the right to vote unless forbidden for special reasons, or because they have not fully complied with the law regulating voting. The voter must:

1. Be a resident of the state—that is, he must have lived in the state for a certain time. Residents who are not citizens cannot vote.

2. Be registered in the precinct, or voting district, where he lives. And he must have lived in the district for a certain time.

3. In some states pay a poll tax, and pay it a certain time in advance of the election.

4. In some states be able to read and write the English language. In other states he must be able to explain a clause in the state constitution to the satisfaction of the registrars. There are also other educational qualifications.

In all states certain persons, such as lunatics and men convicted of crime, were long without the right to vote, or the hope of having the right restored. There is a growing tendency, however, to give criminals the right to vote after they leave prison.

Political Parties.—Most voters belong to a political party. Local elections frequently lie not between parties but between individuals, but state elections are always between parties. In some states, however, as in the South, a single party is so strong as to have little opposition. In these states the regular elections are usually a form, and the real elections are what are called *primaries*, in which candidates offer themselves for nomination by a party. The person nominated is really elected. In other states, where there are two strong parties, primaries are held for both parties, or nominating conventions, and then the nominees of the parties are voted for in the regular election, which is the main election. The two principal parties in the United States are the Republican and the Democratic. The Republican party is usually in control of the federal government, but not always. President Wilson was a Democrat, and at various times the Democratic party has been in control of one or both houses of Congress. In the Southern states, with the exception of one or two, the Democratic party is always in power. In the North and West, the state governments are in the hands

of one and then the other of the parties. Pennsylvania is one of the few states that are nearly always in the hands of the Republicans. Some years ago there was a third party, the Populist, which controlled a number of Western states for a time. Other parties in the country are the Socialist and Farmer-Labor parties, which differ greatly from the two main parties. These latter parties favor the ownership of railroads and other great industries by the government.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of the most important courts of your state and find out whether the judges are appointed or elected.

2. Write to the state comptroller or auditor and request him to send you a report showing how much money the state spent last year.

3. Write to the state department of education for a report showing how much money is spent annually on public education.

4. Invite your representative in the legislature to make a talk before your classroom club on "How Laws are Made."

5. Answer these questions:

How many judges compose the supreme court of your state?

How are they chosen?

If the governor of your state should die, who would take his place?

How many members has the lower body of your state legislature? The upper body?

How often does your legislature meet?

What are the two bodies of your legislature called?

What is the basis of representation in each body?

What are the committees for each body?

How is the state highway commissioner chosen in your state?

Write to this official for the report showing the cost and location of state highways.

What are the qualifications for a voter in your state?

6. Put on the blackboard the answers to the following questions: What are your state offices and who are the present officers?

CHAPTER XXVII

SOME THINGS THE NATION DOES FOR US

Problem: To discover ways in which the nation helps the people of a community.

We have seen in our previous studies that the county, city, and state exercise authority over the people and carry on many activities for their benefit. There are certain things, however, that only the national government has the power to do. In Chapter XIII we considered two of these activities—money-making and the post office. Now we shall study some additional things that are wholly in the hands of the United States government.

Control of Immigration.—The national government has complete control of immigration into the United States. Thousands of foreigners come to our shores in the great steamships that leave the seaports of Europe and western Asia. Most of these immigrants land in New York harbor. There they have to go through a thorough examination before they are admitted to the United States; if the quota of immigrants from a country has already been completed for the year, other newcomers from that country are sent back without examination. The states have nothing whatever to do with immigration.

Control of Fighting Forces.—The United States government declares war and makes peace: the states have no voice in this matter. The regular army and



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

(176)

AMERICAN TROOPS HOME FROM FRANCE

the navy are entirely in the control of the federal government; but the states maintain militia. This militia is nearly always an exclusively land force; only a few states have a naval militia. The militia is under the states in time of peace but comes under the federal government in war. The United States, in war, also drafts citizens, whether they wish to fight or not, and calls for volunteers. In war the army consists of all males, of certain ages, able to bear arms and not excused from military duty because of having families to support. In peace, the army is small. Most of the troops are stationed in the Philippine Islands, Alaska, and points in the southwestern part of the United States. The marines are largely employed in keeping order in the republic of Haiti, which is more or less under the control of the United States.

The Army and Navy.—The regular army consists of men who join the service for a term of years. Recruits must undergo a rigid physical examination, for the army does not wish weaklings and men with defects. This is also true of the navy. It is usually a difficult matter to secure enough soldiers for the army and sailors for the navy, for, though there are many advantages in being in the army and navy, the pay is small and the opportunity of advancement not great. A number of soldiers have become officers in the army by studying in the army schools and passing the examinations for commissions; this is not the case in the navy. Most of the army officers are graduates of the United States Military Academy, naval officers of the Naval Academy. The navy must be kept strong, even in peace time. The tendency now, following the

Armament Conference of 1921-22, is to reduce navies in all the countries of the world. The American navy is divided into two main fleets—the Atlantic and the Pacific. The Panama Canal was built partly to enable these two fleets to unite quickly in time of war.

The Military and Naval Academies.—The maintenance of the Military Academy, at West Point, New York, and of the Naval Academy, at Annapolis, Maryland, is one of the federal government's most important duties in connection with the army and navy. Youths seventeen years old may enter West Point provided they can secure an appointment from a Congressman and take the entrance examinations or make the highest standing in a competitive examination. General Pershing won an appointment to West Point over another boy by a single question in grammar. His great career is the result of his making the most of his high school opportunities and of knowing just a little more than another boy. On such small things men's lives often turn. The cadets at the Naval Academy are appointed in the same way. Both military and naval cadets are paid enough to cover all their expenses while at school and are appointed to places in the army and navy on graduating.

Navigation.—The United States government controls navigation along the seacoasts and of the inland rivers of the country. Captains of ships and pilots must get federal licenses before they can do their work. There are rigid rules, laid down by the federal government for ships, such as carrying a certain number of lifeboats and lifebuoys for the safety of passengers and

doing certain things for the welfare of the crew. Is there a navigable river in your state? If so, the United States government controls the vessels that ply on it. The government spends many millions of dollars yearly in deepening the channel of rivers by dredging, and in maintaining on the seacoast lighthouses and life-saving stations for the rescue of shipwrecked people. During the World War the federal government built



A COAST GUARD STATION

hundreds of ships to carry food and other products from this country to Europe. In peace time, however, the United States has few merchant ships except those that sail from port to port along the coast. Nearly all the foreign commerce of the country is carried in European and Japanese vessels.

Customs.—One of the most important duties of the United States government is to regulate the foreign trade of the country, as well as commerce between the

states. It may surprise you to learn that foreign goods may not be brought into this country free. If goods are shipped to the United States from England or some other foreign land, they are examined by officials of the federal government at the port where they are unloaded. The law requires that certain payments, called *duties* or *tariff*, be made on these foreign goods. This money goes into the United States treasury. The object of the tariff is to obtain money for the government and, also, to protect American manufactures by putting a burden on foreign manufactures. Not having to pay the tariff, American manufacturers need not produce goods at so low a cost as Europeans. American goods often cost more to make than foreign products, but because of the tariff they are sold as cheaply in our stores as European manufactures.

Copyrights and Patents.—Another power vested solely in our national government is that of granting *copyrights* to persons who write books, plays, and music, and *patents* to those who invent machines and appliances. If an author writes a book he is given the exclusive right, for a certain number of years, to publish it, and anyone else printing the book is liable to punishment. The same thing is true of patents. Some great fortunes have been made from patents, notably that of Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, and that of Thomas Edison, the inventor of the electric light, the phonograph, and many other marvels. The Patent Office is one of the most interesting buildings in Washington. You must be sure to visit it when next you go to the national capital. Tiny models of thou-

sands of machines are kept there, and it is fascinating to examine them.

The Weather Bureau.—You frequently read the weather forecasts in the local newspaper, especially when you are planning to go somewhere. You have learned to know that if the paper says “Fair and warmer tomorrow,” it is likely to be so, and that if the paper says “Cloudy, with showers,” the day will probably not be a good one. These forecasts are read by thousands of people for business reasons. The farmers wish to learn what sort of weather to expect, so that they will know what to do with their hay and other crops; the ship captain often stays in port when the weather forecasts tell of a storm on the coast. To many other people it is a matter of importance to know what sort of weather the day will bring forth. It is the business, exclusively, of the federal government to study the weather. Trained men at two hundred regular stations throughout the country observe the condition of the atmosphere and send in their reports to Washington, from which place the forecasts are dispatched by telegraph.

Railroads.—The federal government has control of the railroad rates on railroads that run through two or more states: railroads that are confined to a single state are under the control of that state, as well as the rates for points within the state. In other words, if goods are shipped from one state to another, the freight rate paid on those goods is determined by the United States government. If goods are shipped from one city in a state to another city in the same state, the freight rate is fixed by the state corporation com-

mission. The same thing is true of passenger fares. The body that makes the rates between states and has control of the railways generally is known as the Interstate Commerce Commission. This board came into existence in 1887, because of complaints that the railroads were not acting fairly, and it has gradually been given more power by Congress until now it exercises a large measure of authority over the railways. During the World War the federal government took over nearly all the railway lines in the country and conducted them, but after the war the roads were given back to their owners.

Other Functions of the Government.—The United States government assists the states in many things that are done by each state for itself. Thus the health work of the United States government is very important. The series of experiments conducted by officials of the government determined that yellow fever is conveyed by mosquitoes and bubonic plague by rats. The United States health authorities are in charge in every port of the United States. They take care that no persons suffering from diseases dangerous to other people are allowed to land in the country; and in case of a threatened epidemic they may close a port entirely for a time. The United States Department of Agriculture has also made many valuable discoveries. Indeed, the state departments of agriculture exist partly for the purpose of making known to the farmers of the individual states the discoveries of the United States government. The federal government owns large forest preserves in various parts of the country, on which it seeks to preserve and improve the trees,

so that the country's supply of timber will not be soon exhausted. In many other ways besides these the federal government is at work for our welfare.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of enlistment in the United States army or navy.
2. Appoint a classmate to discuss the importance of the airplane as a branch of the military service.
3. Give some reasons why the national government controls commerce on such inland waterways as the Great Lakes and the Mississippi rather than the different states which border on these waterways.
4. Give reasons why an inventor should be allowed a patent.
5. Find out all you can about the Fordney-McCumber tariff act.
6. Tell why tariff bills are very hotly debated in Congress.
7. Debate this question: *Resolved*, That the United States should keep up its navy to the full quota allowed by the Armament Agreement.

PART THREE

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB REORGANIZED

Problem: To reorganize your Junior Citizens Club.

Reorganizing Your Club.—This should be the best year of the Junior Citizens Club. You are older and



Courtesy of Miss Emilie Yunker

A SCHOOL GARDEN

can therefore make the meetings more interesting and form better plans for improving your school and community. Discuss the following report of the reor-

ganization of a club like yours and then decide what shall be your plan of work for the year:

REORGANIZATION OF THE CIVICS CLUB

At the first meeting of the Civics Club in Fairmount School a committee on reorganization was appointed. The next day it made the following report:

The officers are to be as heretofore:

President.
Vice President.
Secretary.
Treasurer.

We suggest the following departments:

Department of Health.
Head of department and helpers.

Department of Public Works.
Head and helpers.

Department of Thrift and Banking.
Head and helpers.

Library Department.
Head and helpers.

News Department.
Head and helpers.

Entertainment Department.
Head and helpers.

We recommend that the duties of the departments be as follows:

Department of Health.—The “head doctor” and his assistants look at and keep records of finger nails; inspect shoes; ask about brushing teeth; keep the room at the

right temperature; display literature on health; and do various other things which improve the health of the pupils.

Department of Public Works.—This department keeps the room neat. It strives for an “A” rating on the condition of the desks. It also looks after blackboards, vases of flowers, and the waste paper basket.

Thrift Department.—For this department the head should be a fine banker, who will help to keep the banking records and percentages, who will count the money and supply the literature on thrift.

Library Department.—The librarians should work out systems for keeping records.

News Department.—Three pupils should look after this department. They should gather up materials of interest, visit the Chamber of Commerce and the banks, and bring literature which describes the city.

The Entertainment Department.—This committee should plan and present several entertainments during the year, besides conducting the morning exercises.

The report of the reorganization committee was unanimously adopted. After the election of officers, the president appointed the heads of the departments and their helpers.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Reorganize your club.
2. Appoint standing committees.
3. Write new songs, new cheers, and a class slogan.

CHAPTER XXIX

CHOOSING A VOCATION

Problems: (1) To study various vocations and their contributions to the world; and (2) to consider your life vocation and how to prepare for it.

Wisdom of Early Choice.—When should you choose your vocation or life work? Many young people do not think seriously about this question until they are well on into a high school course and some have no definite plans when they enter college; but it is wise to begin early in life to think about this most important question. If you are going to high school, as probably you are, you should have at least a general idea of what you wish to do in life. If you expect to be a farmer, you will take up the study of agriculture; if you are planning to go to college, you will study certain foreign languages; if you expect to enter the commercial field, there are studies that will help to equip you for this work.

Every Girl Should Work.—In these times girls as well as boys should think about the vocations they expect to follow, for there is no place in the world now for idlers. There are about ten million women workers in the United States. In 1910 women were found in three hundred and eighty-five of the four hundred and twenty-eight occupations listed by the Census Bureau. The good citizen, whether man or woman, will do some useful work in the world.

Beware of "Blind Alley" Jobs.—Many young people accept odd jobs in vacation for the purpose of earning money while out of school. There is no objection to this; but when you complete your education be sure to choose a position of some promise rather than a "blind alley" job—that is, a job which has no future—such, for instance, as an elevator operator.



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

A RAILROAD ENGINEER

Main Occupations:—Below is a list of the main occupations to be followed:

Farming

Farmer.
Trucker.
Dairyman.
Fruit grower.

Manufacturing

Skilled mechanic.
Office clerk.
Mechanical engineer.
Superintendent of mills.

Professions

Teacher.
Physician.
Druggist.
Dentist.
Lawyer.
Engineer.
Minister.
Journalist.

Skilled Trades

Mason.
Painter.
Carpenter.
Plasterer.
Paper hanger.
Cement worker.
Locomotive engineer.
Structural steel worker.

Transportation and Communication

Railroad employee.
Steamship employee.
Automobile mechanic.
Automobile salesman.
Telegraph operator.
Telephone operator.
Taxi driver.
Street car employee.

Commerce and Finance

Salesman.
Business manager.
Stenographer.
Secretary.
Bank employee.
Real estate dealer.
Insurance solicitor.
Stock broker.

Teaching.—It is wise to make a careful study of a vocation if you are thinking seriously of choosing it. Let us make a brief study of three occupations that many people pursue. First, let us look at teaching, a profession that is followed by more than 600,000 persons in the United States. It is the leading calling for women, at least half a million of whom are engaged in the work. An increasing number of men are also entering this profession as high school teachers, school superintendents, and college professors.

Advantages and Disadvantages.—The advantages of teaching are: the pleasant surroundings; the high regard in which teachers are held; the pleasure that comes from contact with ambitious and studious young people; the opportunity for study. The disadvantages

are: the low salaries; the difficulty in securing comfortable living quarters in some places; and the worry over unruly pupils. The preparation for teaching consists of graduation from a four-year high school and at least two years of special training. If you wish to achieve the greatest success as a teacher, you should take a full college course. Why not teach? You can render no greater service to the world than by engaging in this useful profession.

Medicine.—Another occupation to which your attention is called is that of medicine. The surgeon who performs difficult operations, the army doctor who follows the battle line ministering to the needs of the wounded, the country physician who drives through the storm to save a life—all are true servants of humanity. Do you wish to be a doctor? If so, you must like to study and must graduate from college. No profession requires a longer period of preparation. After graduating from college you must take a four-year course at a medical school, usually followed by at least one year in hospital work.

Stenography.—A third occupation to consider is that of stenography. The capable stenographer has every reason to be proud of her work: if she takes a genuine interest in the business she helps greatly to make it a success. The work is usually pleasant; and efficient stenographers have an opportunity for advancement to the position of secretary to the president or manager. Do you expect to be a stenographer? If so, you are strongly advised to take a full high school course. There are thousands of stenographers in the country who will always fill minor positions because

they lack the education essential to success in this calling.

Farming.—The most useful and perhaps the most satisfactory of all occupations is farming. The world looks to the farmer for the necessities of life; he does vital work. Besides, life in the open air gives health and strength and makes the sturdiest men and women.



PLOWING

Business.—But perhaps you are thinking of going into business. If so, you will need a somewhat different training. A four-year high school course is strongly advisable, for a trained mind and a good knowledge of mathematics and English are of great importance. After high school, a two years' course in a business college or school of commerce will be of the utmost benefit. The lad who completes such a course is prepared to rise much faster than the boy who has to learn

business from the bottom after he goes into it. When you have finished your education, the next thing to do is to choose the branch of business that suits you best. This is a difficult matter. The natural tendency is to take the job that pays most money immediately. It is wiser, however, to choose the job which has the



SCENE IN A COTTON MILL

greater possibilities. The business man always builds for the future: the profits five or ten years from now are what he thinks of rather than the immediate gain. When you have chosen your business, stick to it. The man who stays in the same occupation or the same kind of business is more likely to succeed than the man who changes from one to another. You may have a hard

time in business at first; but no calling pays such a high rate of interest on knowledge as this, and after you have mastered your branch of it you will find that the money reward comes fast and constantly increases.

Skilled Trades.—Maybe you are thinking of becoming a locomotive engineer. Do so if your taste runs that way: it is a well-paid occupation. This trade demands physical strength and good nerves. A four-year high school course is also advisable, as an engineer should know something about mechanics. If you wish to be a mason, a carpenter, a plasterer, or a paper hanger, you will find a high school course beneficial. The reason for this is that all these trades are businesses as well as trades, and a student gets business training in high school. Perhaps you wish to be an electrician. No calling has a greater future, but a high school course is necessary to advancement, for the electrician must know much about physics. In fact, there are no vocations in the modern world, with the exception of unskilled manual labor, in which education is not of great advantage.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Appoint committees to give advantages and disadvantages of different occupations.

2. Invite representatives of various occupations to talk to the class on the possibilities and opportunities offered by their respective lines of work.

3. Each of you may make a two-minute speech on "What I Wish to Do When I am Grown." In this you should give reasons for your choice of a vocation.

4. Give a two-minute talk on "How I Spend My Leisure Time."

5. Discuss the ways some communities help their people spend their leisure time wisely.

6. Estimate how much of life is spent in recreation.

CHAPTER XXX

OUTDOOR LIFE

Problems: To learn (1) how outdoor life improves one physically; and (2) what the government has done to provide national playgrounds.

Guard Your Health.—"I cannot run because it makes my heart beat," once said a pale, undersized schoolboy who never took open-air exercise. This lad caught cold easily, and when he tried to prepare his home work he became tired and sleepy. How is it with you? Is your weight what it should be for your health and age? Do you enjoy running, hiking, rowing, and group games? If you wish to be strong and well, you must not only keep clean, eat good food, and sleep with your windows open, but you must spend a good part of your time out of doors.

What Boys and Girls Should Weigh.—A boy or girl from twelve to fourteen years of age should gain twelve ounces each month. If you are not gaining in weight at this rate, you should, perhaps, take more exercise in the open air. The table on page 196 shows what your weight ought to be in proportion to your height.

The Olympic Games.—The ancient Greeks were a strong race because they spent much time under the open sky of their beautiful country. About seven hundred years before Christ they inaugurated the Olympic Games, to which gathered athletes from every city in Greece. These games were held every fourth year, and

grew to be the greatest festival of the Greek race. Thousands of people came to witness the events, and the victors were awarded the highest honors, partly because it was thought that the gods loved those who enjoyed health and strength.

Revival of Olympic Games.—With the fall of Greece the Olympic Games were discontinued, but they were



A ROWING CREW AT PRACTICE

revived in 1896. In the ancient games none but pure-blooded Greeks could compete, but in the new Olympic Games athletes from the whole world are invited to enter. Our country has always sent a team, and has won more than its share of the contests. The last games for some years were held at Stockholm, Sweden, in 1912, and American athletes made more points than

HEIGHT AND WEIGHT TABLE FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

<i>Boys</i>								<i>Girls</i>							
Height, Inches	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	14 Years	15 Years	16 Years	Height, Inches	10 Years	11 Years	12 Years	13 Years	14 Years	15 Years	16 Years
47	54							47	53						
48	56	57						48	55	56					
49	58	59						49	57	58					
50	60	61	62					50	59	60					
51	63	64	65					51	62	63	64				
52	65	67	68					52	65	66	67				
53	68	69	70	71				53	68	68	69	70			
54	71	72	73	74				54	70	71	72	73			
55	74	75	76	77	78			55	73	74	75	76	77		
56	78	79	80	81	82			56	77	78	79	80	81		
57	81	82	83	84	85	86		57	81	82	83	84	85	86	
58	84	85	86	87	88	90	91	58	85	86	87	88	89	90	91
59	87	88	89	90	92	94	96	59	89	90	91	93	94	95	96
60	91	92	93	94	97	99	101	60	...	94	95	97	99	100	102
61	...	95	97	99	102	104	106	61	...	99	101	102	104	106	108
62	...	100	102	104	106	109	111	62	...	104	106	107	109	111	113
63	...	105	107	109	111	114	115	63	...	109	111	112	113	115	117
64	113	115	117	118	119	64	115	117	118	119	120
65	122	123	124	65	117	119	120	122	123
66	125	126	127	128	66	119	121	122	124	126
67	130	131	132	133	67	124	126	127	128
68	134	135	136	137	68	126	128	130	132
69	138	139	140	141	69	129	131	133	135
70	142	144	145	70	134	136	138
71	147	149	150	71	138	140	142
72	152	154	155	72	145	147
73	157	159	160								
74	162	164	165								
75	169	170								
76	174	175								

those of any other nation. They also distinguished themselves at the Paris games in 1920. At the International Athletic Meet for Women, held in Paris in 1922, the United States ranked second. The world record for the shot put was made by Lucile Godbold, of South Carolina.

Group Games.—A strange feature of the ancient Olympic Games was that the contests were individual—that is, there were no group games such as baseball and basket ball, but each athlete competed against the whole field. We cannot live to ourselves, as we have learned in this book, but must form ourselves into communities. The games of today are organized on the community plan. The baseball team is a community just as much as is the town or state, and it is by teamwork that games are won.

Advantage of Consolidated Schools.—One large advantage of the consolidated school over the one-room country school is that the students are able to organize teams and compete with other schools in baseball, basket ball, tennis, and other games. Has your school a well-equipped playground for students of all ages? If not, your Civics Club should go to work; for nothing adds more to school spirit and to the health of the students than athletics.

Good Sportsmanship.—The ancient Greeks would not permit a person who had committed a crime or who was irreverent to the gods to enter the Olympic Games. They wished every contest to be fair, and were careful that only honorable people competed. Occasionally we hear of a school which permits outsiders, or “ringers,” to play on its teams. This should not be allowed.

Sometimes the students of a school will jeer at the members of a visiting team. This is a violation of the laws of courtesy. Frequently when an athletic team is victorious, the cry is raised that the umpire gave bad decisions, or that the victors used unfair methods. Such charges are unsportsmanlike. It is a good thing to be a "good loser."



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

A SWIMMING POOL

City Playgrounds.—Has your city well-equipped playgrounds, athletic fields, and swimming pools? If it lacks these facilities, your club should help in a campaign to secure them.

Story of a Playground.—A boy was once arrested for playing in the streets when the city provided no playgrounds. When he grew to be an old man, he provided in his will that \$100,000 of his estate should go to the

city for a playground. This is now in operation, and thousands of children are made happy and healthy because a good citizen realized the value of play.

Camping.—Did you ever visit a Boy Scout camp? The camp visited by the writer was ten miles from the city. The tents and dining room were located on a high, forest-clad hill overlooking a beautiful pond, where the boys swam, fished, and went boating. Spending their days in all kinds of outdoor sports, they had appetites like wolves, and when night came they slept like logs. The American flag floated from a tall flag pole, and there were appropriate exercises when it was lowered at sunset. At night the boys gathered around the camp fire and listened to stories. Can you imagine better fun than such camping?

National Parks Established.—In 1920 more than a million people visited the nineteen national parks of our country. Many of these visitors traveled in automobiles, crossing high mountains and camping each night by the side of some clear stream. Over 25,000 automobile parties camped in Yellowstone Park in 1920. Would you not like to take such a trip? Well, perhaps some day when you are grown you may own a car and spend your vacation in this way; so let us have a few facts about our national parks. They were established by Congress for the following purpose, to use the exact words of the act establishing them: "To conserve the scenery and the natural and historic objects and the wild life therein, and to provide for the enjoyment of the same in such a manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations." The first national park to be established

was that of Hot Springs, Arkansas. Here are to be found wonderful hot springs, with curative properties, believed by some to be the Fountain of Youth for which Ponce de Leon sought.

Other Parks.—Every school child knows about Yellowstone and Yosemite National Parks, but there are others almost as interesting. Visit the Mesa Verde in



Copyright, E. M. Newman

CAMPING IN A NATIONAL PARK

Colorado, and you will see the homes of the ancient cliff-dwellers. In the Sequoia Park of California you will find the great trees which are one of the wonders of the world. In far away Hawaii there is a park in which are three active volcanoes and a lake of molten lava. Alaska has the Mount McKinley Park, in the midst of which stands the highest peak of North America.

The Love of Nature.—We cannot close this chapter without urging boys and girls to cultivate a love for nature. Do you like to raise vegetables and flowers in your garden? Do you enjoy roaming in the fields and forests, studying the plants, insects, and birds? Is it a great pleasure for you to visit the seashore and mountains? The seashore, the mountains, the blue sky, and the birds and flowers are all yours, and add to the joy of living.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Make a list of six Good Health Rules that everybody should follow.
2. Explain what is meant by a “good loser”; give an illustration.
3. If you have ever been on a camping trip, tell the class about your experiences.
4. Debate this question: *Resolved*, That such natural wonders as Mammoth Cave, Natural Bridge, and the Grand Canyon should be converted into national parks by the government.
5. Have a contest at your next meeting to see who can name the longest list of birds that are to be seen in your community.
6. Describe the most beautiful spot in your community.

CHAPTER XXXI

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURING

Problems: (1) To study two important branches of industry; and (2) to learn how they have developed.

The Greatest of All Occupations.—Do you live on a farm? If so, you should be proud of it, for farming is the greatest of all industries. There could be no cities, and no lawyers, doctors, teachers, bankers, or artists, if the farmer did not plant and harvest his crops. Visit a great factory and see the thousands of skilled mechanics busily at work: they could not continue at their labor of converting the raw materials into finished products unless the farmer sowed and reaped.

Wealth of Agriculture.—In the United States more than seventeen millions of people are engaged in agriculture, and the total value of the farm crops of our country for a year is about ten billions of dollars. This represents one of our greatest sources of wealth.

Advantages of Country Life.—In Chapter XXIX you were told the advantages of different callings, farming included. Let us here consider some further reasons why country boys should decide to take up farming as a vocation.

The Beauties of Nature.—The city, with its brilliantly lighted streets, tall buildings, and spacious parks, has many elements of beauty, but the boy or girl who has never seen the loveliness that God spreads over

country lanes and meadows has missed a great deal. Who would want to camp on a vacant lot in the city? We enjoy camping because our tents are pitched by the forest's edge. Perhaps a carpet of green spreads before us and in the distance there is a river or lake. We may commune with nature and study the insects, birds, plants, and wild flowers. The farmer lives his life



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

A WHEAT FIELD

amid such surroundings. He loves the birds that visit him at the different seasons, welcomes the buds and flowers of springtime, and rejoices when the corn is shocked in the fields and the autumn leaves deck the trees with their wealth of colors.

The Farmer is Independent.—This statement must not be taken to mean that the farmer lives to and for himself; for we are all members of a community and

should help each other. Nor does it mean that the farmer can fix the prices of his crops: the opposite is usually true. The farmer is independent, however, in the sense that he plans and carries on his own work. In a large factory each worker has his work planned for him. He simply pulls a lever and the machine smooths



OLD-TIME HARVESTING

the piece of iron or fashions the wood according to the pattern. Such work becomes monotonous and irksome. But the farmer has a new problem to meet each day, and matches his mind against blight, drought, and frost. He is also independent in the sense that he usually does not have to worry about his daily bread. Even if the

crops are poor, he still has food to eat and a shelter for his family.

Farming is Profitable.—Many boys hesitate to become farmers because they think that other vocations give larger returns in money. It is true that no farmer can accumulate such a fortune as Carnegie or Woolworth had, but he can make a better living than the average city worker. There was a time when the farmer worked too hard, and was so weary at night that he did not care much for reading or recreation. In those days farming was an unprofitable occupation, but with improved machinery and better methods of cultivation agriculture offers the industrious man an opportunity for a good living without so much drudgery.

How to Improve Farm Life.—Although farming has many advantages, there are ways in which the life of the farmer may be improved.

1. The farmer should strive to increase production. The farmers of European countries raise thirty-five bushels of wheat to the acre, while our average is only twenty-nine bushels. They raise one hundred and ninety-six bushels of potatoes to the acre, and we less than a hundred. When you study agriculture in your high school course, you will learn about crop rotation, the proper use of fertilizers, and improved farm machinery as the means of making land give larger returns. You will also learn about the work of our agricultural colleges and experiment stations in developing new species of grains and vegetables that resist plant disease and give larger yields than the old plants of our grandfathers. You will learn that the manner of preparing the seed bed is important. Deep plowing makes

the soil give out its full fertility; shallow plowing results in a small yield. A well-worked surface helps to hold the moisture for the plants instead of letting it run off. The kind of seed sown makes a great deal of difference. It is as expensive to sow poor seed and cultivate the plants growing from it as to use good seed and cultivate good plants. The modern farmer studies seed with great care, and decides on the kind best adapted to his soil. After the planting, the crop must be carefully worked until harvest. If scientific methods are used, the increase in yield will be astonishing.

2. Better business methods should be employed by the farmer. Merchants employ bookkeepers to keep the account of their purchases, sales, and expenses. In factories trained men study the costs of each article made. Many farmers keep no records of the cost of milk produced, eggs laid, and crops raised. Another failure of the farmer to use business methods consists in permitting waste. He fails to protect expensive machinery from the weather, and often lets rats and plant disease destroy his crops. Each year thousands of cattle, sheep, hogs, and other animals die because farmers do not take necessary steps to keep disease from spreading among them. In other ways the farmer fails to employ the system that makes manufacturing and commerce profitable.

3. The farmer needs education. If you expect to follow this calling, you should have a high school education at least. The educated farmer uses business methods on his farm and increases production. It has been found that farmers with a college education make greater profits than those with a high school training,

and that the latter make twice as much as do farmers who have had only a “reading and writing” education.

4. Farm life must be made more attractive for women. At times the farm is a very dull place for the housekeeper. There is a dreary round of work; while the farmer is out on his improved sulky plow, she is washing clothes with an old-fashioned washing machine instead of with an electric one. The farmhouse should



MODERN HARVESTING

be equipped with a furnace, electric lights, running water, and every modern convenience. There should be magazines, musical instruments, and a telephone for the young people, and if possible a car for the family. If all farmhouses were made attractive, a larger number of girls would wish to become farmers' wives.

Importance of Manufacturing.—The first farmer scratched the soil with a sharp stick. He did not have



Photograph by Underwood and Underwood

STRUCTURAL IRON WORKERS

(208).

even a hoe or spade. Needless to say, he was a poor farmer. All the implements that help the farmer, such as the plow, reaper, and threshing machine, are made in factories. To understand how necessary factories are, you have only to make an inspection of your school. The stove or furnace was made in a factory. The same thing is true of the iron girders supporting the floors, the doors, the windows, the desks, and the roofing. In fact, we could not get along without the thousands of factories in which are made the numberless conveniences of life. In 1914 over ten million people were engaged in the manufacturing industries of the United States, and the total value of manufactured products was over twenty-four billion dollars.

Early Stages of Manufacturing.—Three hundred years ago, when our country was first being settled, there were no factories. The women made cloth, soap, candles in the house. Shoes were made in the shop of the shoemaker instead of in factories. Ironwork was made by blacksmiths. In those days people were happy, perhaps, but they were not so happy as people are today. We live in steam- or furnace-heated houses, ride in street cars or automobiles, and have scores of conveniences unknown to our great-grandfathers.

The Age of Steam and Steel.—The invention of the steam engine by James Watt in 1769 was probably the greatest discovery of the ages. It made the locomotive possible and brought about the age of railways. With the railroad came the spread of factories, which before that time could only be built on swift streams. As factories sprang up, great cities flourished. The dis-

covery of the use of coal increased the manufacture of iron and steel a hundredfold. Thus our modern mechanical civilization arose.

A Modern Factory.—Let us pay an imaginary visit to a large shoe factory. We go to Brockton, Massachusetts, and spend the night at the leading hotel. We get an early breakfast the following morning because we wish to reach the factory in time to see the workers



PICKING COTTON

arrive. We are at the great building at 6.50 A.M. Hundreds of people are filing through the main entrance, and among them are many women and scores of boys just past the compulsory school attendance age. The whistle blows, and there immediately begin the hum and pounding of numbers of machines.

Division of Labor.—An interesting matter to be noted in the factory is what is called the *division of*

labor. One machine cuts shoe soles, another makes heels, a third punches eyelets in the uppers, while still another sews the parts of the shoe together. By dividing the labor into small tasks, each of which is done by skilled workmen, thousands of shoes can be turned out daily. As we watch the hundreds of workers running their machines, we see how necessary labor is. Probably the workers in the factory belong to a labor union or unions. If they desire higher wages or shorter hours, a committee of the union waits on the manager of the factory and lays before him their grievances. Sometimes the manager, as the representative of the owners, grants the request of the workers. If the demands are refused, the workers may decide to *strike*—that is, to quit work in an effort to compel the factory owners to grant the requests. When strikes began in this country, they were usually accompanied by acts of violence on the part of the strikers. In recent years, however, strikes have been more peaceful. Frequently they are settled without resort to violence.

Capital Necessary.—One thing that impresses us about a factory is that it must take hundreds of thousands of dollars to build it and to purchase the machinery. Money is also needed to buy materials and to pay workmen before the manufactured products are sold. Where does this money come from? It is furnished by the stockholders, who invest their savings in the factory. Such money is called the *capital* of the business, and the persons who contribute it are capitalists. It is well to remember that no factory, store, or other enterprise can be carried on without capital.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

Why do so many people leave the country for the city?

What means may be employed to keep them on the farm?

What are the advantages of a trade union?

What is meant by the "union label"?

2. Debate the following question: *Resolved*, That farming is more important than manufacturing.

3. Appoint a classmate to read a paper on "Modern Conveniences in the Farm Home."

4. Appoint a committee to visit a factory and report on what they see.

5. Find the average yield per acre of all the crops in your section.

6. Discuss ways of increasing crop production.

CHAPTER XXXII

TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION

Problems: (1) To study means of transportation and communication; and (2) to trace their development.

National Growth.—One hundred years ago there were no railroads. The people who lived in the back country away from waterways had to haul their goods many miles over bad roads. There were few cities; the states west of the Appalachian highland were sparsely peopled; the western plains were practically unsettled, and the land beyond the Rocky Mountains was a lonely desert. In older parts of the country the roads connecting villages and cities were unimproved and almost impossible of travel in winter. Telephone and telegraph lines did not exist; newspapers were poor. Each little community lived to itself.

How the Country Became Great.—If you were asked to explain how our nation grew in a hundred years from a sparsely settled country east of the Mississippi to the greatest nation in the world, extending from ocean to ocean and having more than a hundred million people, you might truthfully answer by naming the following inventions:

Steamships.	Automobiles.
Canals.	Modern roads.
Railroads.	Farming machinery.
Trolley lines.	Telegraphs and telephones.

These wonderful inventions have broken up the iso-



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

(214)

AN OLD METHOD OF TRANSPORTATION

lation of the small communities in which our great-grandfathers lived and made the United States one vast community or neighborhood. You can now travel from New York to San Francisco in five days, or in less time than it took George Washington to go from Mount Vernon to New York when he was inaugurated as our first President.

First Methods of Transportation.—The history of transportation is the story of human development. The first burdens were borne on the backs of men. Then animals—horses, donkeys, and oxen—were used for a long period before roads were built: the loads were fastened to the backs of the animals. When our ancestors on the American frontier had to go back to primitive ways of living, because of the absence of roads and other devices of civilization, they carried goods on pack-horses: it was in this way that furs and other valuable articles first crossed the Appalachian Mountains. In Asia and Europe, at a remote period, roads were built, and wagons were used for carrying freight and people. In the northern American colonies at the time of the Revolution there were some good roads.

Water Transportation.—Transportation by water is much easier than by road, and for this reason men, at a very early time, began to navigate rivers and the sea along the coast. For many centuries, however, ships were unsuited for long voyages or rough seas: it was not until the Middle Ages that the art of sailing vessels was really learned and it was not until the discovery of the compass that voyages of months, such as Columbus's, became possible. After that time, ships pene-

trated to every part of the globe. Yet transportation by sailing vessels, like transportation on land by wagons, was slow: it took our ancestors who crossed the Atlantic from Europe to America about three months to make the voyage now accomplished in a week. What the world needed and demanded, after the settlement of America, was a quicker method of transportation and



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

A SAILING SHIP

communication, and, since the demand existed, it was met.

Improved Transportation.—At the close of the eighteenth century land transportation was much the same as it had been for a thousand years. But with the establishment of the factory system, in the last years of that century, and the progress of invention, improvements quickly came. The old dirt roads of

England began to give way to macadamized highways, good in all weathers. Canals were dug in England to connect rivers, so that goods could be shipped by water for long distances. The macadamized road and the canal were improvements, but they were not sufficiently rapid means of transportation to suit vast countries such as America. The demand for a speedier method quickened; and finally George Stephenson adapted the steam engine, invented by James Watt, to hauling loads, and so we had the first locomotive. Railroads were built in England and the United States, and speedy land transportation became a fact.

The Steamship.—About the same time steam was applied to water transportation. The two inventors of the steamship, John Fitch and James Rumsey, failed because they could not obtain sufficient capital to carry out their plans. In 1807 a steamboat built by Robert Fulton ascended the Hudson River to Albany. This showed the world the possibilities of the new system of navigation. By 1812 steamboats were running on the Western rivers, and in 1819 the first steamship that ever crossed the sea sailed from Savannah to Liverpool. By the middle of the nineteenth century, steamers traversed every ocean and the time required for voyaging from Europe to America had been cut in half.

Trolleys and Automobiles.—What the railroads did for long distance transportation, trolley lines have done for local service. Every city in the country has its trolley lines, which transport passengers rapidly for low fares and sometimes carry light freight. But another kind of transportation was demanded by the

modern world and that was rapid private transportation. This need was supplied by the invention of the automobile in the last years of the nineteenth century. The automobile gives one or more persons a means of traveling at railroad speed. It has somewhat lessened the value of railways for short distance transportation and has caused such a demand for good roads that



Photograph by Underwood and Underwood

ELECTRIC MOTOR AND TRAIN

every state in the United States is now constructing improved highways.

The Railroads.—Nothing has contributed so largely to the growth of our great cities and the development of the western part of our country as railroads. The first permanent railroad in the United States was built in 1828. It was only twenty miles long and is now a

part of the Baltimore and Ohio system. Many people objected to the building of railroads. Here are some of the arguments they advanced:

Railroads will scare the horses to death.

The noise of the engine will stop hens from laying and cows from giving milk.

Sparks from the engine will set fire to fields, barns, and dwelling houses.

Teamsters and other persons employed in the hauling business will be thrown out of employment.

People will travel too much, to the neglect of their business.

It will cost too much money to build railroads.

None of these objections proved true, and railroads slowly spread over the country. A railway entered Chicago from the east in 1852; a few years later the Mississippi River was reached, and last of all came a transcontinental system, the Union Pacific railroad. All along the line of this railway, farm lands were opened to homeseekers and prosperous towns and cities sprang up.

If Railroads Were to Stop Running.—Railroads are as essential to the life and prosperity of a modern nation as the circulation of blood is to the human body. Imagine what would happen if the railroads stopped running! In the farming sections crops would rot in the fields for lack of means to get them to market. A great city such as New York would be without milk, food, coal, all raw materials. In a few weeks the people would be starving and freezing, business would be dead, and the city would be one great desolation.

Cost of Railroads.—It takes an enormous sum of money to run the railroads. Many thousands of

employees have to be paid, new engines and coaches must be purchased, and the tracks and roadbed are kept in good repair so that the lives of passengers may be safe. Where does this money come from? It comes from every family in the United States. The railroad must be paid for transporting all the coal used in your home, most of the food you get from your grocer and butcher, and nearly everything else that you buy in the stores.

Interstate Commerce Commission.—Who determines the passenger fares and freight rates of railroads? Should each railroad be allowed to charge what it wishes or should the government decide upon the rates? The former was the system for many years; the latter plan is now employed. The Interstate Commerce Commission in Washington fixes the rates, so that the railroads may make a fair profit for the stockholders while at the same time the cost of living will be kept down. Each state has a railroad or corporation commission to regulate short lines operating wholly within the state. The national government alone has the right to regulate interstate commerce—that is, railroads and steamship lines carrying goods from one state to another.

Government Ownership.—Should the government own and manage the railroads or should they be run by private corporations under government supervision? In Europe many of the railroads are under government ownership, and our government took control of the railways during the World War. There are many arguments for and against government ownership or management. At the present time the majority of

people in the United States believe in the private ownership and management of railroads under strict governmental supervision.

Rapid Transit in Cities.—Did you ever stop to consider how the street-car system of your city affects the happiness and well-being of the people? If you have a good system, with enough cars to carry the passengers in comfort, the people living in the suburbs travel rapidly to and from the business section. If the service is poor, they are delayed. The great city of New York has one of the best rapid-transit systems in the world. Millions of people are transported daily on surface cars, on elevated trains built high above the streets, and in subways. New York's subways may well be considered one of the wonders of the world. You enter a station, pass down a flight of stairs, and find yourself some twenty feet below the surface of the street. Here are four tracks, two for local and two for express trains. You board an express train, say, near Grant's Tomb on Riverside Drive, and in a few minutes emerge from the subway in Brooklyn, having gone under East River through a great tube that is a part of the subway. Work was begun on the subway in 1900. At the present time there are about seventy miles of this wonderful system, which was constructed at a cost of \$400,000,000.

Street Railway Franchise.—Your street-car system operates under a *franchise* granted by the city for a certain term of years. This franchise sets forth what streets are to be used by the car company, the fare to be charged, and the schedule on which cars are to be run. If your street-car service is bad, the city officials

should see that improvements are made, for a city can hardly prosper without a rapid-transit system giving all sections good transportation facilities.

Good Roads.—The good citizen believes in good roads and is willing to pay for them. Every school child in America should be a good roads “booster,” as good roads and advancing civilization go hand in hand. If you know people opposed to road improve-



MODERN ROAD BUILDING

ment, here are some arguments you may present to them:

1. Good roads help the schools. In counties which have good roads, the one-room school is giving way to consolidated schools, because children are able to travel longer distances. School attendance is also much better, because parents do not keep their children at home on account of muddy roads.

2. Good roads make life more pleasant for everybody. When the roads are hard and smooth, people visit each other with ease, attend church and school entertainments, and even go to distant towns without fear of being stuck in the mud.

3. Good roads help the farmer in his business. Heavy loads can be hauled over improved highways and more trips can be made in a day. To illustrate—one farmer living six miles from the railroad had to haul his grain to the station. On a bad road a truck could not be used, and his team made only two trips a day, carrying on each load a dozen bags of corn. When the road was improved, the farmer purchased a truck that made four trips a day, carrying each time twenty-four bags of grain. You may easily see what a saving this was to the farmer. Good roads increase the value of land. There are many cases where farms located on unimproved roads were sold at prices ranging from \$10.00 to \$20.00 an acre. These same farms brought from \$75.00 to \$100.00 an acre after the roads had been improved.

Road-Working Systems.—What is the best system for working the roads of a district or county? Until recent years there was no system. The road overseer would occasionally call out all able-bodied citizens to work the roads. The small sums of money voted for highways were spent in temporary repairs which the next hard rain would destroy. In recent years both the state and national governments have adopted the policy of helping local communities to build roads. This is a good system, because roads are then built under the direction of the best engineers, who see that

the proper grading is observed and the proper materials used in the construction of roads receiving state or national aid. Road building is at present largely in the hands of the state highway commissions, which work rapidly and efficiently.

The Automobile.—The automobile has been one of the most important factors in the good roads movement; for the owner of a car or truck is always an advocate of improved highways. Only thirty-seven



Photograph by Publishers Photo Service

TRANSPORTATION—AIRSHIP AND AUTOMOBILE

hundred automobiles were manufactured in the United States in 1899; in 1920 the output was nearly two million. There are now nearly eight and a half million passenger cars and one million trucks in use in our country. One third of the cars are owned by farmers.

The Airplane.—Air navigation bids fair to rival land travel in the near future. It has not been many years since two American inventors, the Wright brothers, of Ohio, made the first successful heavier-than-

air flying machine, driven by a gasoline engine. Since that time flying has developed to a high degree, and at present mail, passengers, and even light freight are carried by airplanes and balloons. More and more people are learning aviation, and it will not be long before airplanes are in common use. Their speed and their comparative freedom from collisions—collisions are the main drawback to automobiles—offer great advantages. It seems probable that traveling in airplanes at a hundred miles an hour will soon be a commonplace matter.

Quick Communication.—The problem of rapid transportation was solved by railroads and steamships. These inventions also quickened communication, which for centuries was very slow. The Americans and British fought the battle of New Orleans on January 8, 1815, because there was no other means than sailing vessels of carrying the news to the United States that peace had been signed at Ghent, in Belgium, on Christmas Eve of 1814. A hundred years ago it took days for letters and newspapers to come from Boston to Washington. Railroads and steamships greatly reduced the time of communication.

Telegraphs and Telephones.—But some still speedier means of communication was called for: people were not willing to wait for news to be brought by trains. This demand led to the discovery of the electric telegraph by Samuel Morse. After years of effort, Congress gave him a small grant of money to establish a telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington—the first telegraph line in the world. It was completed in 1844 just about the time that the national

convention of the Democratic party met in Baltimore. When James K. Polk was nominated for President, the news flashed over the wires to Washington, where the people learned of the event a few minutes after it occurred. This introduced the telegraph to the notice of the world. For many years, however, there



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

TELEPHONING FROM A MOVING TRAIN

was no telegraph across the ocean. Cyrus W. Field long worked to lay a cable containing wires between England and America and succeeded at length in 1868. Soon the whole world was connected by telegraph. Communication by voice was then desired. This was brought about by Alexander Graham Bell, who showed the telephone as a new invention at the

Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876. For the new system of wireless telegraphy we are indebted to Marconi.

The Radiophone.—The latest means of communication is the radiophone, which is a kind of wireless telephone system. The radio machines catch sound waves and reproduce them: thus by means of the radiophone a concert in New York may be heard a thousand miles away as clearly as by the auditors in the hall. The possibilities of the radiophone are limitless, and we may expect in the next few years to talk across the entire breadth of the United States from any place where we happen to be—at home, on trains, or elsewhere. Indeed, we may well wonder where invention will stop, what new marvels of transportation and communication the next decade or two will bring forth. The world seems on the threshold of yet greater discoveries than any of the past.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Write a paper on "How Our Street Car System Can be Improved."
2. Answer these questions:

Should a city help to build good roads in the country surrounding it? Why?

Who made the following inventions: the telegraph; the telephone; wireless telegraphy?

Which is more important, the airplane or wireless telegraphy?

3. Debate the following question: *Resolved*, That railroads have helped to develop our country more than any other invention.

4. Mention the ways in which the state is helping to improve the roads of your community.

CHAPTER XXXIII

WHERE OUR LIBERTY CAME FROM

Problems: (1) To study the development of English liberty; and (2) to trace its influence on the government of our country.

England and America.—The United States is now the greatest nation in the world. It has not always been so; in fact, it has not always been a nation at all. For more than a hundred and fifty years America belonged to England and owed allegiance to the king of England. But because the Americans held certain ideas of liberty, handed down to them from their fathers, they turned against the king when he sought to rule as a tyrant and won their independence.

The London Charter.—Where did these ideas of liberty come from? They were the result of the long growth of the English people. England was conquered in the year 1066 by William, Duke of the Normans. The Normans were the descendants of Danish sea robbers who had settled in northern France a century before. There they learned Christianity and the French language and customs. Crossing the English Channel in 1066, they gave battle to the English, who were mainly the descendants of German tribes that had settled in England some centuries earlier. The battle of Hastings was won by the Normans, and the English king was killed, but England

was not entirely subdued. Then it was that the city of London, instead of resisting William, invited him to enter it as king. William, in return, gave the people of London a charter granting them certain privileges. William's younger son, Henry I, when he became king, issued a charter to the whole people of England giving them a few rights. This was a great advance in liberty, for in those days the body of the people nowhere in the world had many rights.

Magna Carta.—William's descendants continued to reign. One of them, Richard the Lion-Hearted, needing money and finding that he could obtain it by selling charters such as that of Henry I, granted many of them. These charters, promising certain towns and workers in certain callings special protection, caused the people to murmur when the royal government, in later times, wrung huge taxes from them by force and otherwise violated the charters. When Richard died his brother John, a bad man, came to the throne. King John paid no attention to the charters granted by Henry I and Richard I. He was a brutal tyrant, robbing people of their money and shutting them up in dungeons to die. Finally the nobles, weary of his misrule, rose against him and forced him, in 1215, to sign the Magna Carta, or Great Charter. This document promised that no taxes were to be laid without the consent of the king's Great Council; that justice was not to be sold in the courts or delayed; that people accused of crime were to be punished in accordance with the laws, not the king's will; and that people were not to be left in prison without trial but were to be tried by juries soon after arrest. This was one of the most

important steps ever taken in the progress of human liberty.

The English Parliament.—King John's son, when he grew up, became as bad a tyrant as his father had been. The nobles rose against him, as they had against King John. One of them, Simon de Montfort, became the ruler of England in the king's place. Montfort enlarged the Great Council, which before had consisted only of nobles and clergy, by adding to it two men chosen from every town in England and two men from every county. Thus was formed the English Parliament, the greatest legislative body the world has ever seen. Later Parliament was divided into two chambers: the House of Lords, made up of nobles and bishops, and the House of Commons, composed of men selected by the towns and counties. Parliament came to be the sole power that levied taxes. The king's wishes as to levying taxes were usually followed, but only Parliament had the right to tax Englishmen. Members of the House of Commons were elected by the votes of house owners.

Parliament and King.—The old line of English kings died out and the king of Scotland, James VI, came to the English throne as James I. James I paid little attention to Parliament, which he disliked. His son, Charles I, attempted to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament. This brought on a war in which Parliament was victorious. Charles I lost his life, and for a time there was no king in England. Later Charles's son, Charles II, became king and was succeeded by his brother, James II. James II, like his father, sought to rule without regard to the laws

and customs of England and was driven from the throne in the Revolution of 1688. By this time certain things had become fixed in men's minds as "the rights of Englishmen." These were the sole right of Parliament to levy taxes; the right of men accused of crime to be tried where the crime was committed, by a jury, and promptly; the right of men to live in their homes undisturbed by soldiers, who were kept in private houses everywhere else in Europe. The Bill of Rights of 1689 confirmed these rights and added others.

The English Colonies.—Meanwhile the English colonies had come into being and had grown into prosperous communities. The first colony was Virginia, settled in 1607; the next Massachusetts, planted in 1620. The right of the colonists to tax themselves through their representatives, following the example of the English Parliament, was asserted when, in 1619, the first representative body in America met at Jamestown, in Virginia. Two men were selected from each "hundred," or district, to sit in this tiny Parliament. Afterward, the New England colonies and the other English colonies set up assemblies, which levied taxes on the people of the colonies just as Parliament did on the inhabitants of Great Britain. The settlers enjoyed the other rights of Englishmen, such as trial by jury.

George III.—Still another English king, George III, attempted to rule as absolute monarch. George was able to make himself master of Parliament by bribery, and he then proposed to tax the American colonies. At this time, in 1765, England had just come out of a long and expensive war with France which had ended in the gain of Canada. England was greatly in need of

money and the king made up his mind to tax the colonies for the upkeep of the army in America. Parliament, at the king's instance, claimed the right to tax the colonies, since they were a part of the British empire. The Americans denied the right of Parliament to tax them because they were not represented in it: their own colonial assemblies took the place of Parliament with them. When Parliament levied taxes on the American colonies, the colonials refused to pay them. When Parliament passed other laws quartering troops in the homes of New England people and ordering men accused of crimes to be sent away from New England for trial, the Americans claimed that their rights as Englishmen were violated. They rose in arms, and the Revolutionary War began in 1775.

The United States.—The thirteen English colonies then formed a league, known as the United Colonies. Each colony had its separate government, but there was a common representative body called Congress. Each colony had an equal vote in Congress. This early Congress, the Continental Congress, raised an army and appointed George Washington commander-in-chief. Afterward it made an alliance with France and directed the war until 1781. In 1776 it issued the famous Declaration of Independence, announcing that the United Colonies had become the United States of America, a league of republics, and giving the reasons for separation from England. But the power of the Continental Congress rested solely on the consent of the colonies; it had no definite authority. Each colony, by the Declaration of Independence, was an independent republic; it taxed itself

and gave what money it saw fit to the Continental Congress. This was a poor plan, for so little money came from the states that the American army almost broke up at Valley Forge for lack of food and clothing.

Articles of Confederation.—This unsatisfactory state of affairs led to the formation, in 1781, of a government under a plan which is known as the Articles of Confederation. From 1781 to 1789 this was the government of the United States. It proved unsatisfactory. There was no President or other head—that is, no executive department. Congress could not levy taxes or regulate commerce; consequently, the legislative department had little power; there were no courts or judicial department. Such a government was wholly wanting in force. At the instance of James Madison, of Virginia, and several other noted men, a convention of delegates from the states met at Philadelphia in 1787 to alter the Articles of Confederation. The convention ended by framing a new plan of government, the Constitution of the United States. We shall consider this in the following chapter.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Tell in as few words as possible how our liberty was handed down to us from England.

2. Answer these questions:

On what principle did the colonists object to being taxed by the British Parliament?

What other principles established in England were violated by measures imposed by Parliament upon the colonists?

3. Appoint a committee to give a list of America's reasons for separating from England.

4. Give two well-known instances in Patrick Henry's life which show American feeling at the time we fought for liberty. Perhaps some of you can give one of his speeches.



Photograph from Underwood and Underwood

(234)

SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

Problems: (1) To study the Constitution; and (2) to learn the powers of the federal government.

What the Constitution Is.—The Constitution is the basis, the foundation, of the government of the United States as it has existed from 1789 to the present day. Read it; it is brief.¹ By reading it, you will learn the duties of the President, the powers of Congress, the jurisdiction of the federal courts. From it you will learn the scope of the national government in comparison with that of the individual states. The Constitution is the supreme law of the land. No state may pass any law that is contrary to the Constitution. Every officer of the United States from the President down takes an oath to observe it.

The Convention.—The thirteen original states, with the single exception of Rhode Island, sent their wisest leaders to the convention, which met, in 1787, in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, where the Declaration of Independence had been signed eleven years before. Among the delegates were George Washington, James Madison, Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, George Mason, James Wilson, Robert Morris, Charles C. Pinckney, Roger Sherman, and other famous persons. These men met almost daily from May 25 to September 17, 1787. Although the Constitution is short and easy

¹ See page 314.

to read, you will see that it took nearly five months to complete it. Opinion was greatly divided, and sometimes the debates became stormy. Indeed, it is probable that the convention would have broken up in failure but for George Washington, who was chairman, and Benjamin Franklin, who acted as peacemaker in bringing together the divided delegates.

Differences in the Convention.—The main disagreement between the members of the convention arose over the question of the amount of power to be given the new government. Alexander Hamilton, of New York, wished to have a strong central government, like that of England, together with a lessening of the powers of the state governments. Some delegates, on the other hand, did not desire to see the states weakened at all. Other delegates wished to have three Presidents instead of one. Some thought that the President should be elected for life instead of for four years. Others contended that he should be elected by the whole people, while still others thought that it would be best for him to be appointed by Congress. A section of the convention held that Congress should consist of only one body. The delegates from the small states argued that all states should have the same power in Congress; the large states held that representation should be according to population. Slavery caused discussion. Some of the northern delegates wished to stop the bringing in of slaves from Africa; delegates from the South and from New England argued that each state should be allowed to decide the question for itself. Another problem was that of foreign commerce. A number of delegates contended that the states should be left the

power to regulate foreign trade to suit themselves; others held that foreign commerce should be wholly in the hands of Congress.

What Was Done.—In most cases these differences were compromised. Much power was given to the federal government, but much was left to the states. It was decided to have but one President, elected for four years, but eligible for reëlection. He was neither to be elected by the people nor appointed by Congress, but to be elected by electors chosen in turn by the people of each state—the same number of electors as Congressmen. Congress was organized in two bodies: representation in the upper house, the Senate, was to be equal for all states—two Senators for each; representation in the lower body, the House of Representatives, was by population. Foreign commerce was to be regulated by Congress: the states were to give up all control of it. The federal government was to have the sole power to make treaties with foreign countries and control of the army and navy.

Adoption of the Constitution.—The next step was to induce the states to adopt, or ratify, the Constitution: unless nine states ratified, it would not become law. Many of the leading men of the country, among them Patrick Henry, opposed it. George Mason, who had helped to make it, refused to sign, and went back to Virginia to lead the fight against it. Each state elected a convention to pass on the new federal Constitution, and the battle was fought out in these conventions. One by one the conventions ratified, until finally the Virginia convention ratified, though by a small majority. This settled the fate of the Constitution. Two states,

Rhode Island and North Carolina, refused to ratify, but when they found themselves alone they, likewise, came into the fold. The government of the United States really existed at last.

George Washington President.—A large part of the American people—perhaps a majority—opposed the Constitution at the beginning, but when George Washington was elected President they placed confidence in the new government. On April 30, 1789, Washington was inaugurated in New York City, the first capital of the federal government. The seat of government was soon moved to Philadelphia, and, after ten years, to Washington, where it has remained ever since.

Powers of the Federal Government.—Under the Constitution, the United States government has the following powers which cannot be exercised by the individual states:

To declare war.

To maintain an army and navy.

To coin money.

To regulate immigration.

To regulate commerce with foreign nations and between the states.

To make treaties with foreign nations.

To grant patents and copyrights.

To establish post offices and post roads.

Amendments to the Constitution.—The Constitution, though it is the supreme law of the land, has been amended a number of times. A proposed amendment must be passed by a two-thirds vote of both houses of Congress. Then it must be approved by the legislatures of three fourths of the states. The first ten amendments, passed shortly after the Constitution had

been ratified, were intended to secure the rights of the people and of the states against the power of the federal government. They are sometimes called the American Bill of Rights. Among other things these first amendments secured the right of trial by jury; freedom of speech and of the press; freedom of religion; the right of petition; and the security of the home. The eleventh amendment defined the jurisdiction of the United States courts. The twelfth amendment changed the mode of electing the President. The next three amendments came as a result of the War between the States. The thirteenth abolished slavery; the fourteenth made the negro a citizen; and the fifteenth forbade the states to deny citizens the right to vote on account of race or color. Then for many years there were no more amendments. The sixteenth amendment gave the federal government the right to levy an income tax. The seventeenth changed the mode of choosing United States senators, making them elective by the people. The eighteenth forbade the manufacture and sale of alcoholic drinks in the United States. The nineteenth and last amendment gave women the right to vote in elections.

Secession.—One right that the states were believed by many people to have, even after the Constitution was framed, was the right of *secession*—that is, of leaving the Union in case of danger from the federal government. This right of secession was expressly proclaimed by the state of Virginia when it ratified the Constitution, and it was not disputed. For years the right of secession was asserted by many of the public men of the country, especially of New England. But little by

little the powers of the federal government were extended, principally by the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, until a large part of the country came to deny this right of secession. It was still asserted, however, by the Southern states, which, in 1861, put it to the test by seeking to leave the Union. The War between the States was the result. The Southern states were forced to return to the Union, and it is now recognized as a principle of our government that no state has the right to leave the Union under any circumstances.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Be able to tell in class by what body and in what way the Constitution of the United States was framed, and how it was adopted.
2. Discuss the disagreement among the delegates to the convention over the degree of power that should be given to the federal government and that left to the states.
3. Tell what difficulty arose in later years because the degree of power left to the states was not fully decided by the Constitution.
4. Give a brief statement of the powers of the federal government and tell how the Constitution is amended
5. Give the sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth amendments.
6. Memorize the preamble of the Constitution. (See page 314.)

CHAPTER XXXV

THE PRESIDENT AND THE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS

Problems: To study (1) the work of the President; and (2) the various offices of the executive department.

How the President is Chosen.—By the plan for electing the President, each state selects a certain number of delegates who meet and choose the President and Vice President. These men are called presidential electors, and each state has as many of them as it has Senators and Representatives: the entire group of electors from all the states is known as the electoral college. At first the legislatures appointed the electors because they doubted the wisdom of letting the people have a direct part in the election of such an important officer as the President. Soon, however, the people were permitted to vote for the electors; and the President ever since has been really elected by the people. The electoral college is only a form.

Process of Election.—Presidential elections are held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November of each year divisible by four. Each political party has a full set of electors, and you vote for those representing the party you prefer. The electors of the party which receives the largest number of votes meet in the state capital on the second Monday in January following the election and cast their votes for the candidates of their party. They send a record of their votes to the president of the Senate of the United States. On the

second Wednesday in February following the presidential election, the votes of the electors from all the states are counted in the Capitol at Washington in the presence of both houses of Congress: the candidate receiving the majority of votes is declared elected. You may think that this is a very strange way of electing a President, but you must remember that the choice is really decided by the votes of the people at the November election. Ordinarily, a few hours after the election closes everybody in the country knows who is to be President.

The Presidential Succession.—The President, as you know, is elected for a term of four years. If he governs according to the wishes of the people he may be reëlected for a second term. Washington and Jefferson refused a third term, thereby establishing a kind of unwritten law that no President shall serve longer than two terms. Several of our Presidents have died during their term of office. When this happens, the Vice President succeeds to the presidency. In 1886, Congress passed the Presidential Succession Act, which provides that in case of the death of both President and Vice President the cabinet officers shall become President in the following order: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior.

Inauguration of the President.—The inauguration of the President occurs on March 4 following the election, and is an interesting event to the United States. Thousands of people go to Washington to see the ceremonies. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court administers the oath of office, which is as follows:

I do solemnly swear 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.

The President must be a native-born citizen, and must have resided in the United States fourteen years, and be at least thirty-five years old. His salary is \$75,000 a year.

President's Appointing Power.—The President is the chief executive of the nation. He sees that the laws are faithfully carried out, sends a message to Congress in which he recommends legislation, and has the power to call extra sessions of Congress. He appoints the members of his cabinet, ministers to foreign countries, and many other officials, such as judges of the federal courts and postmasters. Except in the case of his cabinet members, appointments by the President must be approved by the Senate. The President also has the power of removing for good cause officers appointed by him except judges, who may be removed after being tried and convicted of misconduct.

Civil Service.—The appointing power of the President causes him a deal of worry, as an army of office-seekers is always besieging him for places. There was a time when government offices were considered a reward for party service, and with each change in political power thousands of persons lost their positions. In 1883 the Civil Service Act was passed. Under this law most government employees stand an examination, and when appointed they cannot be removed because of political opinions.

President as Commander-in-Chief.—The President

is commander-in-chief of the army, and as such must preserve the laws of the United States in all the states and territories. He has the right to send soldiers into any state where violence is interfering with the mails. If disorder breaks out which the militia cannot quell, the governor of the state may call upon the President for military assistance. In case of war, the control of the whole military and naval forces of the country is in his hands.

Other Presidential Powers.—Another power possessed by the President is that of making treaties with other nations, but all such agreements have to be ratified by the Senate. The President may also pardon persons convicted of crimes against the laws of the United States. An important power possessed by him is that of vetoing bills passed by Congress. When this power is exercised by the President, as is frequently the case, he returns the bill to Congress with his objections. The bill may be passed over the *veto* by a two-thirds vote of Congress.

The President's Cabinet.—Just before the President is inaugurated he appoints his cabinet members, who are to assist him in carrying on the weighty affairs of government. Washington had only four members in his cabinet: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, and Attorney-General. But the work of the government has grown to such an extent that six other officers have been added: Secretary of the Navy, Postmaster-General, Secretary of the Interior, Secretary of Agriculture, Secretary of Commerce, and Secretary of Labor. Each cabinet officer is the head of one of the departments of government.

and frequently advises with the President about the work for which he is responsible. In fact, cabinet meetings are held regularly for the purpose of discussing questions concerning the welfare of the country. At these meetings important decisions are made as to the policy of the government.

Departments.—The *State* Department, presided over by the Secretary of State, assists the President in dealings with foreign powers. In the offices of this department are filed the treaties of the United States with other nations. The *Treasury* Department conducts the loans made by the government, such as the bond issues, and supervises the collection of taxes. It makes the money for the country. It also oversees the national bank system of the country, and performs other services. The Department of *Justice*, at the head of which is the Attorney-General, prosecutes those guilty of violating the federal laws. Many of the suits brought by the Department of Justice have been against great corporations, or *trusts*, as they are called, for alleged violations of the federal laws against monopolies for fixing prices. The Department of the *Interior* has many important bureaus, such as the Reclamation Service, Pension Bureau, Bureau of Mines, and Bureau of Education. Under the Department of *Agriculture* are: the Bureau of Plant Industry, Bureau of Crop Estimates, Bureau of Animal Industry, the Weather Bureau, and other important governmental agencies. The Department of *Commerce* takes the census every ten years, registers all United States merchant ships, maintains lighthouses, and does many other things for the upbuilding of the commerce of the

United States. The new Department of *Labor* gathers statistics on the condition of laborers and tries in every possible way to promote the welfare of the workers of the country. There has been recently established in this department the Child's Welfare Bureau. The *War* Department controls the army; the *Navy* Department the sea forces. The *Postal* Department conducts the post-office system. In addition to the ten departments there are a number of special boards or commissions: the Interstate Commerce Commission, the Civil Service Commission, the Federal Reserve Board, and others.

Biggest Business in the World.—In this chapter we have taken a rapid view of the executive work of our government. Thousands of persons, not only at Washington but all over the land and the world, are working in order that we may have a good government. In nearly every country our nation has *ministers*, who represent the government, and *consuls*, who look after our trade interests. At the head of all these workers is the President with his many weighty duties. A study of this chapter should teach us that the biggest business in the world is that of the United States government.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

Why is the President called "The Chief Executive of the Nation"?

How many votes has the electoral college? What constitutes a majority of these votes?

What very important treaty was negotiated by President Wilson and what action did the Senate take upon it?

Which of the Presidents died in office?

2. Compare the appointive power of the governor of your state with that of the President.

3. Appoint a committee to collect the names and photographs of the cabinet members now in office and to find out what is done at a cabinet meeting.

4. Appoint a classmate to report for which candidate the electoral votes of each state were cast in the last presidential election.

5. Explain fully how a treaty is made.

6. Make a list of the Presidents who served two terms.

7. What are the duties of a minister to a foreign country? What are those of a consul?

8. Discuss the value of the Civil Service system.



Copyright, Clinedinst
(248)

THE UNITED STATES HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

CHAPTER XXXVI

CONGRESS AND ITS WORK

Problems: To learn (1) about the work of Congress; and (2) the part your Congressmen take in it.

Why Congress Consists of Two Bodies.—The Congress of the United States consists of two houses or bodies—the Senate and the House of Representatives. When you visit the Capitol in Washington you will be shown the Senate chamber in the north side of the great building, and the hall of the House of Representatives in the south wing. Why do we have two lawmaking bodies? At the time of the Revolutionary War the legislatures of most of the states were composed of two houses—an idea borrowed from the British Parliament, which consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Continental Congress, on the other hand, was a single chamber. Experience shows that the two-house plan is the better, for under this system each house serves as a check on the other. If the House of Representatives passes an objectionable bill, the Senate has the power to defeat or amend it. In this way there is less chance of passing bad laws than under the one-house plan, where a bill may be rushed through without careful consideration.

Senate More Important.—Which house of Congress is the more important? From one standpoint they are both of equal rank, for no bill passed by one house

becomes a law until it is also passed by the other. The framers of the Constitution evidently intended, however, that the Senate should be a more dignified and important body than the House of Representatives, and so it has turned out in actual practice. The Senate is a smaller body than the House of Representatives. The members are usually older, and as a rule have had more experience in legislative matters than Representatives. The fact that the Senate confirms appointments of the President and ratifies treaties with foreign nations adds to its power and influence.

The Senate.—The Senate is composed of ninety-six Senators, two from each state. It may seem strange to you that the state of Nevada, with a population of about seventy thousand, should have the same number of Senators as the great state of New York, with more than ten million people. The explanation is that when the Constitution was being made small states such as Maryland and New Jersey refused to approve it unless they were given equal representation in the Senate with the larger states.

Election of Senators.—The Constitution provides that Senators shall be elected by state legislatures, and this was done until 1913, when the Constitution was amended to provide for their election by the people. Senators are chosen for a term of six years. They are not all elected the same year. The terms of one third expire every two years, so that it is impossible for all Senators to be new to their office at any one time. When a Senator dies, the governor of the state appoints a successor until an election is held. The yearly salary of both Senators and Representatives is \$7500. The

Senate has equal power with the House of Representatives in introducing and passing laws, with this exception, that all bills for raising money must be introduced in the House of Representatives.

The House of Representatives.—In the House of Representatives in the First Congress there sat only sixty-five men; the present House of Representatives consists of four hundred and thirty-five members. The reason for this large increase is that the number of



THE NATIONAL CAPITOL

Representatives depends on population, which is continually growing. The lower house has become so large that many persons think the number should not be further increased. Some states have only one or two Representatives; some, thirty or forty. Thus we see that in the House of Representatives, unlike the Senate, the larger states have much greater power than the smaller ones.

Congressional Districts.—The term of a Representative is two years. Each state is divided into Congressional districts, the number of which depends upon the population. At the present time a district contains about 210,000 people. When a Representative dies or resigns, the governor of the state orders a special election to choose a successor.

The Speaker.—The presiding officer of the House of Representatives is the speaker. The speaker possesses great influence. He decides which member shall be allowed to speak when several desire to be heard and appoints the members of the committees. Among the other officers of the House are the clerk, sergeant-at-arms, and chaplain. The clerk keeps a record of all bills introduced and passed and also compiles the Congressional Record, containing the speeches made. The sergeant-at-arms preserves order in the House. You would think that the members of Congress would always be calm and dignified, but sometimes in the heat of argument the House of Representatives is thrown into confusion, and it is then necessary for the sergeant-at-arms to restore order.

Congressional Committees.—You saw in your study of city and state governments that an important feature of lawmaking bodies is the system of committees to which each bill is referred. Some of the important committees of Congress are: Ways and Means, Appropriations, Foreign Relations, Agriculture, Rivers and Harbors. The principal work of a Senator or Representative consists in attending the meetings of the committees of which he is a member.

How a Law is Passed.—The course of legislation in

Congress is practically the same as in a state legislature. A member introduces a bill. Its title is read, after which it is referred to the proper committee, where it is fully discussed. If the committee thinks the bill ought to become a law, it is reported back to the house with the recommendation that it pass. It is then read in full and placed on the calendar with hundreds of other bills. Finally, it comes up for the third reading and for debate by those who favor and oppose it. If the bill is passed, it is sent to the other house, where it takes the same course. If the bill is passed by both houses of Congress, it then goes to the President, who may dispose of it in any one of the following ways:

1. He may sign it, thereby making it a law.
2. He may keep it for ten days without signing it, in which case it becomes a law without his signature.
3. He may veto the bill—that is, return it to Congress—with a statement of his objections to it. Congress may pass a bill over the President's veto by a vote of two thirds of its members.

How Impeachments Are Tried.—When the President, United States judges, or other officers of the government are guilty of treason or other crimes, they may be tried, or *impeached*, as it is called, by Congress. In impeachment trials, the House of Representatives makes the charges against the person on trial, and the Senate acts as the judge and jury. Impeachment trials are solemn events. Each Senator takes an oath to judge impartially; the person on trial is represented by distinguished lawyers; the testimony is heard, and the Senate holds a secret session to decide the guilt or inno-

cence of the accused. If the President is being impeached, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court presides over the Senate. The most famous impeachment case was that of President Johnson in 1868. He was acquitted by one vote.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

How many Congressional districts has your state?

Who is your member of the House of Representatives?

How is a bill passed over the President's veto?

What are the duties of the chaplain of the House of Representatives?

Can a member of Congress be arrested for a 'crime? (See Article I, Section 6, of the Constitution.)

2. Refer to the Constitution and find the qualifications of Senators and Representatives.

3. Name your Senators. Tell what offices they held before going to the Senate.

4. Bring to the class newspaper clippings telling what bills are being considered in Congress at the present time.

5. Refer to Section 8, Article I, of the Constitution, and name the powers possessed by Congress.

CHAPTER XXXVII

THE FEDERAL COURTS

Problems: (1) To learn why federal courts are necessary; and (2) to consider some of the cases they try.

Why Federal Courts Are Necessary.—We have studied about the executive and legislative branches of our national government and now come to the third branch, the judicial. Why is it necessary to have United States courts? There are state courts in every city and county. If a man commits a crime such as murder or theft he is tried in these courts; or if one citizen wishes to sue another at law he brings the suit in a state court. A little thought, however, will convince you that there are certain civil cases, as well as crimes, over which the national government alone has authority. If a boat collides with another, the owners of the damaged vessel must bring suit in a United States court, since the federal government controls navigation. If a man is charged with counterfeiting, he must stand trial in a federal court, because the states have no authority over the making of money. Then there are larger questions, such as the meaning of treaties and the interpretation of the Constitution as the supreme law of the land, which make it necessary to have federal courts.

The Different Federal Courts.—The Constitution provides that there shall be one Supreme Court and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time

establish. Besides the Supreme Court, there are now about thirty Circuit Courts of Appeal and about a hundred District Courts, and a number of special courts. All federal judges are appointed by the President, subject to confirmation by the Senate, and hold office for life or during good behavior. Each judicial district has a United States marshal, whose duties are somewhat similar to those of a sheriff, and a district attorney, whose duties correspond to those of a commonwealth's attorney in state courts.

The Supreme Court.—The Supreme Court is composed of nine justices and meets in the Capitol at Washington. It is the highest tribunal in the land. The judges are clothed in black gowns, and the proceedings are solemn. One of the judges is called the Chief Justice, and his office is considered by lawyers to be the highest and most honorable of the legal profession. The decisions of the Supreme Court are final, because there is no higher court to which one may go.

Cases Tried in the Federal Courts.—Many wise lawyers have difficulty in deciding at times whether a case should be tried in a state or federal court. But there are certain cases that clearly belong in the United States courts. If an ambassador, for instance, is charged with an offense while in this country, he has the right to go to the Supreme Court for trial. If one state wishes to bring suit against another, it also goes directly to the highest court of the land. It should be remembered, however, that most cases tried by the Supreme Court come up on appeal from lower courts. Cases are often appealed to the Supreme Court on the

ground that decisions of the state courts which tried them violate the United States Constitution.

Among the kinds of cases tried in the United States District Court are the following:

1. When the citizen of one state is suing the citizen of another for a sum exceeding \$3000.



CHIEF JUSTICE JOHN MARSHALL

2. All admiralty cases—that is, law suits arising over disputes between owners of vessels.

3. Proceedings in bankruptcy. Under the bankruptcy law a person who has failed in business may have his debts canceled, provided he surrenders his property for the benefit of his creditors. The Federal government passed this law to enable a man hopelessly in debt to make a new start in business.

4. Proceedings against trusts or large corporations charged with violating the Sherman Act passed by Congress to prevent large corporations from controlling the prices of the necessities of life.

5. Criminal cases against smugglers, counterfeiters, moonshiners, and others charged with violating federal laws. Persons whom the federal courts sentence to imprisonment are not sent to state penitentiaries, but are confined in federal prisons. One of the largest of these is located in Atlanta, Georgia.

6. Crimes of all kinds committed on property of the United States.

The cases that come before the Circuit Courts of Appeal are appealed to it from the District Courts.

Injunctions and Habeas Corpus.—The federal courts, as well as the state courts, frequently issue *injunctions* and writs of *habeas corpus*. Let us explain briefly what these writs are. When a court issues a writ of injunction it commands a person not to do a certain thing. To illustrate—during strikes, federal judges sometimes order strikers not to place pickets around factories and railroad yards to prevent new men from taking their places. In some cases where these orders have been violated the labor leaders have been found guilty of “contempt of court,” and have been sentenced to prison. The writ of *habeas corpus* is intended to protect the liberty of a person unlawfully imprisoned, and originated over seven hundred years ago when the English people wrung from King John the Magna Carta. Before that time English kings had imprisoned men without a warrant or a trial. In this country, if any man is put in prison without a warrant charging him with a crime, his friends may apply to a court for a writ of *habeas corpus*. In the writ the judge orders

the sheriff or marshal to bring the body of the prisoner before him in order that he may determine whether or not the man is unlawfully held in custody. The Constitution of the United States provides that "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."

Deciding on Constitutionality.—The most important function of the Supreme Court is to decide if laws passed by Congress are in accordance with the Constitution. For instance, in 1894, Congress passed an act putting a tax on incomes. The Supreme Court declared this law to be unconstitutional, and it was necessary to pass an amendment to the Constitution before the federal government could tax the incomes of citizens.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

Where is the nearest federal court to your home located?

Who was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court?

What is meant by the statement that federal judges hold office
"for life or during good behavior"?

How are your state judges selected?

Can you think of any objections to electing judges by the people?

Why is the Supreme Court composed of an odd number of
justices?

2. Bring to your class newspaper clippings telling of cases tried in federal courts.

3. Give a brief report of a great case in your American history which was decided by the Supreme Court of the United States.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

MONEY AND CREDIT

Problems: To study (1) the “medium of exchange” and (2) the banking system.

Goods to Exchange.—We have seen that everybody in the community who works has a commodity or a service to sell to other people in exchange for the things he needs. Thus the farmer raises more wheat and corn, pumpkins and watermelons, eggs and chickens than he needs himself. The surplus product of his farm he exchanges with merchants for clothes, shoes, and other articles, for medical attention, for legal services, and for various needs. In the same way, the physician gives his professional services to the farmer for food, to the merchant for goods, and to the lawyer for legal aid.

Exchange in a Primitive Community.—In a primitive community people sell their goods and services by what is called *barter*—that is, the farmer pays the merchant for a suit of clothes with so many bushels of wheat or so many dozens of eggs. He pays the physician in the same manner, and even gives his share to the support of religion in farm products. But this method of direct exchange is difficult and time-wasting. It is not always possible to find a merchant who happens to want foodstuffs at the same time that the farmer wants clothes or other articles; and it takes a long time to determine the exact number of bushels that a suit of clothes, for instance, is worth. In fact, hundreds,

even thousands, of years ago barter was found to be unsatisfactory, and another method of exchange was invented.

The Medium of Exchange.—The problem was to find some one thing so universally desirable that everybody would be willing to give goods or services for it at any time. Thus the farmer might buy with his food-stuffs this *medium of exchange* and when he needed clothes could purchase them with the medium instead of with farm products. Many articles have served, at different times and in different countries, as mediums of exchange.

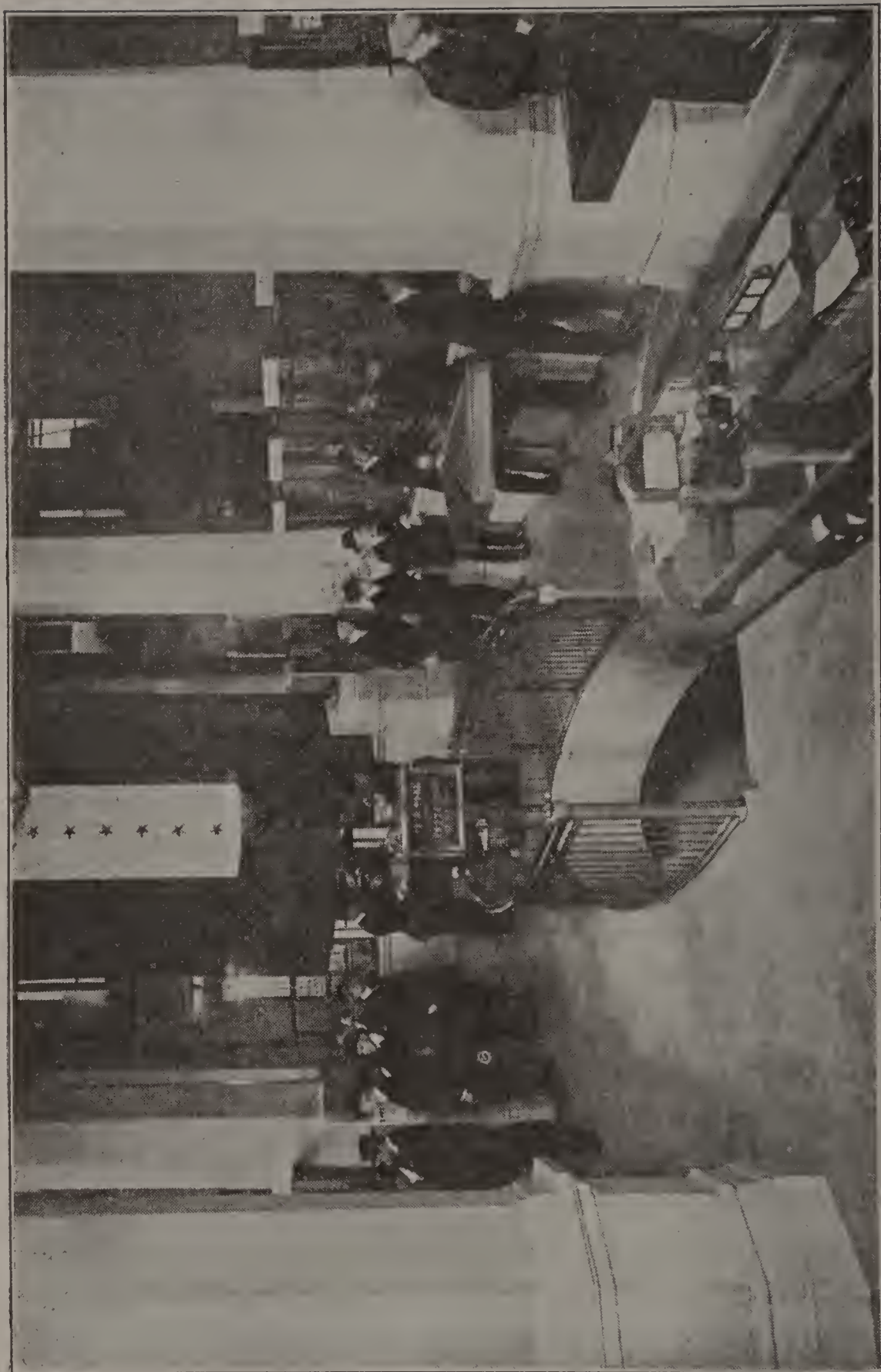
Various Mediums. — The ancient Greeks and Romans, in their early history, used cattle as a medium of exchange. The Norwegians had wheat as their medium; the Britons, tin; the Russians, tea; the American Indians, strings of shells called *wampum*; the New England colonists, beaver skins; the colonial Virginia planters, tobacco; and in many parts of Africa to this day salt is the medium of exchange. Why was it that these various products were found so unsatisfactory as mediums of exchange that people no longer use them? For a number of reasons. Take cattle, for instance. To pay for an article with a certain number of cattle, say five, would not do very well, for cattle differ so much in size and worth that five cattle might mean a considerable value or almost no value at all. Then, again, if one wished to buy an article of small value cattle could not be used. Take tobacco, for another instance. When a large tobacco crop was raised in Virginia, its value lessened so greatly that many hundredweight of it were required to buy any article

of consequence. On the other hand, in case of a crop failure the value of tobacco rose so high that a certain weight of it purchased two or three times the amount of goods the same weight purchased when tobacco was plentiful. This constant change, or *fluctuation*, in the value of tobacco made it a bad medium of exchange. There was another objection to its use for this purpose: it was so bulky that it was hard to carry from place to place to use in making purchases. Yet this difficulty was overcome—can you guess how? Well, the tobacco was carried to the nearest public warehouse and examined; the inspector then gave the owner a receipt for it, called a “tobacco note.” The owner, in buying goods somewhere else, made over this tobacco note to the seller instead of carrying him the tobacco; and the person holding the tobacco note sold it to some ship captain seeking a cargo at the warehouse where the tobacco was stored. In this roundabout way tobacco was used as a medium of exchange all through the colonial period.

Coined Money.—The experience of thousands of years has taught mankind that the best medium of exchange is metallic money. Silver and gold are the metals now used for money nearly the world over. Why is this? Because silver and gold are beautiful metals and desirable apart from their employment as money. Furthermore, they are much scarcer than other metals, such as copper and iron, and therefore more valuable. For a long period both gold and silver were *standard* money—that is, all other articles were measured by their value both in gold and silver. A gold dollar had a dollar’s worth of gold in it, and a silver

dollar had a dollar's worth of silver. But as silver grew to be far more plentiful than gold, its value went down until there was less than a dollar's worth of silver in a coined silver dollar. It was impossible indeed to put a full dollar's worth of silver in a dollar because the coin would be too large, and besides, the value of silver changed or *fluctuated* rapidly, though with a constant downward tendency. The result was that most of the governments of the world, including the United States, have made gold the single standard money. People accept silver dollars without fear, because they know that the government will redeem them in gold dollars, if need be, though the silver dollars themselves do not contain a full dollar's worth of silver.

Paper Money.—Both gold and silver money are rather heavy and bulky in large amounts. For this and other reasons, governments issue *paper money*, which consists of the government's promise to redeem paper bills in metallic money if called on. So long as the credit of the government is good, people do not wish to exchange the paper money for gold or silver, because of the convenience of paper; but if the credit of the government declines the paper money goes down in value. Thus in the War between the States, the paper money put out by the Confederate government declined almost to worthlessness in the last part of the war when people saw that the South would probably fail to gain its independence and so be unable to redeem its paper money in gold or silver. At the same time, the paper money of the United States fell to about half the value of gold, as people realized that years must pass before it could be redeemed in metallic money. In Russia at



THE INTERIOR OF A BANK

the present time many people will not accept the paper money of the Bolshevik government because such immense amounts of it have been issued that everybody knows that it will never be redeemed in metallic money. Consequently the people of Russia have gone back to barter for want of a reliable money or medium of exchange.

Credit.—We have spoken of the “credit of the government.” Credit means faith in the intention and ability of a borrower or purchaser to pay a debt at some date in the future. Most business is based on credit: if it were not for credit, no large business ventures would be possible, because business men are not able to keep great sums of money on hand at all times. Much of *retail trade* is conducted on credit. Often a buyer gives the seller a demand on a bank for the purchase money, which demand, written on a piece of paper, we call a check. A check, however, hardly comes under the name of credit, as it is usually sent to the bank on its receipt, and the money for which it calls is either immediately paid to the holder or added to his account.

Banking.—For many centuries there were no recognized institutions where people could borrow money when they needed it. In Europe during the Middle Ages, Jews took the place of the bankers of the present day: they loaned money, but as they took great risks in lending it, in a period when law was feeble, they charged a high rate of interest. Besides, they frequently had no regular places of business. A better system was needed, and at the beginning of the modern period, soon after the discovery of America, regular places for

keeping and lending money sprang up. We call them *banks*. The first bankers were goldsmiths, to whom money was carried to be kept because they had large and heavy iron boxes in which they stored their gold and jewels. They were the successors of the Jews of the Middle Ages. Gradually the business of keeping money and lending it at interest was separated from the jewelry business, and banks as we know them came into existence.

Functions of Banks.—The importance of banks has steadily grown with the development of business and industry, until at the present time they are necessary to our civilization. They are the sole places for storing money, because people nowadays almost never keep large sums of money in their homes and places of business: nearly all business is carried on by means of checks. Many banks, called savings banks, pay depositors three per cent (sometimes four) interest on the money they put on deposit, which is loaned out by the banks at six per cent. The banks lend money to business men on their notes, or promises to pay back at a certain time with interest; to purchasers of real estate, with the real estate itself as security for payment of the loan, and in other ways. They also issue paper money, called *bank notes*.

United States Banks.—There are several kinds of banks—United States banks, state banks, and private banks. United States banks are called *national* banks, and are under the control and supervision of the United States government. In 1913 the national banking system was greatly extended by the establishment of the Federal Reserve System. By this the country is

divided into twelve districts, with a Federal Reserve bank in the central city in each district: Richmond, Atlanta, and Dallas are among these centers. All national and many state banks are members of the system. The Federal Reserve banks issue paper money based on property held by the banks: these notes members of the system put out as needed. In recent years the United States government has established a number of land banks to lend money to farmers. These last banks are of great value to farmers, who have hitherto had trouble in borrowing money. The business soundness of the country and the prosperity of the people are dependent, in no small measure, on the banking system, which is one of the features of modern life.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

How did people first exchange their products with each other?

What are some of the objections to this method?

What are some things that have been used as "mediums of exchange"?

What are the principal metals used for money? What other metals are used for smaller money?

Why has gold been selected as the "single standard" money?

What is a check? A note?

2. Give a description of the rise of banks.

3. Describe a modern bank.

4. Find out all you can about the Federal Reserve banking system.

CHAPTER XXXIX

HOW THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT RAISES REVENUE

Problems: (1) To ascertain what our national expenses are; and (2) to find out how revenue is raised to meet these expenses.

The Expenses of the National Government.—Did you ever stop to consider how much money is needed to run the United States government? Thousands of government officials and employees are paid by Uncle Sam; ambassadors are sent to foreign countries; post offices, forts, and battleships must be built; the army is supported; interest must be paid on the public debt; and in hundreds of other ways the government is called upon to expend large sums. At the present time it costs the United States several billion dollars a year to run its government. The members of your class could not count such a vast sum of money in a dozen lifetimes, even if it were in ten-dollar gold coins. Let us consider how the government raises the money it needs. It has three main sources of revenue: the tariff; revenue taxes; the income tax.

Tariff.—The Constitution provides that the federal government alone may levy a tax on imports. The states raise the funds they need mainly by taxing real estate and personal property. The founders of the government knew that it would not do for the federal government to tax these forms of property also, so they decided to raise revenue mainly by means of a tax on

imported goods. A tariff is an excellent form of taxation in so far that the average person never realizes that he is paying it. When you buy a piece of ribbon imported from France, you think you are paying the merchant what it costs to make the ribbon plus a profit, but you are really paying much more: a part of its price has already been paid by the importer to Uncle Sam as a duty and is added to the original cost of the ribbon. In your history class you have seen that the tariff question has been an issue in many national elections. Some people believe in a tariff for revenue only, while others favor a tariff that will protect American-made goods against foreign competition. By making the tariff very high, foreign goods are brought into the country under a heavy disadvantage or are kept out altogether.

Internal Revenue.—You know the meaning of the word *internal*. As applied to revenue, it refers to the money raised by the federal government through taxes on certain articles produced within our country. No doubt you have often seen government stamps on cigarette and cigar boxes. Many a battleship has been built with the money paid for these little stamps. Each gallon of alcoholic liquors is also heavily taxed by Uncle Sam. However, since it is now unlawful to manufacture or sell intoxicating liquors as beverages, little revenue comes from this source.

Paying for a War.—In 1916 the national debt was little more than one billion dollars; it is now nearly twenty-three billions. Most of this huge debt was created during the World War. This is an illustration of the fact that war not only kills off thousands of men,

but leaves tremendous financial burdens for future generations to bear. In war times the ordinary methods of taxation do not produce sufficient funds to meet the needs of the government, and special means of raising money must be devised. This is usually accomplished by special taxes, such as taxes on chewing gum, theater tickets, and other luxuries; on business profits; on incomes; and by loans, or bond issues. The Liberty Loan was the great bond issue of the World War.

Income Taxes.—The largest source of revenue is the income tax. This tax is levied on all incomes above a certain amount, but large incomes pay a much heavier rate than small ones. Much money is also obtained from a tax on estates when they are inherited by heirs at the death of the owner.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Answer these questions:

What is a custom house? Smuggling?

What does one mean by "a moonshiner"?

What taxes, if any, have you ever paid to Uncle Sam?

Whom would you consider a "slacker" in the matter of taxation?

2. Explain how you help the government when you buy War Saving Stamps; also how you help yourself.

3. Appoint some one to bring a Liberty Bond to class for the purpose of reading the exact words it contains. Examine carefully the interest coupons.

4. Tell what is meant by an income tax. Men whose income is, let us say, \$500,000 a year pay a much larger income tax rate than men who make \$4,000. Give some reasons for this.

CHAPTER XL

POLITICAL PARTIES

Problems: (1) To learn the history of the great political parties; and (2) to find out how they work.

Why We Have Political Parties.—Your father is probably either a Democrat or a Republican. That is, he is a member of one of the two great parties which contend for the control of the federal and state governments. Why do we have these parties? The answer is that in a country governed by the people it is necessary to have some method of expressing differences of opinion. So the people who think one way about political matters form one party, and the people who think another way form another party. Each party presents its *platform*, or statement of principles, on the eve of an election, and the voters decide between them. The party that wins in the election rules the country according to its principles until the next election, when the voters have an opportunity to change to another party if they so desire.

Early Parties.—The first parties in the United States were the *Federalists*, who favored the ratification of the Constitution in 1788, and the *Anti-Federalists*, who opposed it. The Constitution was ratified, and the Anti-Federalist party went out of existence. It was succeeded some years later by the *Democratic-Republican* party, organized by Thomas Jefferson. The Federalists had come, by this time, to believe in a

strong central government which should override the states. The Democratic-Republicans, on the other hand, believed in maintaining the full rights of the individual states—that is, of strong local government. They also wished to give a large share of power to the mass of the people. In the election of 1800, Jefferson and Burr, the candidates of the Democratic-Republicans, were successful. Some years later, in 1812, the United States went to war with England over its rights on the sea. The Federalists opposed this war, and made themselves so unpopular that their party came to an end.

Later Parties.—From 1818 to 1832 there was only one party in the country, the Democratic-Republican, or *Democratic*, as it later came to be called. In 1832 Henry Clay founded a new party, the *Whig*, which resembled the old Federalist party in advocating a strong federal government at the expense of the rights of the states. These two parties opposed each other until 1852: the Democrats were successful in all but two presidential elections. In the latter year the Whig party went to pieces, only to be succeeded a little later by another party, the *Republican*, which likewise favored a strong central government. The chief issue in politics now came to be the slavery question. The Democratic party opposed interference with slavery: the Republican party desired to break it up. In 1860 the Republican party, with Abraham Lincoln as its presidential candidate, carried the election. The Southern states seceded, and the War between the States followed. After the war the Republicans continued in power for many years. In 1884, however,

Grover Cleveland, a Democrat, was chosen President, and since that time the Democrats have won three presidential elections. Besides these great parties, the principal parties have been the *Know-Nothing* party of 1850-1858; the *Greenback* party of 1875-1880, which advocated the issue of unlimited paper currency by the government; the *Populist* party, which supported the free coinage of silver; the *Progressive* party, which split from the Republican party and then went back to it; and the present *Farmer-Labor* party. Still others are the *Socialist* and *Socialist-Labor* parties.

Party Conventions.—Presidential candidates are chosen by nominating conventions. For months before a presidential election the different parties lay plans for success at the polls. The first step is the holding of state conventions to elect delegates to the national conventions of the parties. In some states, presidential candidates are voted for in primaries, although the primary election as employed in selecting presidential candidates is not a success as yet. When the delegates are chosen—the number for each state is decided by the party managers, ordinarily in proportion to the number of voters—they go to the national convention, which is usually held in Chicago, St. Louis, or some other centrally located large city. The streets of the city are hung with flags, and the delegates parade behind bands on their way to hotels and the convention auditorium. An air of intense excitement pervades the city and, indeed, the whole country. The convention is held in a hall capable of seating thousands of people. The first important event is the adoption of a platform. A committee draws up the platform, which is brought before

the convention and adopted. Next comes the nomination of a candidate for President. One noted man after another is offered to the convention in speeches that excite the enthusiasm of the delegates. When all the candidates have been brought forward, the delegates vote by states. The voting continues until some man is chosen. In the Republican convention, a bare majority of delegates select the candidate, but in a Democratic convention a two-thirds majority is necessary. After a candidate for President has been nominated, a vice presidential candidate is chosen in the same way. Then the convention breaks up.

Campaign and Election.—A great political party spends millions of dollars in presenting its candidate to the people; this presentation is called the *campaign*. Headquarters are opened, with hundreds of clerks and stenographers; speakers are employed; literature is sent through the mails, and advertisements are displayed. Election day arrives at last. There is great excitement throughout the country when the voters go to the polls. When night falls and the polls are closed, the excitement grows intense. In the large cities the newspapers flash searchlights of different colors as soon as the election returns begin to come in, to show which candidate is leading. When, at last, it is known who is elected, the enthusiasm reaches a high pitch. In the presidential election of 1920 more than 26,000,000 votes were cast. This was the first presidential election in which women voted in all the states.

Inauguration.—On March 4 following the election, the newly elected President is put in his office. He announces the members of his cabinet on the eve of the



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

(275)

VOTING BY MACHINE

inauguration. He goes to the White House on the morning of March 4 and rides therefrom to the Capitol, usually at the head of a great procession. At the Capitol he takes the oath of office and returns to the White House. Here he meets his cabinet for the first time, and by the evening of the same day one party has gone out of power and another has come in. This peaceful change of government, in obedience to the will of the people, is one of the most remarkable examples of political soundness the world has ever seen. In many countries the party in power holds a nominal election and counts the votes to suit itself. The weaker party then takes up arms, and a war follows. But in the United States the people cheerfully abide by the decision of the majority, and the outgoing President politely greets the incoming President and often rides with him to the Capitol, though the two men may have been opposing candidates in the preceding election.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Name the political parties that put forward candidates in the last presidential campaign.
2. Appoint a classmate to report on the tariff plank in both the Republican and Democratic platforms in the last election.
3. Give the qualifications of a voter in your state and find out where is the nearest voting-place to your school.
4. Explain what is meant by a corrupt election.
5. In many states candidates who run for office are required to file a sworn statement setting forth all money expended by them in the election. Why is this required?
6. Tell what you understand is meant by a political "boss."
7. Debate: *Resolved*, That every voter should belong to a political party.

CHAPTER XLI

NATURALIZATION

Problems: To learn (1) what is meant by "Naturalization"; and (2) how a foreigner becomes naturalized.

Ellis Island.—If you should go to Ellis Island, in New York harbor, you would witness a singular sight. Ellis Island is the place where foreigners land and are examined before being admitted to America. There you would see people from every country in Europe and from some countries of Asia. Most of them are poor peasants. In many cases the women carry all the belongings of the family tied up in great bundles, for immigrants seldom have trunks and bags. Some of the immigrants wear the peasant costumes of southern and eastern Europe. In a majority of instances the family consists of mother, father, and children. Very seldom do the newcomers speak English: within the radius of a few yards you might hear half a dozen languages. You would be interested in the children. They are bright-eyed and eager, but frequently dirty, for all foreigners are not accustomed to American cleanliness.

Restriction of Immigration.—By the law of 1920 the various countries of the world are allowed to send only a certain number of immigrants to America each year. This is done to prevent the country from being swamped by millions of people from the war-wasted lands of Europe, who could not find work here and who would have to be supported by the United States. For years

past immigrants have been compelled to undergo a medical examination before admission, and those suffering from certain diseases are not allowed to enter the country. Immigrants are also required to have a small amount of money, to show that they are not paupers seeking a land in which to live without work.

Causes of Immigration.—All of the people of the United States, except Indians, are immigrants or descendants of immigrants. The first Americans came three centuries ago and for various reasons. They left Europe partly for religious and political liberty, but for the most part, as people do today, to improve their lot in life. For the last half century the immigrants have come largely from backward and oppressed lands; in most cases they have sought to make a better living than was possible at home. Many thousands of Russian Jews, however, came to this country to escape persecution. Another cause of immigration has been military service in European countries. Until recently able-bodied young men in all the lands of continental Europe were required to pass two or three years in the army. Thousands of boys who did not wish to go through this long and severe military training and lose several years from their work came to America. Another cause that has brought many fairly prosperous people to the United States has been the larger opportunities it offers: business men in England particularly move to America for this reason. All of these causes, working together, have drawn to this country millions of people, and the population has grown by leaps and bounds.

Character of Immigrants.—The people who colonized

America were mainly Englishmen, together with Scotch, Scotch-Irish, Dutch, Germans, and French. The English, being a large majority, gave the country an English flavor, but the people of other blood also did much to make America what it is. When America threw off the yoke of England and became an independent republic, the Americans were so inspired with the spirit of freedom and so full of sympathy with the downtrodden people of Europe that they made the land the “asylum of the oppressed” and welcomed all comers to our shores. The immigrants were glad to come and proud to be American citizens: they upheld our institutions enthusiastically. But late in the nineteenth century another class of immigrants began to come to America—people who thought that property should be in common and even that there should be no government at all. Some of these latter immigrants have sought to undermine our country by awakening discontent, declaring that the people do not have their full rights. They do not value the chance to make a living in a free and happy country that America offers: usually they wish to live without work and at the expense of other people. It is only just to say, however, that immigrants of this sort are not numerous. The great majority of present-day immigrants, like those of the past, welcome the chance to live in the United States, and the number of newcomers who ask entrance to this country is fully as large as the law provides for.

Danger from the Immigrants.—Some of these immigrants bring a danger to America, and that is ignorance of our methods of government. Many of them come from countries where the people in the past have had

little or no voice in the government. They did not vote for their king, because kings are not elected. The laws were made for them, not by them. It is difficult for these immigrants, then, to learn that they have a voice in the government of the United States, if they become citizens, and that a part of the responsibility of the government is theirs. When they become citizens, in the large cities they sometimes vote according to the dictation of some "boss" and without much idea as to what they vote for. This makes it possible for corrupt political "machines" to stay in power and misrule some of our greatest cities. A movement is now under way in all parts of the land to *Americanize* foreign-born citizens of recent arrival and teach them their duty to the country of which they are now a part. In recent years many of them have become thoroughly Americanized and take an important share in our political life.

Who a Citizen Is.—The question may be asked, "Who are citizens?" In the first place, most of the boys and girls in your class are citizens of the United States by right of birth. If you were born in the United States, you are a citizen unless your father was a foreigner and you wish to claim citizenship in a foreign country. If you are the son or daughter of a citizen you are a citizen, no matter where you were born. If you came with your parents to this country as a baby, and your father has not become a citizen, you are not a citizen and must be *naturalized* before you can vote. In other words, you must go through the process by means of which foreigners are made citizens. Any resident of the United States may become a citizen if he

has not been convicted of crime. Most of the foreigners who enter America seek citizenship as soon as the law allows. A few people live in the country all their lives without becoming citizens, and they sometimes get into serious trouble by failing to acquire citizenship. In the World War the property of many Germans was seized



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

BECOMING A CITIZEN

by the government, though in some cases the people so suffering had lived in America for years.

The Way to Become a Citizen.—The manner in which a foreigner becomes a citizen is interesting. He first files a Declaration of Intention showing that he wishes to be a citizen of the United States. The next stage is to file the Second Paper or Petition for Natural-

ization. The last step is for the applicant to appear before the judge of a United States court and prove that he has lived in this country for five years and that he understands something about our government. He then takes the oath of allegiance, in which he solemnly swears to be a true and faithful citizen of this country and to give up allegiance to other lands. When a foreigner becomes a citizen, his wife and children are made citizens by that act and thus do not need to be naturalized themselves.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Tell a story about a successful foreigner in your community or your nearest town.
2. Tell a story you have read of a distinguished naturalized citizen.
3. Find in a newspaper or magazine an incident of Ellis Island.

CHAPTER XLII

EXPANSION OF THE UNITED STATES

Problems: (1) To trace the growth of our country; and (2) to show how this growth was brought about.

How a Continent Was Won. — “Westward the Course of Empire Takes Its Way,” is the title of a famous picture that adorns the walls of the Capitol at Washington. In this painting you see the hardy pioneers crossing the mountains—the men on horse-back and the women and children in covered wagons—in search of new and fertile lands toward the setting sun. How our country grew from thirteen states along the Atlantic coast until it reached the Pacific Ocean is a story that all American boys and girls should know. In this chapter you may read a few of the most stirring parts of this wonderful tale.

The Country We Desired.—In the year 1800 the land from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains belonged to Spain. What of the wild region beyond the Rockies? It was unknown to the people of our country. Spain also owned the city of New Orleans and a narrow strip of land on the eastern bank of the Mississippi. The fact that the mouth of the Mississippi was held by Spain aroused much dissatisfaction in Kentucky, Tennessee, and other states near the Ohio River; for there were no railroads in that day, and the only way in which the people of those states could send their products to the outside world was by the Missis-

issippi River. Spain could close its mouth to our commerce at any time. This dissatisfaction grew when in the year 1800 Spain turned over the Louisiana Territory to France. Napoleon was at the head of the government in France at that time, and many thought that he wished to conquer the world. Fearing his power, the people of our country demanded that something be done to secure the lower part of the Mississippi.

The Louisiana Purchase.—Thomas Jefferson, who was President of the United States at the time, told Robert R. Livingston, our minister to France, to try to buy a part of the Louisiana Territory; so anxious was he to bring this about that he sent James Monroe to assist Livingston. To the surprise of the government, France agreed to sell the whole territory to us for the sum of \$15,000,000. Napoleon realized that England with her great navy could easily conquer the territory, so he wisely decided to take this price, which was considered a very large sum of money at that time (1803). Many people were opposed to the Louisiana Purchase, and claimed that Jefferson violated the Constitution in making it. But when we consider the great states that have been formed out of the vast territory, and the fact that all this fertile land cost less than three cents an acre, we must realize that Jefferson was very wise in buying it. When the Louisiana Purchase treaty had been signed in Paris, Livingston said to Monroe, “We have lived long, but this is the noblest work of our lives.”

The Battle of the Alamo.—At San Antonio, Texas, is an old Spanish mission or church, called the Alamo, which is famous in American history because within its

walls American frontiersmen fought one of the bravest battles in all the world's history. As you doubtless know, Texas was once a part of Mexico, but the American pioneers who settled the country were unwilling to live under Mexican rule, and began a struggle for independence. In this war the battle of the Alamo was fought. Santa Anna, the Mexican general, entered San Antonio with an army of several thousand soldiers. The Texan commander, Colonel Travis, decided to hold the Alamo, although he had only one hundred and eighty men. Santa Anna demanded a surrender, and, when Travis refused, hoisted a red flag to show that no mercy would be shown the defenders. Attacks were made by the Mexicans through the last days of February, 1836, but the brave defenders beat the enemy off. Travis sent out an appeal for reënforcements. His courier could find only thirty-two men, but they answered the call, cut their way through the Mexican army, and entered the Alamo just three days before the final assault. These men could have saved their lives by refusing to answer Colonel Travis's call, but like true Americans they went to the help of their comrades at any cost. On March 6 the last attack was made. Time after time the defenders beat back the enemy, but finally the Mexicans entered the fort, where the Americans met them with bowie knives and pistols in a terrible hand-to-hand fight. Travis, David Crockett, Colonel Bowie, and all the Americans were slain. The monument erected to their memory bears this inscription: "Thermopylae had her Messenger of Defeat; the Alamo had None." Texas finally freed herself from Mexican rule and joined the United States

in 1845. This brought on a war between Mexico and the United States, in which our country was successful. Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, Nevada, and California were added to the United States as a result of it.

The Forty-Niners.—You have studied in your history about the discovery of gold in California in 1849, and you know of the great rush of people who went there seeking fortune. But you do not know, perhaps, of the hardships suffered by those gold hunters in crossing the prairies, the Rocky Mountains, and the deserts of the Far West. There were three ways in which people went to California in the gold rush. The first was around Cape Horn, the second across the Isthmus of Panama, and the third the overland route. It was the overland route that was especially full of hardships and dangers. The gold seekers usually gathered in large bands before crossing the Rockies. Sometimes there would be several hundred people in a party, and their covered wagons formed a caravan. The men rode on horses with guns swinging over their shoulders; usually at their head was a famous scout who knew all the trails across the vast stretch of desert between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada. This scout knew how to avoid hostile bands of Indians, and where to find streams of water; he guided the settlers on their perilous journey. What an interesting trip it must have been, not only for the brave men, but also for the women and children! Hundreds of Forty-niners died in making the journey. Many were killed by hostile Indians; others were lost in the deserts and died of thirst and starvation. The majority, however, made the journey in safety. They opened the Western country



Copyright, Publishers Photo Service

(287) A SCENE IN THE YOSEMITE VALLEY, CALIFORNIA

and settled California and the other Pacific coast states, which are now among the richest in the Union.

The First Continental Railroad.—For many years after the Pacific coast was settled, the only method of crossing the immense region from the Rockies to the Sierra Nevada was by stagecoach and wagons. This trip took weeks and was full of peril. When railroads began to be built in the East, people dreamed of a railroad that would extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This was such a vast undertaking that Congress was asked to help. Congress therefore passed an act in the year 1862 to aid in the building of a railroad and telegraph line from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean. The two companies organized to build the railroad were to receive sections of land on each side of the roadbed, in addition to \$16,000 for every mile of track laid. The companies employed thousands of laborers, and engaged in a great race, one working eastward and the other westward. They finally met near Salt Lake City in 1869. The last tie was made of California laurel, and a great crowd gathered to see the last spike driven into it. This spike was of pure gold and was struck by a silver hammer. There was great rejoicing over the completion of the railway. Altogether it cost the government almost a hundred million dollars and a strip of land ten miles wide from the Missouri River to the Pacific coast, but it opened the great West to homeseekers and made possible the building of rich and populous states in a wilderness once uninhabited by man.

Other Territory.—In 1867 the United States acquired Alaska. Later the Sandwich Islands joined the

United States. Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands were won in the Spanish-American War. A few years ago the United States bought the Virgin Islands from Denmark.

The Panama Canal.—No one thing shows the greatness of America more than the building of the Panama



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood

GATUN LOCKS, PANAMA CANAL

Canal. Just as Thomas Jefferson is entitled to the gratitude of Americans for buying the Louisiana Territory, so President Roosevelt will always be remembered for building the Panama Canal. The French first tried to construct a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. They began work in 1879, but after spending a vast sum of money they failed because of inadequate

machinery, malaria, and yellow fever. The United States sought for years to negotiate a treaty with the republic of Colombia securing the right to dig a canal. Finally the state of Panama set up a separate government, recognized by President Roosevelt, and signed a treaty giving the United States a canal zone across the Isthmus. We paid Panama \$10,000,000 for these rights. President Roosevelt then appointed a Canal Commission, whose first task was to decide upon the type of canal to be built. The French had tried to build a sea-level canal; we wisely decided upon a lock waterway.

Features of the Canal.—This mighty piece of work was begun in 1904, and for ten years thirty-seven thousand workmen were busy day and night carrying on the work. The main features of the canal are:

1. The Gatun Dam near the Atlantic coast. This great dam, one and a half miles long and a half mile wide at its base, was built to hold the waters of the Chagres River, thereby forming a lake twenty-two miles long.

2. The Culebra Cut. Millions of tons of rock and dirt were removed by great steam shovels from this cut through the highest point on the canal route. There were frequent “slides” in the cut, which for a time baffled the engineers in charge; but finally the required depth was reached.

3. The Locks. Six great double locks were built for the canal, all operated by electricity generated by the water of Gatun Dam.

Makers of the Canal.—The length of the canal is forty miles from shore to shore, and the total cost in

money was \$375,000,000. Most of the laborers were Chinese coolies and seasoned tropical workers from the West Indies. In addition to Theodore Roosevelt, two men acquired fame in the building of the canal—Major G. W. Goethals, the chief engineer in charge, and Colonel William C. Gorgas, who made the Canal Zone sanitary. It is estimated that Colonel Gorgas, by abolishing malaria and yellow fever from the Canal Zone, saved thousands of lives and many millions of dollars. You doubtless know the advantages of the Panama Canal in peace and war. Do not forget that this was the crowning act in the winning of a continent for our country and the greatest modern engineering achievement of any nation.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Use the following questions for a review game. Add to the list questions which you think important:

In the year 1800, to whom belonged all the territory from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains now embraced in the United States?

How did the United States acquire this territory?

Against what country did Texas have to fight to gain its freedom?

When did it become a part of the United States?

Who were the "Forty-niners"?

How was the first transcontinental railroad built?

2. Describe the Panama Canal and tell how it was built.

3. Draw a map of the United States showing the original thirteen states and all the accessions of territory.

CHAPTER XLIII

AMERICA AND THE WORLD

The Family of Nations.—Columbus made his famous voyage of discovery in three tiny ships, pictures of which you have doubtless seen in your school histories. It took him three months to cross the sea. In 1492 there were no steamships or railroads, and while some commerce was carried on, yet each nation lived largely to itself. As there were no newspapers, the people of one nation knew little about what was happening in other parts of the world. Foreigners were looked upon with suspicion, and each country feared and distrusted its neighbors.

The World Today.—How different the world is today! Steamships, railroads, telegraph and cable lines and daily newspapers have brought the people of England and China closer to us than Massachusetts was to Georgia in Revolutionary days. You can take up the morning paper and read about the leading events that occurred yesterday in Japan, South Africa, Argentina, and Poland. Each nation carries on an extensive commerce with the rest of the world, and is, in fact, dependent upon other nations for many things that make life pleasant. To realize how extensive international commerce is just look at the breakfast table. The sugar came perhaps from Cuba, the bananas from Central America, the coffee from Brazil, the pepper from the islands of Asia, the tea from China, and some of the

dishes from European countries. The dependence of each nation upon the rest of the world is best appreciated during a war. At the breaking out of the World War Germany had merchant ships on every sea; but when England blockaded her ports, the German people began to feel the pangs of hunger and the nations dependent on her for dyestuffs and other articles found themselves greatly inconvenienced. Almost the entire globe was drawn into the war, because what affects one part of the world affects the whole. It has come about that the world of today is just one large community. No nation can say: "We will live to ourselves and let other nations do likewise." America is a member of the family of nations and, as such, must play a great part not only in the development of its own resources but in the building up of other nations.

America the Melting Pot.—We should feel kindly towards other nations, because our citizens have come from all parts of the world. Burial services were held in some city over the remains of five soldiers who had been killed in the Argonne-Meuse battle. These boys had been buried in an American cemetery in France, where thousands of our soldiers lie, but at the request of their parents their remains were brought back to this country in a United States battleship for final burial. The newspapers gave the nationality of the fathers of these boys. One was a Greek, another an Italian, the third an Austrian, and the remaining two came from the original stock of early settlers. This incident should impress on us the truth that our country owes a great debt to the millions of immigrants who have come to our shores from every country of Europe. They have

done their part in developing farms, mines, and factories of our land; they and their children are loyal Americans.

The World War.—That America is truly a member of a family of nations is shown by her entrance into the World War. We tried to keep out of the war, but could not; for, as stated before, our welfare is bound up with that of every other nation. We sent two million soldiers to France, and loaned billions of dollars to our allies, not for the purpose of gaining territory for ourselves, but to make the world “a free and safe place to live in.” We came out of the war the strongest and richest nation in the world, and other countries now look to us for help and guidance.

American Ideals.—As an American you should be proud of the ideals of your country and of their world-wide influence. One American ideal is that of political liberty. When Thomas Jefferson penned the Declaration of Independence, he wrote it not for our country alone but for all countries. Since his day the principles of the Declaration have been adopted by practically the whole world. Kings no longer rule tyrannically over their subjects, but in nearly every nation the people have the right to decide by their ballots how the affairs of the country shall be conducted. Another ideal that America has given to the world is that of kindness toward other nations. This may be illustrated by our dealings with China. In the year 1900 the leading nations of Europe were seeking to dismember China by taking control of her territory and by obtaining exclusive trading rights for themselves in certain areas. The United States induced these nations to adopt the

“Open Door” policy, by which China should be left her whole territory and each nation be given right to trade with all parts of the country. About this time the Boxer Rebellion broke out, and Chinese mobs killed many foreigners. The great powers, including the United States, sent armed forces to China to put down the rebellion. The nations interested immediately demanded a huge indemnity of China. To these



Copyright, Clinedinst

THE PAN-AMERICAN BUILDING

demands our country objected, and the greater part of the indemnity finally awarded America was canceled by an act of Congress. So grateful did China feel toward us that she decided to use the canceled indemnity to send Chinese students to attend our colleges and universities.

World Peace.—A third noble ideal of America is that of world peace. One of the most beautiful build-



Copyright, Underwood and Underwood
(296)

AMERICAN TROOPS IN LONDON

ings in our national capital is that of the Pan-American Union, organized for the purpose of promoting peace, friendship, and commerce among all the nations of the Western Hemisphere. The United States, it is needless to say, was the leading spirit in the launching of this movement. In The Hague, the capital of Holland, there is a beautiful building called the Palace of Peace, where the International Court of Arbitration met to try to settle peaceably disputes that arise between nations. An American gave \$1,500,000 for the erection of this building, and the United States has always taken a leading part in the efforts to secure permanent peace. President Wilson at the conference held at Versailles at the close of the World War ably advocated our ideals. The Armament Conference of 1921, held in Washington, was a further effort to secure world peace. It is hoped that the American ideals of justice and fairness to others will prevail throughout the world.

THE FATHERLAND

Where is the true man's fatherland?
Is it where he by chance is born?
Doth not the yearning spirit scorn
In such scant borders to be spanned?
Oh, yes! his fatherland must be
As the blue heaven wide and free!

Is it alone where freedom is,
Where God is God and man is man?
Doth he not claim a broader span
For the soul's love of home than this?
Oh yes! his fatherland must be
As the blue heaven wide and free!

Where'er a human heart doth wear
Joy's myrtle-wreath or sorrow's gyves,
Where'er a human spirit strives
After a life more true and fair,
There is the true man's birthplace grand,
His is a world-wide fatherland!

Where'er a single slave doth pine,
Where'er one man may help another—
Thank God for such a birthright, brother,
That spot of earth is thine and mine!
There is the true man's birthright grand,
His is a world-wide fatherland!

JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

Government of Kentucky

Origin and Meaning of the Name

The Blue Grass state, Kentucky, bears an Indian name. Some authorities state that the name was derived from "Kentake," meaning "Meadow Land"; others maintain that it comes from "Kentuke," meaning "River of Blood"; still others claim that the word is Shawnee and means "At the Head of a River."

CHAPTER XLIV

HISTORIC KENTUCKY

Problems: (1) To study the beginning and growth of Kentucky; and (2) to become acquainted with some of Kentucky's great men.

Historic Kentucky.—The history of Kentucky is exceedingly interesting and picturesque. Kentucky was the first commonwealth west of the Alleghanies to be settled by Anglo-Saxons. In its early days it was the scene of the exploits of George Rogers Clark, Daniel Boone, Simon Kenton, and their fellows, who wrested the land from the Indians after a bloody struggle. After the Revolution, it filled up with settlers from the East, particularly Virginia, who brought with them the culture for which Kentuckians have always been noted. Until 1792, Kentucky was a part of Virginia; it then became the fifteenth state of the Union. Its population, which at that time was about 80,000, rose to 406,000 by 1810. Kentucky was for years the largest commonwealth of what was then called "the West." Its famous statesman, Henry Clay, was for a long period the foremost figure in American politics. In the War between the States, Kentucky was divided in sympathy between North and South and its sons served in both armies. The battles of Perryville and Richmond and other engagements were fought on Kentucky soil.

Great Kentuckians.—Kentucky has been famed for

political leadership. Jefferson Davis and Abraham Lincoln were both born within its borders within a year of each other. Henry Clay came to the state when a very young man and passed his career as a representative of Kentucky. He sat in Congress for the famous Ashland district, which was later represented by Colonel W. C. P. Breckinridge and other noted men. Besides Clay, John C. Breckinridge, Southern candidate for the United States presidency in 1860, Beck, Letcher, and Carlisle won great fame in public life. In law, Kentucky furnished Nicholas, Boyle, Robertson, and Harlan. In oratory, Clay, Marshall, Menifee, Bradley, and James made the state noted for eloquence. In surgery, McDowell and Brashear rank with the foremost names, while Fitch and Rumsey, inventors of the steamboat, were Kentuckians. In theology, Bascom, Waller, Rice, Campbell, McGarvey, and Broadus were eminent; in poetry, O'Hara and Cawein; in art, Jouett and Hart. "My Old Kentucky Home" is sung the length and breadth of the world.

Capitol Buildings.—Kentucky began its existence as a forest commonwealth. Since 1792 it has had eight capitol buildings. The first was at Lexington, a two-story log building of the pioneers. The second was a frame house in Frankfort, which became the capital after Lexington. All the other buildings were in Frankfort, gradually increasing in convenience and expensiveness until the present fine state house was completed in 1910 at a cost of \$1,800,000.

State Constitutions.—Kentucky has had four constitutions. The first was framed in 1792, when the state was organized. The second was adopted in 1800; the

third in 1850; the fourth and last in 1891. There has been some agitation in recent years for the calling of a constitutional convention and the making of a new constitution.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. What is Kentucky's present population?
2. Have a member of the class prepare and read a paper on some famous place in Kentucky.
3. What famous place is near your home?
4. Learn the name of any man from your county who helped make the present constitution of Kentucky.

CHAPTER XLV

THE CONSTITUTION OF KENTUCKY

Problems: (1) To learn the main provisions of the Bill of Rights; and (2) to show the purposes and duties of the legislative, executive, and judicial departments of the state government.

Bill of Rights.—The Kentucky constitution resembles that of many of the other states of the Union. There is a Bill of Rights insuring the citizens certain fundamental rights, such as religious freedom; free speech; the holding of public assemblies; the acquisition of property; the bearing of arms in defense of the commonwealth; trial by jury; free elections; prohibition of searching homes without warrants; open courts, without secret proceedings; *habeas corpus*; subordination of the military to the civil power; and other rights and privileges for which the people fought in the Revolution.

Legislative Department.—As in all other American state governments, the powers of government are divided into the legislative, executive, and judicial departments. The legislative is the “General Assembly of Kentucky,” which consists of the *house of representatives* and the *senate*. The assembly meets in January of every other year; it may not remain in session more than sixty days. A majority of the members of each house is necessary for a quorum. Each house judges of the qualifications and election

of its members and makes its rules of procedure. Members are privileged from arrest during the session except for treason or felony. Members may not be appointed to offices created during the session until a year afterward. The assembly shall not pass laws to decrease the sinking fund for the payment of the state debt. No law may deal with more than one subject. All bills passed by the legislature, unless vetoed by the governor and not passed over the veto, become laws ninety days after adjournment, except when they have an emergency clause, in which case they become laws immediately. The assembly may not pass local or special acts concerning courts, juries, or changes of venue in trial cases; to regulate punishment for crimes; to affect estates left to minors or infants; to change the laws for conducting elections; to grant divorces; to change the names of persons; to provide for conducting elections, except in the case of newly-created counties; to provide for the protection of fish and game; to regulate labor, trade, mining or manufacturing; to locate or change county seats; to provide for the management of common schools, and in certain other cases. In all these, the laws must be common to the state.

Executive Department.—The *governor* is the chief officer of the state. He is elected for four years and is then ineligible for reëlection for four years. He must be thirty years of age and have resided in Kentucky for six years before election. The *lieutenant-governor* must have the same qualifications as the governor. In case the governor dies, resigns or is removed, he succeeds to the office. The *treasurer*, *auditor of public accounts*, *commissioner of agriculture*,

labor and statistics, secretary of state, attorney-general, superintendent of public instruction, and clerk of the Court of Appeals are elected at the same time as the governor and for the same term.

Judicial Department.—The senate sits as a court in the impeachment of the governor and the other state officers for violation of the laws. The Court of Appeals is the highest tribunal of the state. It consists of seven judges elected from seven districts who hold office for eight years. No one less than thirty-five years of age and who has not practiced law or served as a judge for eight years is eligible. The judge of longest service is the chief justice. This court reviews the decisions of lower courts and there is no appeal from its decisions except in cases involving United States laws. Circuit Courts exist in each county of the state. There are thirty-six of these circuits, each consisting of two or more counties except in three cases. In two of these last, a single county comprises a circuit. In the third, the Louisville district, there are several courts of chancery and of common pleas, and a criminal court in place of a single court. Judges of Circuit Courts must be not less than thirty-five years old and have been citizens of the state for two years preceding election. Three terms at least are held in each Circuit Court each year. This court is the principal trial court; the majority of cases come before it. A *commonwealth's attorney* cares for the state's interest in each district. There are other and lower courts. Each county has its County Court, with a county judge, for the trial of small cases. Counties also have Quarterly Courts, presided over by the county judge. Counties

are divided into districts, each one of which elects a justice of the peace or magistrate; no county may have less than three or more than eight magisterial districts. Each justice conducts a Justice's Court, which tries civil cases in which no more than \$100 is involved as well as misdemeanors. The justices of a county, with the county judge presiding, form the Fiscal Court, which fixes the rate of taxation for the county and appropriates money for public purposes. Some counties elect commissioners for the Fiscal Court. The cities and towns have Police Courts, which exercise much the same powers as Justices' Courts do in the counties.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Find out how we obtained the liberties guaranteed to us in the Bill of Rights.

2. Look up in an English history Magna Carta; *habeas corpus*; trial by jury.

3. Find out when the Kentucky legislature meets, and learn the names of the senator and representative from your county or district.

4. If possible make a trip to Frankfort while the Legislature is in session.

5. Write to your senator or representative to send you a copy of a bill before the legislature.

6. Find out the names of executive officers of the state.

7. Learn the names of the members of the Court of Appeals.

CHAPTER XLVI

THE CONSTITUTION OF KENTUCKY (Continued)

Problems: (1) To find out who has the right to vote in Kentucky; (2) to study the government of the cities, towns, and counties; (3) to study the educational system; and (4) to study the state's system of taxation.

Suffrage.—Every citizen of the United States who has resided in the state one year and in a county or city six months and in the precinct in which he offers to vote sixty days has the right of suffrage, unless he is among those specially excepted. Persons convicted of treason, felony or bribery; persons under confinement for a penal offense; and idiots and insane persons are excluded from voting. The general assembly makes the laws for registering voters and conducting elections. It is somewhat limited by the provisions of the constitution. No more than one election shall be held in the state, or in a county or town, in a year unless otherwise provided by the constitution. This is to prevent too frequent elections. The general assembly passes laws for regulating voting, ascertaining the result of elections, making returns, and issuing certificates of election. Vacancies in elective offices are filled by appointment or election, as is provided in the constitution.

Cities and Towns.—Cities and towns are divided into six classes. All municipal corporations of the same class possess the same powers and are subject to the same restrictions. Cities of the first class have

Name _____

Address _____



Democratic Party

For Governor

William Jason Fields . . . ☐

For Lieutenant Governor

Henry H. Denhardt . . . ☐

For Secretary Of State

Emma Guy Cromwell . . . ☐

For Attorney-General

Frank E. Daugherty . . . ☐

For Auditor Of Public Accounts

W. H. Shanks . . . ☐

For Treasurer

Edward B. Dishman . . . ☐

For Superintendent Of Public Instruction

Meloney Rhoads . . . ☐

For Commissioner Of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics

Ozell Coleman . . . ☐

For Clerk Of Court Of Appeals

John A. Goodman . . . ☐

For Railroad Commissioner

Calton B. Gross . . . ☐

For Representative

Wm. B. Ardery . . . ☐

For Circuit Judge

Ben G. Williams . . . ☐



Republican Party

For Governor

Chas. I. Dawson . . . ☐

For Lieutenant Governor

Ellerbe W. Carter . . . ☐

For Secretary Of State

Eleanor Hunt Wickliffe . . . ☐

For Attorney-General

Monroe Fields . . . ☐

For Auditor Of Public Accounts

Jas. A. Wallace . . . ☐

For Treasurer

F. M. McCain . . . ☐

For Superintendent Of Public Instruction

W. L. Jayne . . . ☐

For Commissioner Of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics

Lewis Lebus . . . ☐

For Clerk Court Of Appeals

John Asher . . . ☐

For Railroad Commissioner

Ike Wilder . . . ☐

For Circuit Judge

H. Clay Howard . . . ☐



Farmer-Labor Party

For Governor

Wm. S. DeMuth . . . ☐

For Lieutenant Governor

Allie H. Lee . . . ☐

For Secretary Of State

Emma Saurer . . . ☐

For Treasurer

J. Q. Jones . . . ☐

For Commissioner Of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics

Carr Hawkins . . . ☐

For Clerk Court Of Appeals

Chas. R. Bell . . . ☐



Socialist Party

For Governor

M. A. Brinkman . . . ☐

For Lieutenant Governor

Wm. Catton . . . ☐

For Secretary Of State

Ed. Lowe . . . ☐

For Auditor Of Public Accounts

R. C. Albrecht . . . ☐

For Superintendent Of Public Instruction

J. L. Wrather . . . ☐

For Commissioner Of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics

J. D. Bradley . . . ☐

For Clerk Court Of Appeals

W. A. Sandefer . . . ☐

For Railroad Commissioner

Frank Smith . . . ☐



Non-Partisan Candidate For Circuit Judge

H. Clay Howard . . . ☐

Constitutional Amendment No. 1.

Are you in favor of amending Section 146 of the State Constitution, conferring upon both men and women the right to vote, subject to the same restrictions, limitations and exceptions as now provided for men?

Yes . . . ☐

No . . . ☐

Name _____

Address _____

BALLOT FOR A STATE ELECTION

In order to vote the complete ticket of a party, the voter makes a cross with a pencil in the large circle. In order to vote for various candidates, the voter makes a mark in the small square after the name of each candidate for whom he votes.

100,000 or more population: Louisville is the only city of this class. It has many governing bodies not found elsewhere in the state. Cities of the second class have less than 100,000 and more than 20,000 population. These cities have a commission form of government, under a mayor and board of control. Cities ranging in population from 20,000 to 8,000 are in the third class. Cities of the fourth class have less than 8,000 and more than 3,000 inhabitants. Fifth-class cities have from 3,000 to 1,000 people. Towns and villages have less than 1,000 population and do not possess quite the same municipal rights as larger places.

The mayor and police judges are elected, except that these officers in cities and towns of the fourth, fifth, and sixth classes may be appointed if it is so provided. No person may be a member of the legislature and at the same time hold a city or county office.

Counties.—The principal sub-divisions of the state are the counties. No county of less than four hundred square miles shall be created. A county may be formed from another county when a majority of the voters of the county desire it. The principal officers of the county are the *sheriff*, the *judge*, the *clerk*, the *attorney*, the *road engineer*, the *surveyor*, the *tax commissioner*, the *coroner*, the *circuit clerk*, and the *jailer*. They all have important duties. In addition, there are other officials and boards. Some of these are appointed; others are elected by the county districts, as is the county board of education. The sheriff appoints his deputies to assist him in his work, which consists in executing the laws, arresting criminals, and collecting state and county taxes.

Education.—There is an efficient system of common schools provided for by the legislature. Each county is entitled to a share of the school fund in proportion to the number of its school children. No distinction is made, in distributing the school funds, on account of race or color; separate schools for white and colored children are maintained. No portion of the tax for educational purposes shall be used for denominational schools: common education must be non-sectarian.

Taxation.—The state derives its revenue from direct taxation. Property used for public purposes, churches, charitable institutions, and educational institutions not deriving private gain, and public libraries are exempt from taxation. The general assembly levies an annual tax which must be uniform on all property subject to taxation within the limits of the commonwealth. All property not exempt from taxation is assessed at a fair cash value, or as nearly so as possible. The general assembly may authorize the counties and cities to levy a poll tax not exceeding a dollar and a half a head. The general assembly does not impose taxes for local purposes, but has the power to confer this right on local governments, county, city, and town. The general assembly collects license fees on franchises, trades, and professions and may confer on local governments the power to lay such license taxes.

The tax rate of cities, towns, counties, and taxing districts, for other than school purposes, shall not at any time exceed the following rate on the value of taxable property: for all towns and cities having a population of fifteen thousand or more, one dollar and fifty cents on the hundred dollars; for all towns having less

than fifteen thousand and not less than ten thousand, one dollar on the hundred dollars; for all towns and cities having less than ten thousand, seventy cents on the hundred dollars; and counties and taxing districts, fifty cents on the hundred dollars. This tax rate might be increased, however, to enable a city, town, county or taxing district to pay the interest on and provide a sinking fund for the payment of debts contracted before the adoption of the constitution.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Find out the nearest voting booth to your home and learn the duties of the election officers.

2. Have the class conduct an election of county officers, with certain members of the class acting as election officers.

3. Find out the names of the county officers of the county in which you live. Have the class visit the courthouse and meet these officers.

4. If you live in a town or city, find out the names of the most important officers of your municipal government.

5. Find out the principal sources of revenue the state has. Learn the rate of taxation for school purposes in your county.

CHAPTER XLVII

THE CONSTITUTION OF KENTUCKY (Continued)

Problems: (1) To find out the provisions of the constitution governing corporations, railroads, and the state militia; and (2) to study the mode by which the constitution may be amended and learn the important amendments.

Corporations.—Corporations are associations of men, generally for business purposes. They are not partnership concerns in the ordinary sense. A corporation usually issues stock and the stockholders are not liable for its debts in case of failure. Corporations are organized under the laws of Kentucky. No corporation may engage in business other than that expressly provided by its charter, nor shall it hold real estate not needed for carrying on its business for a longer period than five years under penalty of having the property forfeited by the state. Corporations formed under Kentucky laws must have one or more places of business within the state. Transportation by railroad, steamboat or other common carrier shall be so regulated as to prevent unjust discrimination; pools or combinations organized to depreciate the price of articles below their real value or to raise the price of articles above their value are forbidden. The general assembly shall provide for the forfeiture of the charters of corporations guilty of abuse or misuse of their corporate powers or whenever such corporations become injurious to the welfare of the commonwealth.

Railroads.—A *railroad commission*, composed of three persons, supervises the railroads doing business in the state. These commissioners are elected from three districts into which the state is divided for the purpose. No railroad may engage in any other business than that of common carrier, or lease or acquire mines, factories, and timber, unless such procedure is necessary to its proper business. Rolling stock and other movable property belonging to railways are considered personal property and are liable to sale for failure to pay taxes, as is other property. All common carriers shall make uniform charges and shall have the same method of payment. Railways must allow the tracks of other companies to cross them at convenient points. The punishment for violation of these regulations is a fine of \$1,000 for the first offense, \$5,000 for the second, and forfeiture of charter, franchises, and privileges for the third.

Militia.—The militia of Kentucky consists of all able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years not exempted by national or state law. The organization and equipment of the troops shall conform as far as possible to that of the United States army. All militia officers not appointed are elected by the members of their companies, battalions or regiments for terms not exceeding four years. The governor appoints the *adjutant-general* and other staff officers. The general assembly makes provision for the safe-keeping of arms and military records and relics.

General Provisions.—Lotteries and gift enterprises are forbidden. Treason against the commonwealth

consists only of levying war against it and giving aid and comfort to its enemies.

No money shall be drawn from the state treasury except in pursuance of appropriations, and a regular statement of receipts and expenditures shall be published annually.

The general assembly directs in what manner and in what courts suits may be brought against the commonwealth.

REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION

Mode.—The constitution of Kentucky may be changed if an amendment is proposed in either house of the general assembly at a regular session, and agreed to by three fifths of the members of both houses. The proposed amendment shall then be submitted to the voters of the state, and to pass must have a majority of the votes cast. No more than two amendments shall be voted upon at any one time, nor shall the same amendment be again submitted within five years of a rejection. A convention may be held for the purpose of revising the constitution, provided that the question has been before two sessions of the general assembly. The delegates to such a convention must be elected according to law. The convention shall consist of as many delegates as there are members of the house of representatives, and the delegates shall have the same qualifications and be elected from the same districts as representatives.

Amendments.—No. 1. Adopted in 1902. By this, the general assembly shall not impose taxes for the purpose of any county, city, town or other municipal corporation, but may by general laws confer on the

proper authorities thereof the power to assess and collect such taxes.

No. 2. Adopted in 1909. By this, the credit of the commonwealth may be given, pledged, or loaned to any county of the commonwealth for public road purposes.

No. 3. Adopted in 1915. By this, the general assembly shall have power to divide property into classes and to determine what class or classes of property shall be subject to local taxation.

No. 4. Adopted in 1915. By this, the commonwealth of Kentucky may use convict labor outside the walls of the penitentiary for road and bridge work and work on the state farms.

No. 5. Adopted in 1917. By this, no railroad, telegraph, telephone, bridge or common carrier company shall consolidate its capital stock, franchises or property with any other competing line or structure without first having the consent of the railroad commission or such other state commission as has control of such matters.

No. 6. Adopted in 1919. By this, judges of the county court, justices of peace, sheriffs, coroners, surveyors, jailers, assessors, county attorneys, and constables shall be subject to indictment and prosecution for criminal misconduct in office or willful neglect in discharge of official duties.

No. 7. Adopted in 1919. By this, the manufacture, sale or transportation of spirituous, vinous, malt or other intoxicating liquors, except for sacramental, medical, scientific or mechanical purposes, in the commonwealth of Kentucky is prohibited.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Have members of the class prepare lists of some of the corporations in the state.

2. Have the class learn the names of the important railroad systems operating in the state.

3. Have a member of the class prepare a paper on the subject: "What railroads have meant in the development of Kentucky."

4. Have a member of the class write to the adjutant-general of the state and ask him the present military strength of Kentucky and the headquarters of the different regiments.

5. Find out if the militia has recently been used to quell disturbances.

6. Find out what amendments to the constitution have recently been proposed.

CHAPTER XLVIII

KENTUCKY'S ELECTIVE OFFICERS

Problems: (1) To learn the names and the duties of Kentucky's elective officers: and (2) to learn the names and location of Kentucky's public institutions.

Governor.—The governor is the head of the executive department of the government and his principal duty is to see that the laws are carried out. He has the power of appointment to a number of offices. He may veto bills passed by the legislature and such bills do not become laws unless passed by a majority of both houses of the legislature over his veto. He has the right to pardon criminals and commute sentences. His salary is \$6,500 and the use of a mansion as a residence.

Lieutenant-Governor.—This officer is president of the senate. He succeeds to the governorship on the death, resignation or disability of the governor. His salary is \$10 a day during the session of the assembly.

Secretary of State.—He keeps a register of the official acts of the governor and attests them. He also furnishes papers and vouchers relative to these on demand of the legislature. Important records are in his keeping. His salary is \$4,000.

Attorney-General.—He must have been a lawyer for eight years before his election. He is at the head of the department of justice and has several assistants. He advises the governor and other officers on legal

matters and represents the state in suits. His salary is \$4,000.

Auditor of Public Accounts.—The auditor audits the books of the various departments of state and handles funds. His duties are broad and important; he has a number of special clerks under him. His salary is \$3,600.

Treasurer.—The treasurer pays out the money appropriated by the assembly. His salary is \$3,600.

Superintendent of Public Instruction.—This official is at the head of the public school system of the state. His duty is to see that schools are properly managed, that teachers are qualified, that courses of study are conducted, and that the money for school use is rightly distributed. His salary is \$4,000. Under this department are the *state board of education, state board of examiners, state school supervisors, school inspectors, state vocational education board.*

Commissioner of Agriculture, Labor and Statistics.—He promotes the agricultural interests of the state, sees that the laws in regard to labor are carried out, and compiles statistics of the resources and affairs of the state. His salary is \$4,000.

Clerk of Court of Appeals.—He keeps the records of the Court of Appeals and performs the other duties of a regular clerk of a court of law. His salary is \$4,000.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. If possible, take the class through the capitol.
2. Have different members of the class make oral reports on the visit to the state officers.
3. Invite citizens of the community to talk to your class about the state institutions.

CHAPTER XLIX

STATE APPOINTIVE OFFICERS

Problems: (1) To learn the names and the duties of the state appointive officers; and (2) to learn the names and location of Kentucky's state institutions.

Banking Commissioner.—This official examines into the condition of banks doing business under the state laws. He sees that banks keep the law and investigates their solvency. His salary is \$3,600.

Inspector and Examiner.—The asylums, prisons, and charitable institutions are under the supervision of this official, who examines into their condition and sees that they are properly conducted. His salary is \$3,000.

Geologist.—The state geologist makes surveys of the mineral resources of the state and publishes information concerning them. His salary is \$3,000.

Librarian.—The state librarian has charge of the state library at Frankfort. His salary is \$1,800.

Adjutant-General.—He supervises the militia and sees that it is in efficient condition for service. The armories and arsenals of the state are in his charge. His salary is \$3,000.

Board of Agriculture.—This body, consisting of nine members, was created for the purpose of promoting agriculture. The salary is \$5 a day for each member while the board is in session.

Insurance Commissioner.—This officer is head of the

insurance commission, which includes two other members. The commission supervises insurance companies doing business in the state. The salary of members is \$3,000.

Other Departments and Boards.—Other departments and boards are the *department of fire prevention and rates*, the *live stock sanitary board*, *Confederate pension department*, *department of mines*, *department of state roads and highways*, *state custodian*, *superintendent of public printing*, *sinking fund commission*, *board of charities and corrections*, *board of dental examiners*, *board of election commissioners*, *board of health*, *board of accountancy*, *workmen's compensation board*, *council of national defense*, *board of bar examiners*, *game and fish commission*, *library commission*, *tax commission*, *automobile department*, *Old Kentucky home commission*.

State Institutions.—The following educational, penal, and charitable institutions are maintained by the state:

Kentucky School for the Deaf, Danville.

Kentucky School for the Blind, Louisville.

Kentucky Confederate Home, Pewee Valley.

Kentucky Children's Home Society, Lyndon.

Kentucky Home Society for Colored Children, Louisville.

State University, Lexington.

Eastern State Normal School and Teachers' College, Richmond.

Western State Normal School and Teachers' College, Bowling Green.

Kentucky Normal and Industrial Institute for Colored Persons, Frankfort.

Kentucky Feeble-Minded Institute, Frankfort.

Kentucky School of Reform, Greendale.
Murray State Normal School, Murray.
Morehead State Normal School, Morehead.
State Reformatory, Frankfort.
State Penitentiary, Eddyville.
Eastern State Hospital, Lexington.
Western State Hospital, Hopkinsville.
Central State Hospital, Lakeland.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. If possible, take the class to the state capitol and have them visit the different offices.
2. Supply the children with state maps, which can be obtained from the state railroad department, and have them locate the different state institutions on the map.
3. Have citizens of the community talk to the children about the state institutions.
4. Form History and Civics Clubs in the school and let them visit places of interest and make reports to the class.
5. Get from the departments of state the literature that will explain many governmental activities.
6. Write the Filson Club of Louisville for interesting historical information.

CHAPTER L

KENTUCKY SCHOOLS

Problems: (1) To learn the service rendered the schools by the state department of education; and (2) to become acquainted with the growth and development of the higher institutions of learning in the state.

Board of Education.—The public schools of Kentucky have made rapid progress in recent years under a good system of administration. The *superintendent of public instruction* is the head of the system. The *state board of education*, which has general supervisory power, is composed of the superintendent, the secretary of state, and the attorney-general. The *board of examiners* is made up of the superintendent and two educators appointed by him. The *board of vocational education* has charge of the vocational work under the direction of a *vocational supervisor*.

Other Activities.—There are also supervisors of music, home economics, high schools, rural schools, certification, teacher training, and agriculture. Thus, all forms of public education are carefully supervised and tested. The federal aid work of county agents and home demonstration agents is under the direction of the State University. The federal aid work of agricultural teachers in rural high schools is directed by the state supervisor of agriculture. Industrial education, part-time schools, continuation schools, and adult evening schools are for the most part directed by the *supervisor of industrial work*. The county school

system is under the direction of a county board of education. This board elects the county superintendent. City school systems and graded schools are conducted by boards elected for the purpose. All teachers in public schools must have proper certificates of training. The schools are free to all children between the ages of seven and eighteen.

Improvements.—Probably the most noteworthy improvement in the public education of Kentucky in recent years is the growth and development of the State University and of the Eastern Normal School and Teachers' College and the Western Normal School and Teachers' College. These schools now rank with the best in the country. Two more normal schools have opened, one at Murray and the other at Morehead. Consolidation of numerous small rural schools has improved educational conditions greatly and is putting new life into agricultural communities. The summer normal schools in the various counties have done much to develop and broaden teachers. Georgetown College conducts a summer quarter open to teachers. Beyond doubt, education is making great strides in Kentucky.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Have one or more persons from the state department of education visit the school and talk to the children about the department.
2. Have citizens in the community visit the school and talk to the children about the higher institutions of learning.
3. Have the pupils collect pictures of the higher institutions illustrating their growth.
4. Have the children visit institutions of learning—a consolidated school, a rural high school—and make reports to the class on the visits.
5. Supply the pupils with county maps and have them locate the schools.
6. Supply the children with state maps and have them locate schools.

CHAPTER LI

KENTUCKY HIGHWAYS

Problems: (1) To learn why some roads in a county are better than others; (2) to learn who are responsible for the roads being good or bad; (3) to learn the source of the road money and the use that is made of it; and (4) to learn the relation of the nation and the state to the roads that are near your home.

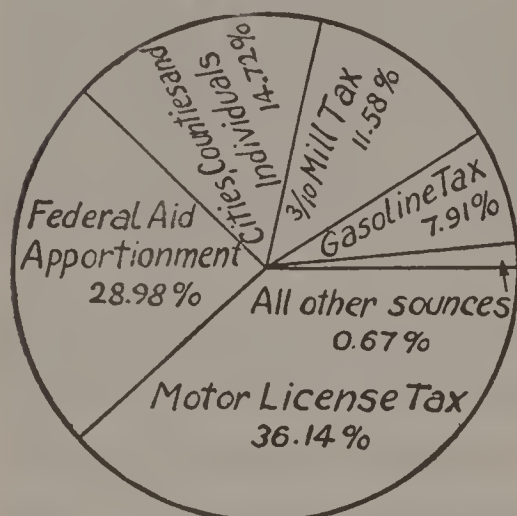
Highway Commission.—The general assembly of 1920 passed a new road law which means much to the future of the state. This law created a *highway commission*, composed of four members appointed by the governor from the two main political parties. It is the duty of the commission to make a detailed investigation of the whole matter of road and bridge building and maintenance, with a view to outlining a system of highway construction that may best meet the needs of the people. In accordance with this design, the commission has formed an extensive plan of road building which is now being carried out.

Chief Officer.—The chief officer of the *department of state roads and highways* is the *highway engineer*. He is appointed by the commission for four years, must be not less than thirty years old and a graduate in civil engineering of some reputable college or technical school, and shall have not less than five years' experience in civil and road engineering. His salary is \$5,000.

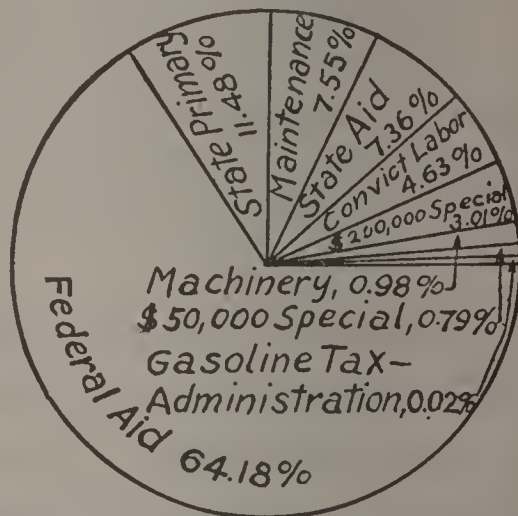
Road Laws.—This 1920 law established a primary

system of highways which gives to each county at least one main thoroughfare. Federal aid is accepted in road-building. State and federal funds appropriated for road construction shall be used for this purpose until the entire

WHERE THE ROAD FUND
COMES FROM

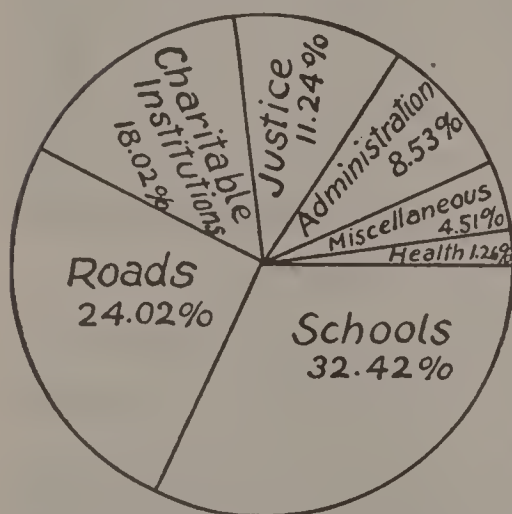


WHERE THE ROAD FUND
GOES



FOR FISCAL YEAR 1921-1922

HOW THE STATE TAX
DOLLAR WAS SPENT IN
1921 AND 1922



system of highways is completed. It is estimated that \$50,000,000 will be sufficient to complete the primary system of highways without increase of taxation. As automobile owners are responsible in large measure for the nationwide movement for good roads and profit by them, it is just that they should bear a share

of the cost of construction and maintenance. Taxes derived from motor licenses and the sale of gasoline furnished 44 per cent of the money spent on such improved roads as have already been built. If the part of the state-wide taxation paid by automobile owners were

added, it would be shown that these owners are paying more than one-half of all money expended for road construction and maintenance in Kentucky.

Future of Roads.—Kentucky has good road laws and good motor vehicle laws, and, if the present policies are pursued, in a few years we shall have a system of state roads of which we shall all be proud and which will mean much to the economic interests of the state. Every one should endeavor to use the roads unselfishly and intelligently and help take care of them. Feel that they are partly yours and use them as you would your own property.

FEDERAL AID FUNDS—KENTUCKY ALLOTMENTS

Year ending July 1		
1917.....	\$97,471	91
1918, act 1916, appropriated \$25,000,000.....	194,943	82
1919.....	292,984	62
1919, act 1919, appropriated \$200,000,000.....	976,865	18
1920, act 1916.....	390,746	07
1920, act 1919.....	1,465,297	76
1921, act 1916.....	487,938	86
1921, act 1919.....	1,465,297	75
		<hr/>
Total.....	\$5,371,545	97
1922, available November 9, 1921.....	\$472,492	89
1922, available January 1, 1922.....	944,785	79
1923.....	944,785	79
1924.....	1,228,125	29
		<hr/>
Total.....	\$8,961,735	73

Under the seven per cent provision of the amended federal aid act, a proposed scheme of Federal aid roads was outlined by the state highway department

and submitted to the Bureau of Roads at Washington. With a few minor changes, the suggested scheme was accepted by the federal authorities.

It has been estimated that the total length of federal aid roads in Kentucky will, under the present plan, reach 3,250 miles. It must be borne in mind, however, that changes in location from existing routes may very materially change this mileage. From information secured a year after the federal system had been outlined, it appears that, when constructed, the length of the roads will fall short of the estimated 3,250 miles.

As there are no less than 53,000 miles of road in the state, it will be possible to increase the total length of the improved system approximately to 3,700 miles, under the seven per cent provision of the federal act.

CLUB ACTIVITIES

1. Take the class to see one of the national highways.
2. Supply each pupil with a state road map. You can get them from the state department of roads.
3. Let the class make drawings showing the source and use of the road funds.
4. Let members of the class describe the roads near their homes.
5. Have members of the class collect some pictures of good roads.

APPENDIX

I

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

The familiar maxim, "Learn to do by doing," should probably be applied to the subject of civics more than to any other study. A dry question-and-answer study of the subject brings little result. The only way for children to *become* good citizens is for them to *be* good citizens at home and in school. With this thought in view the authors have outlined a plan which they believe will bring about the proper study of citizenship. In the first chapter it is suggested that the class be organized as a civics club. At the end of each chapter certain work is assigned the club. It is expected that the president and the executive committee, with the aid of the teacher, will assign the topics or projects to committees, giving each child in the class something to do. Below a few lessons are worked out which will help an inexperienced teacher plan other lessons.

ORGANIZATION OF A CIVICS CLUB

(See Chapter I)

I

This lesson should be read in class silently, the children following directions given by the teacher. At the end of the lesson, after a brief summary of the facts gained, the teacher may say: "We have learned how a club in another school was organized. Would you like to organize a similar club?" (A vote is taken and the question decided in favor of the organization.)

TEACHER: Have you any suggestions to make?

PUPIL: Committees should be appointed in the school.
(There is a full discussion of this question.)

TEACHER: You agree that committees should be appointed, and upon your suggestion I shall now appoint the following committees. Every child in the class will be appointed on some committee.

The teacher appoints the following committees: Committee on Name of Organization, Committee on Constitution, Committee on Pledge, Committee on Slogans, Committee on Time and Place of Meeting. These committees are temporary committees and their work will have been finished when the organization has been completed. Permanent committees will be appointed by the officers of the club after organization and as the need for them is developed.

TEACHER: The boy or girl whose name appears first upon a committee is chairman of that committee and must be prepared to make the report. It is the duty of a chairman to call his committee together at a certain time. I would suggest that the committees meet in different parts of the room immediately after this period or at the close of school. I shall be at my desk ready to help you in any way if you wish to come to me for suggestions. It may be that some of you may think it advisable to wait and get aid from your father or mother and have another meeting. That is probably a good plan. Remember that a report is expected from every committee when the class meets tomorrow.

II

When the class meets on the second day, the teacher calls for the reports of the committees in the following order:

Name of the organization

Constitution

Pledge.

Slogan.

Time and Place of Meeting.

After these reports have been received and acted on, the class should proceed to the election of officers.

The teacher should now have a discussion as to the best way in which the newly organized club can further the study of civics. The children may be led to the conclusion that committees comprising the whole class should be appointed each day by the president and the teacher, to report on the topics or projects at the end of each lesson in the textbook, these reports to be given at the beginning of each period.

The teacher then assigns Chapter Two for study and appoints committees to report on the various topics at the end of the chapter. After this the president confers with the teacher each day as to the appointment of committees.

COMMUNITY STUDY

(See Chapters II and III)

The teacher should call for the reports of the various committees. Each report should be followed by a full discussion in which the whole class participates. The lessons will fail of their purpose if they merely end with a report on what *can* be done for the community. Steps should be taken to *carry out* the suggestions made. Perhaps a committee might be appointed to appear before the town council to urge the adoption of some measure for the welfare of the community.

In Chapter III the teacher has a chance—in appointing committees to improve the school—to organize real projects which will probably keep several committees busy during the entire year. Once a week, on Friday perhaps, these committees should make reports. They should make posters and do everything which will promote the work of their committees. In this way they will be *live, working* committees.

A question is given at the end of Chapter III for class discussion. Of course the teacher must skillfully lead the children to right conclusions. The following brief outline may serve as a suggestion:

TEACHER: Should children receive a weekly allowance for chores done at home?

FRANK: I don't think they should. My father takes care of me, gives me food, and sends me to school. I think it is my duty to do everything I am called upon to do at home without pay.

MARY: I don't agree with Frank. I have to go to my father for spending money. I should not have to ask him for a nickel every time I need one. If he would give me a regular allowance it would enable me to plan how to spend my money.

SARAH: I agree with Mary. I know my father loses patience sometimes when I ask him for money. I really am afraid to ask him at times. It would certainly be much better if I knew beforehand what I am to get.

JOHN: Some boys and girls do not do any work at home at all. Should they be paid for doing nothing?

JAMES: One advantage of the plan is that every boy and girl is required to do certain things for the benefit of the home. I agree with the girls that the plan is a good one.

TEACHER: We will now write upon the blackboard some of the advantages and disadvantages of receiving a weekly allowance for chores done.

Advantages

1. It makes every child a helper in the home.
2. It does away with the need of asking parents for money.
3. It makes the child a responsible spender.
4. It tends to promote thrift.

Disadvantages

1. Children should feel it their duty to do chores without expecting a reward.

2. In some homes there are no chores to do.

TEACHER: We will leave this question for your consideration until tomorrow, when we will take a written vote on it.

THE PLAYGROUND—COURAGE AND FAIR PLAY

(See Chapters V and VI)

By having the pupils to work out the suggestions offered at the end of these chapters, the teacher will be training boys and girls in leadership. She should be on the alert and see that timid children take some part in the general activities. Aside from the civic value of the work, there is the good which comes to the school. Working committees make a live, dynamic school.

HEALTH

(See Chapters VII, XVI, and XXX)

That "Charity begins at home" is a proverb which applies most forcefully here. The teacher should look after the sanitary conditions of her school or schoolroom. She should see that the room is clean and well ventilated, and if she is in a country school she should see that the grounds are well kept and that sanitary conditions prevail in all outhouses. In her own classroom she should look carefully into the physical condition of her pupils, especially as to their eyesight and hearing.

Organize a clean-up squad for the school and for the streets. Perhaps the boys can secure the use of an unsightly vacant lot and turn it into an attractive playground, in this way performing two civic duties. Boys and girls may take definite steps toward planting flowers and having school gardens.

In connection with the lesson in Chapter XVI, a cam-

campaign against flies and mosquitoes should be inaugurated. The following outline may help in an anti-mosquito campaign:

How to Fight the Mosquito

1. Know all the facts concerning breeding: that mosquitoes breed in rain barrels, guttering of houses, and in any standing water. Wiggletails are usually found in such places, and where there are wiggletails there will be mosquitoes.

2. Make a survey in the neighborhood to locate breeding places. Draw a map which shows these. (These surveys may be made in the winter when no active work can be done.)

3. Learn the different methods of getting rid of the pests. By a simple experiment you can find out the easiest way. Put a mosquito netting over a glass of water which contains wiggletails and watch them develop. You will see that they come to the surface of the water to breathe. Pour oil on top of the water and the mosquito will die. If oil is poured in rain barrels and on other standing water, the mosquitoes will be exterminated. If the surface is too great for this treatment, the water should be drained.

4. See that steps are taken to exterminate mosquitoes in your community. Take your map to your health officer and offer your services in the campaign.

A similar campaign should be planned for the extermination of flies. The children can make a survey of a block in the winter and locate breeding places—stables, uncovered garbage, compost, etc.—and take steps to have these removed.

THE COUNTY

(See Chapter XI)

Through the County Field Day, the County Fair, or through other county contests the teacher should arouse interest in county affairs.

VOCATIONAL STUDY
(See Chapters XV and XXIX)

It is not too early for children to be thinking of their life work, and the teacher should make this lesson a vital one. This is the time for vocational guidance.

II

MEETING OF A JUNIOR CITIZENS CLUB

The following is a partial report of a meeting of an eighth grade class which had organized itself as a town meeting. The account is self-explanatory. It will be found very suggestive.

Irvington School.

8-B Grade.

January 27, 1921.

MARGARET COOK (MAYOR OF ROWEN): The meeting will please come to order. We will rise and say the oath.

THE MAYOR: Will the minutes of our last meeting now be read?

THE SECRETARY: The last meeting of the citizens of Rowen was held in Room 9, December 17, 1920.

The meeting, as usual, was opened with the oath. Our Mayor next announced that the subject for discussion was "Light." Mr. Winders spoke of the advantage of electric light. Miss Piersol argued that gas was cheaper for light, giving as one advantage that it had been found in sufficient quantities near Rowen. The floor was open for general discussion. Immediately afterward a vote was taken by which it was decided we should use electricity from a plant to be built in Rowen.

Mr. Pritchard spoke of bridges and pointed out the advantages of different kinds. The meeting then adjourned by motion.

Unfinished business was taken up at a special meeting, Monday, January 3, 1921. The question of a bridge was again introduced. Miss Layman recommended a public bridge, and following her Mr. Burnett spoke in favor of a private bridge owned by a share-selling concern. The floor was opened for general discussion on bridges. Following that a vote was taken and it was decided that we build a public bridge with a concrete foundation.

Adjournment on motion.

THE MAYOR: Are there any corrections of these minutes? If not, they will stand approved as read.

As this is our last meeting we have planned a program showing the origin and development of the town of Rowen. We have with us today some of Rowen's former citizens, to whom we wish to show the improvement and advancement of our town since they left. We have also some of Rowen's future citizens with us, to whom we are leaving the town, and we are very glad to see so many visitors with us today. I have asked Miss Nordstrom to tell us the purpose of this town meeting and the way in which these meetings started. Miss Nordstrom.

PHYLIS NORDSTROM: I have been asked to tell you something about our town meetings. This town was transmitted to us from an 8-B class. It is transmitted from one 8-B class to another, and in that way each class has a chance to learn how to carry on and conduct these town meetings. I think we have made them interesting and profitable.

In planning our town we inquired of other small towns in the state how business is carried on. One citizen wrote to her aunt to find out about lights, so it is by inquiry and observation that we try to make our town as modern and beautiful as any other town in our state. We citizens of Rowen are proud to say we transmit this city more beautiful than it was

transmitted to us, and we hope the incoming citizens will do the same thing.

THE MAYOR: There were many things to be considered in planning this town. Miss Brenton will tell us something of this.

FLORA BRENTON: When we began this Miss B——, our teacher, suggested that instead of studying civics in the usual way we plan a town and run it the way a small town is run to-day. All the pupils approved of this, so the town was planned and named. When it came to choosing a site, ten pupils were sent to survey Indiana and find a site for the town. After several days' survey, a vote was taken and the site where Rowen now stands was chosen. There are many reasons for this site. One is that the soil is very fertile and there are maple and oak trees near it. Then Indianapolis is only a few hours ride, and Shelbyville only ten miles away.

Next a name must be given to this beautiful city, and a committee was appointed and several names brought before it; and as the name "Rowen" received the most votes that was the name given the town.

But a place for a city, a plan and a name is not enough; there must be some way by which traffic can be handled. The checker-board plan, which is that of most cities in the United States was chosen—that is, a plan with all the streets crossing at right angles, and with few or no diagonal streets. This does away with all crooked and irregular streets.

We are glad, in transmitting Rowen, to see some pioneers and former citizens here, and also to see the incoming citizens. We know you will do your part well while running the town and when it comes time for you to move you will hate to move as much as we hate to leave today

THE MAYOR: The former citizens of Rowen laid a good foundation for our work. Miss Gray will tell us what they accomplished.

BERNICE GRAY: Present and future citizens of Rowen: I shall endeavor to make you realize all the inhabitants before us have done to make our town what it is to-day. In the pioneer work the selecting of a site so conveniently near the interurban line was a great advantage. Then the planning of the streets in Rowen required great thought and skill also. Another aid in the development was Main Street, which was put in first as a gravel road. The pioneers contributed books for a day library, which affords better education for our children, and also is a great pleasure for the grown-ups.

They established an adequate fire department consisting of fifty buckets, a twenty-five gallon chemical can and a ladder.

All those who leave the town plan to leave it with some improvements, so that all former citizens will be very proud of their town.

THE MAYOR: We have done our best to carry on the work so well started, and there are several improvements we have made since we have lived in the town. One of these was an arrangement for the education of our children. Miss Gray will tell of this.

BERNICE GRAY: Citizens of Rowen; I have been asked to talk on a subject which ought to be of the greatest interest to every member of any community, and that is the question of schools. When we were boys and girls living in Irvington we used to study civics from a book called *Our America*, and in that we were told that the purpose of education is to so train and equip an individual that he can take care of himself, earn a living, and live in the fullest enjoyment possible; second, it should train the individual to perform his duties of citizenship and help manage the affairs of this city with intelligence. That education might occupy an important place, at the first meeting after the pioneers had moved into their new home they decided on a school. The discussion

was whether they would send their children to a consolidated township school two miles away, or whether they would establish a private school. This was a hard-fought subject but it was finally decided that they would send their children to the township school. This consolidated school is situated on a very beautiful piece of ground which includes many acres. It is made of red brick and has eleven rooms. The basement consists of a good shop, a very attractive gym with much apparatus, and also a fine swimming pool. The ground floor is wholly schoolrooms, and there are two grades to each room. The second floor has five rooms for the high school, and we have also sewing and cooking rooms. All the rooms are supplied with fine school furniture and the blackboards are of the best quality. The playground is supplied with all kinds of games and a basket-ball stand. The school was furnished with three wagons in which to carry the country children to and from school. This seems very convenient for them. We have splendid teachers at our school. They not only meet the requirements of the law of Indiana as to scholarship, but they are especially fine. Then our principal, whom we all love, is Miss Koontz.

We hope the future citizens of Rowen will enjoy this work as much as we have in our beautiful town of Rowen.

THE MAYOR: Most of you remember the great flood that washed away the bridge which was put up by our former citizens. This was a great loss to Rowen, but we have already put up a new structure. Mr. Pritchard will tell us about this bridge.

HARMON PRITCHARD: Friends, Future Citizens, and Citizens of Rowen: I am asked to talk about the bridge which we have put in since we came into the city. It is across the river which runs through the northwest part of town. We had quite a discussion whether it should be a public or a private bridge, but we finally decided it should be public.

We also decided, since we had just put in electric lights, that at present we could not afford a whole bridge, so we just put in a good concrete foundation with temporary sides. The bridge is made of the best material and by the best workmen. A contracting firm of Rowen put in this bridge and it is very beautiful. I feel sure that the future citizens of Rowen will do their best to finish the bridge in as fine a way as it has already been started.

MISS MASON: I would like to ask the Mayor what sort of amusements you are planning for your people.

THE MAYOR: There is a park in Rowen which is open every day in the summer time, and there are good amusements in this park, swings and Maypoles, and the children go there in the summer. In the winter they have outside games in the schoolyard.

MISS MASON: Do you have picture shows?

THE MAYOR: Yes, we have a picture show run by Miss Gray. It is named the "Strand," and they have very good pictures. Some are educational pictures and we enjoy them very much.

Reports were presented by different pupils on the following subjects: lights, library, fire department, contracting, dairying, storekeeping and banking.

THE MAYOR: If there is no further business the meeting is adjourned.

III

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

The following lists are merely suggestive, but they contain details that may be worked out by the teacher:

1. **Dramatization and Pageantry.** Several excellent dramatizations can be found in *Dramatized Scenes from American History* by Augusta Stevenson.

a. Signing of the Mayflower Compact.

b. Second Continental Congress. (Four episodes.)

- i. Continental Congress in session.
- ii. Committee appointed to draw up Declaration.
- iii. Thomas Jefferson's midnight inspiration.
- iv. Report of the committee.

c. A meeting of state legislature or general assembly.

d. A meeting of the city council. (Part of the class may be organized as a council and a part to represent a committee appearing before the council in regard to an ordinance for paving streets or some other local project.

e. A court of naturalization. The following plan may be used. Let the classroom represent the courtroom. The teacher or a pupil may act as judge and two pupils as reporters. Applicants for naturalization may take out either first or second papers.

f. Makers of the flag. A large flag should be suspended at the back of the stage with a girl dressed as Liberty concealed behind it. Pupils who have performed some act of service to their community pass before it and are greeted by the flag.

g. Constitutional convention. Let the class represent the convention of 1787. Have various pupils represent the leading delegates, presenting in speeches the points of view of Washington, Franklin, Madison, and Hamilton on the great question at issue.

h. The immigrant gateway. This should be a representation of the entrance of the immigrants into the United States and of the examination conducted by the officials of the immigrant service who determine their fitness to enter. (Reference: Reuben Greed, The Congressional Home Mission Society, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.)

i. A cabinet meeting in Washington's, Jackson's, or Lincoln's administration. Costumes appropriate to the period should be used, if possible.

- j. A Red Cross play.
- k. Plymouth Rock Pageant.

2. Student organizations which exemplify the working of civic bodies.

a. A town meeting. For a full stenographic report of such a meeting, see page 305.

- b. A meeting of a park board.
- c. A meeting of a board of health.
- d. A meeting of a board of public works.
- e. A meeting of a board of county commissioners.
- f. A meeting of a school board.
- g. A presidential election.
- h. A primary election.
- i. A self-government council.
- j. A literary society.
- k. A staff meeting of the school paper.
- l. A meeting of the directors of the school bank.

3. Participation of pupils in adult activities.

- a. Junior Red Cross.
- b. Relief and charitable societies.
- c. Junior Chamber of Commerce.
- d. Fire prevention or clean-up campaign. As a part of such campaign, have each pupil appointed an inspector to inspect his own premises. The following blank form may be used:

FIRE PREVENTION INSPECTION AND PLEDGE CARD

Pupil's Pledge

I pledge myself to coöperate in every way I can to make
 a cleaner, safer, and healthier city in which to
 live.

Name.....

Address.....

Parent's Pledge

I understand the serious costs to life and property from fire, and will do my utmost to comply with the rules for the prevention of fire in my own home as requested by the Fire Prevention Committee.

Parent's Name.....

You are appointed fire inspector for your home in co-operation with the _____ Fire Prevention Campaign.

Make a record of your inspection by answering each of the following questions Yes or No.

Is your home and yard kept clear of rubbish?

Are ashes always put in noncombustible containers?

Are all matches placed in covered metal boxes beyond the reach of small children?.....

Do you burn trash in noncombustible containers fitted with wire top?

Are chimneys and stoves in your home regularly examined, repaired, and cleaned?

Have you and your parents read the fire prevention card and are you complying with it?

Do you know the location of the nearest fire-alarm box?

Are you obeying the request of the fire chief not to follow the Fire Department to fires?

4. Visits to and study of community organizations.

- a. Visit to a Boy Scout or summer camp.
- b. Visit to a public market.
- c. Visit to a water works.
- d. Visit to a gas works.
- e. Visit to an electric light and power plant.
- f. Visit to a public park.
- g. Visit to a fire station.
- h. Visit to a public library.

- i. Visit to a city council meeting.
- j. Visit to a session of the state legislature.
- k. Visit to any available local factory or large retail establishment.
- l. Visit to a laundry.
- m. Visit to a dairy.
- n. Visit to an ice plant.

IV

THE TEXT OF THE CONSTITUTION

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, 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

Section I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section II. 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.

3. 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 adding 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 3; Massa-

Massachusetts, 8; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, 1; Connecticut, 5; New York, 6; New Jersey, 4; Pennsylvania, 8; Delaware, 1; Maryland, 6; Virginia, 10; North Carolina, 5; South Carolina, 5, and Georgia, 3.

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 III. 1. 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; 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.

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 IV. 1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legis-

lature 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 V. 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.

Section VI. 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 VII. 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 repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Section VIII. 1. The Congress shall have power: To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense 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 rights 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 offenses 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 insurrection, and repel invasions;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the 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, dockyards, 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 IX. 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.

4. No capitation, or other direct, tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore 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 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 X. 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

Section I. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold 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.

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.

3. The 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.

4. 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.

5. 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.

6. 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.

7. 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 II. 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 III. 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 IV. 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

Section I. 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 II. 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;—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 any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Section III. 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

Section I. 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 II. 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 III. 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 IV. 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 cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V

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

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

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.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President and Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

MASSACHUSETTS

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

CONNECTICUT

William Samuel Johnson
Roger Sherman

NEW YORK

Alexander Hamilton

NEW JERSEY

William Livingston
David Brearley
William Paterson
Jonathan Dayton

PENNSYLVANIA

Benjamin Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robert Morris
George Clymer
Thomas Fitzsimons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson
Gouverneur Morris

DELAWARE

George Read
Gunning Bedford, Jr.
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jacob Broom

MARYLAND

James McHenry
Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer
Daniel Carroll

VIRGINIA

John Blair
James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA

William Blount
Richard Dobbs Spaight
Hugh Williamson

SOUTH CAROLINA

John Rutledge
Charles C. Pinckney
Charles Pinekney
Pierce Butler

GEORGIA

William Few
Abraham Baldwin

Attest: William Jackson, Secretary.

AMENDMENTS

ARTICLE I

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

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

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

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

No person should 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 the time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense 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

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 defense.

ARTICLE VII

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 reëxamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, or excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

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

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

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 Representatives 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

1. 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.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV

1. 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 life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

2. 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 States, 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.

3. 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 and comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House remove such disability.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for service 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.

5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV

1. 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.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XVI

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

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 qualification requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

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.

ARTICLE XVIII

Section 1 After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the 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. The Congress and several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIX.

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. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

INDEX

A

adjutant-general, of state, 166
advertisements, unsightliness of, 114
agriculture, *see* farming; state departments
of, 168; United States department of, 182
airplane, development of, 224
Alamo, battle of, 285
Alaska, acquired, 288
America, the melting-pot, 293
American ideals, what are, 294
American nation, how made up, 28
American Revolution, beginning of, 36; Lis-
tory of, 232
anarchy, what is, 138
appeal, right of, 146
Armament Conference, 297
army, of United States, how constituted, 176
Articles of Confederation, government under,
234
athletics, meet for women, 197
attorney-general, of state, 166
auditor, of state, 166
automobile, increase in manufacture of, 224;
invention of, 218

B

bail, what is, 142
banking, history of, 264-265
banks, functions of, 266
barter, what is, 260
baseball, rules in, 29
basket ball, 32
bathtub, 98
beauty, how children can help to create, 115;
in American cities, 110; in yards, 112; of
trees, 113
Bell, Alexander Graham, invents telephone,
226; patents telephone, 180
Bill of Rights, 231
blind alley jobs, 188
boss, in city government, 154
Boy Scouts, at Manila, 11, 12, 13; camping,
199

Brockton, factory at, 210
bubonic plague, 182
budget, of city, 153; value of private, 106
Bureau of Engraving and Printing, 81
Burr, Aaron, trial of, 145
business, occupation of, 191

C

cabinet, of President, how composed, 244-245
California, and the gold rush, 286; ways to
reach in 1849, 286
campaign, what is, 274
Camp Fire Girls, 12
camping, pleasure of, 199
capital, distinguishes civilization, 52; neces-
sity of, 211
Capitol, of United States, 80
captain, the, in games, 31
Cardwell, Mary, story of, 46
Carnegie, Andrew, succeeded by thrift, 104
Catskill Mountains, supply New York
water, 102
Central Park, in New York, 66
Chamber of Commerce, 154
Charles I, wars with Parliament, 231
Chicago anarchist case, 143
Chief Justice, of Supreme Court, administers
presidential oath, 242
China, and American ideals, 294
church, importance as community, 25
citizen, how one becomes, 280; the good, 56;
the good at school, 56; the good, how dis-
tinguished, 57
city, charter of, 148; forms of government of,
149-155; parts of, 60
city hall, seat of city government, 61
city manager government, 149, 150, 152, 154
Civics Club, organization of, 299-303
Civic Improvement League, 154
Civil Service Act, what is, 243
cleanliness, and health, 98; importance of to
health, 47
coinage, function of United States govern-
ment, 80

colonial life, in United States, 40
colonies, American, deny right of Parliament to tax, 232
commission government, of city, 149, 150, 152, 154
commissioner of charities and correction, 166
community, as an athletic team, 27; at Jamestown and Plymouth, 20; health of, 47; how works to prevent fires, 127; idleness in, 44; importance of local, 157; larger kinds of, 73; natural mode of human life, 21; of county and town 27; of home, 23; of the nation, 28; on Robinson Crusoe's island, 20; place of schools in, 131; position of teachers in, 132; the church, 25; the school, 26; thrives by coöperation, 44
Congress, 28; committees of, 252; how constituted, 80; how it passes a law, 252, why composed as it is, 249
consolidated schools, 26; advantages of, 197
constitution, of states, 163; how made, 163
Constitution, of United States, amendments to, 238, 239; compromises of, 237; debates over, 236; how made, 235-237; made in Philadelphia, 234; ratified, 237; supreme law of land, 163; text of, 314-329; what is, 235
coöperation, as shown by Manila fire, 12; before it was learned in occupations, 40; depends on rules, 29; in athletics, 27; in modern occupations, 43
copyrights, issued by national government, 180
coroner, who is, 141
corporation commissions, 181; functions of, 171
council government, in city, 149, 150, 152, 154
counterfeiters, make money, 81
country life, advantages of, 68
county, as a community, 27; courts of, 160; how raises money, 160; officers of, 158-160; origin of, 157; the, and schools, 69; the, officers of, 69; the, what it does, 68; varieties of government of, 158
courage, in games, 35
courthouse, capital of county, 70
courts, cases tried in, 136; circuit, 136, 153, 160, 171; corporation, 153; county, 136, 160, 171; justices', 171; juvenile, 153; of state, 77, 171; of United States, cases tried by, 256-257; what are, 256; why needed, 255; police, 153; supreme, 136, 165

credit, what is, 264
crime, investigation of, 141; penalties for, 137, what is, 136
crowds, safety regulations for, 120

D

Dead Letter Office, 83
Declaration of Independence, 80; made by Congress, 232
democracy, promoted by public schools, 131
Democratic party, history of, 272; in states, 173
departments, of United States government, 245
diphtheria, 168
District of Columbia, 28
division of labor, 211
Druid Hill Park, Baltimore, 66
dust, danger of, 98

E

Edison, Thomas, patents appliances, 180
education, for bread-winning, 97; part of United States government in, 134; study of, 129-135; supported by state, 73-74
Ellis Island, place where immigrants land, 277
English Parliament, taxes America, 79
exchange, what is, 260
exercise, importance of to health, 193

F

factories, modern, 210; safety regulations in 122
fair play, need of in games 37
Farmer-Labor party, rise of, 273
farming, study of, 202-207; greatest of callings, 202; how to improve, 205-207; improvement of as occupation, 93; independence of, 203; occupation of, 191; profit of, 205; wealth of, 202
Federal Reserve banks, 171
Federal Reserve System, what is, 267
Federalist party, history of, 271
Field, Cyrus W., lays cable, 226
filth, as a promoter of typhoid fever, 46
fire company, at Manila, 11
fire department, of modern cities, 64; regulations of, 117
fire prevention, importance of, 124
fires, causes of, 127; community works to pre-

vent, 127; cost of in United States, 124; forest, 124; induced by carelessness, 124; insurance against, 125; number of in United States, 124
 Fitch, John, invents steamboat, 217
 flies, importance of killing, 100
 football, coöperation in, 32; rules in, 30; incidents in Harvard-Yale game, 32, 35
 franchise, of street railway, 221
 Franklin, Benjamin, establishes post offices, 82; peacemaker in constitutional convention, 236
 Fulton, Robert, builds steamboat, 217

G

Galveston, originator of commission government, 155
 games, benefits of, 33; coöperation in, 29-31; fair play in, 37; Olympic, 193, 195
 George III, taxes colonies, 231
 Girl Scouts, 12
 Godbold, Lucile, 197
 Goethals, Major G. W., and Panama Canal, 291
 good roads, aided by state, 75; arguments for, 222-223; built by counties, 68; highways departments and, 167
 Gorgas, Colonel William C., and Panama Canal, 291
 government, 22; springs from home, 25
 governor, duties of, 75, 164-165
 Greenback party, history of, 273

H

habcas corpus, what is, 258
 Hamilton, Alexander, in constitutional convention, 236
 Health Chores, 50
 health department, of state, 47, 48; of in states, 167
 health, depends on cleanliness, 47; importance of cleanliness to, 98; promoted by outdoor exercise, 194; safeguarded by regulations, 119
 Henry I, grants charter to England, 229
 Henry, Patrick, moral courage of, 36; opposes Constitution, 237
 highway commissioner, of state, 166
 home, the first community, 23-25
 hookworm, 168
 hospitals, supported by state, 74

Hot Springs, 200
 House of Burgesses, of Virginia, 36
 House of Representatives, districts of, 251; how composed, 251; where it sits, 249
 houses, clean, 98
 housing, improvement in, 113
 hundreds, in Virginia, 21

I

idleness, in every community, 44
 immigrants, character of, 279; danger from, 279; how they come, 277; law to restrict, 277
 immigration, causes of, 278; controlled by national government, 175
 impeachments, how tried, 253
 imprisonment, function of state, 75; improvement of methods of, 139
 inauguration, description of, 274
 indictment, what is, 141
 initiative, 164
 injunctions, what are, 258
 insurance commissioner, of state, 166
 interest, what is, 105
 internal revenue, what is, 269
 International Court of Arbitration, at Hague, 297
 Interstate Commerce Commission, duties of, 182; fixes railroad rates, 220

J

James I, dislike Parliament, 230
 James II, overthrown, 231
 Jamestown, community at, 20; first assembly at, 231
 Jefferson, Thomas, acquires Louisiana Territory, 284; writes Declaration of Independence, 80
 Jerry, and the governor, story of, 76
 John, forced to grant Magna Carta, 229
 Johnson, Owen, story from, 37
 Junior Citizens Club, discussion of savings system, 53; meeting of, 305-310; organization of, 13-17; reorganized, 85-90; again reorganized, 184-186; should beautify school grounds, 100
 jury, fairness of, 143; grand, what is, 141; in trial, 144; petit, what is, 142

K

Keep Your City Clean Club pledge, 103
 Know-Nothing party, history of, 273

L

laws, for fire prevention, 128; how benefit people, 137; how made, 168-170; how protect persons on trial, 145, 146; how they originate, 22, 25; improvement in, 137; of United States, how made, 252; part of in human progress, 138; what are, 136
legislature, branch of state government, 77; committees of, 168; of state, 168
lieutenant-governor, duties of, 165
Livingston, Robert R., buys Louisiana, 284
London Charter, what was, 229
Louisiana Territory, how acquired, 284

M

Madison, James, suggests constitutional convention, 234
Magna Carta, granted by King John, 229
Manila, fire at, 11
manufacturing, early stages of, 209; importance of to farming, 207; modern, 210; promoted by steel and steam, 209
manufacturing section, of city, 60
Marconi, invents wireless telegraphy, 227
Mason, George, refuses to sign constitution, 237
Massachusetts, founded, 231
medicine, occupation of, 190
medium of exchange, what is, 261
Mesa Verde, 200
Mexico, United States acquires territory from, 286
Military Academy, of United States, 178
militia, controlled by national government in war, 176
minting money, 81
mints, 81
Modern Health Crusade, 50
money, as medium of exchange, 262-263
Money Order, of post office, 83
Monroe, James, and Louisiana Purchase, 284
Montfort, Simon de, founds Parliament, 230
Morse, Samuel, invents telegraph, 225
mosquito extermination, 304
Mount McKinley Park, 200

N

nation, American, what it does, 175; as a community, 28
naturalization, what is, 280
nature, beauties of, 202; love of, 201

Naval Academy, of United States, 178
navy, of United States, 178
New England, local government in, 158
New Orleans, battle of, 225
New York City, water supply of, 102

O

occupations, before coöperation began, 40; business, 191; choice of, 187; farming, 93, 191; few at one time, 92; for women, 187; indoor, 95; in modern life, 42; main, 188; making up one's mind as to following, 91; medicine, 190; great variety of modern, 93; outdoor, 94; skilled, 95; skilled trades, 193; stenography, 190; teaching, 189; unskilled, 96; unwise, 188
office building section, 60
Olympic Games, history of, 193; revival of, 195
ordinances, of city, how passed, 152

P

Panama Canal, building of, 289-291
paper money, where made, 81
Pareel Post, 83
parks, in city, 65; national, establishment of, 199
Parliament, of England, controlled by king, 231; founded, 230
parties, history of, 271-273; in states, 173; Democratic, 173; Farmer-Labor, 174; Federalist, 171; Whig, 172; Populist, 174, 273; Republican, 173, 272; Socialist, 174
party conventions, account of, 273-274
Patent Office, contains marvels, 180
patents, issued by national government, 180
penitentiaries, institutions of state, 74
Philadelphia mint, 81
Philippine Islands, acquired, 289
playgrounds, importance of, 34; in city, 65; story about, 198
Plymouth, community at, 20
police departments, regulations of, 117
police, work of, 63
Populist party, history of, 273
Porto Rico, acquired, 289
post office, controlled by United States government, 82; origin of in United States, 82
Postal Savings Bank, 83; explained, 54
Postal Savings stamps, 108
President, appointing power of, 243; cabinet

of, 244; certain powers of, 244; commander-in-chief, 244; inauguration of, 242; how chosen, 241; succession of, 242
 presidential electors, how chosen, 241
 primaries, in states, 173
 prisons, in the old times, 139; modern, 139
 probation, children put on, 153; what is, 139
 projects, 310-314
 prosecuting attorney, how investigates crime, 141; part of in trials, 143, 144
 public duty, performance of test of citizenship, 57
 public libraries, 64

R

radiophone, possibilities of, 227
 railroads, built, 217, 218; cost of building, 219; government ownership of, 220; how care for safety of passengers, 118; transcontinental, 288
 rapid transit, in cities, 221
 referendum, 164
 Republican party, history of, 173, 272
 residential section, of city, 61
 Richard the Lion-Hearted, grants charters, 229
 rights of Englishmen, what were, 231
 Robinson Crusoe, a jack-of-all-trades, 40; on desert isle, 18-20; respects Friday's rights, 23
 Roosevelt, Theodore, builds Panama Canal, 289
 Rumsey, James, invents steamboat, 217
 Rural Free Delivery, 83

S

safety, and Fourth of July celebrations, 116; factory regulations for, 122; health regulations for, 118; in handling crowds, 120; in theaters, 120; on street cars, 120; police regulations for, 117; promoted by fire departments, 117; promoted by fire drills, 117; railroad regulations for, 118; regulations for, 116
 safety-first movement, 122; rules, 122
 Sandwich Islands, acquired, 288
 savings bank, 53
 schoolhouses, as indices to city, 61
 schools, consolidated, 197; early, 129; elementary, 132; how promote democracy, 131; place in community life, 131; rise of

public, 129; savings bank in, 53; special, 133; supported by the county, 69; supported by taxation, 135; vocational, 133
 secession, right of asserted, 239
 secretary of state, 165
 Senate, approves appointments, 243; more important body of Congress, 250; where it sits, 249
 senators, of United States, how elected, 250
 Sequoia Park, 200
 service, law of, 44
 sheriff, duties of, 69; importance of, 159; part of in investigating crime, 141
 shopping district, 60
 skilled trades, occupations of, 193
 smallpox, 168
 speaker, of Congress, 251; of legislature, 169
 state, aids good roads, 75; aids public schools, 74, constitution of, 163; courts of, 77; legislature of, 77; maintains hospitals, 74; supports higher education, 73; as a community, 27
 Staunton, originator of city manager government, 155
 stenography, occupation of, 190
 Stephenson, George, invents the locomotive, 217
 Stockholm, Olympic Games at, 195
 street cars, safety on, 120;
 streets, cared for by city, 62; kept clean, 98
 superintendent of public instruction, 166
 Supreme Court, of United States, extends power of government, 240; how composed, 256; protects citizens, 83; where sits, 80

T

tariff, what is, 179, 268
 tax, income, 270; inheritance, 270
 teachers, position of in community, 132
 teaching, occupation of, 189
 Texas, struggle of for independence, 285
 theater, safety regulations of, 120
 thrift, easiness of, 107; maxims of, 54; meaning of, 104; good reason for, 108; reason for to secure return, 105; the savage lacks, 52; the way to wealth, 109; universal need of, 106; ways to practice, 108
 town, as a community, 27; charter of, 148; government of, 148
 Town Meeting, in New England, 158
 towns, in New England, 21

transportation, first methods of, 215; importance of, 213; improvement in, 216
treasurer, of state, 165
trees, importance of to cities, 113
trials, procedure in criminal, 141-145
trolleys, for local transportation, 217
typhoid fever, conveyed in impure water, 101; combated by health departments, 168; story of, 46

U

Uncle Sam, meaning of, 79
Union Pacific railroad, building of, 219, 288
United States, how made up, 79; wins independence, 80
United States government, additional functions of, 175-183; belongs to people, 83; beginning of, 232; coins money, 80; controls post office, 82; departments of, 245; expenses of, 268; part of in education, 134; powers of, 238

V

Valley Forge, American army at, 234
veto, of President, 253
Vice President, becomes President, 242; how chosen, 241
Virgin Islands, acquired, 289
Virginia, county in, 157, 158; founded, 231

vocational schools, 132
vocations, *see* occupations
voter, qualifications of, 172

W

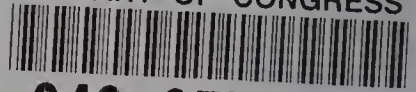
warrant, what is, 141
Washington, beauty of, 110; capital of United States, 80
Washington, George, chairman of constitutional convention, 236; elected President, 238; leads United States to liberty, 80
waste, needlessness of, 107
water, pure, importance of, 101
Watt, James, invents steam engine, 209
weather bureau, functions of, 181
weight, of girls and boys, 193, 196
Whig party, history of, 272
William, Duke of the Normans, 228, 229
Wilson, Woodrow, 173; at Versailles conference, 297
Woolworth Building, how built, 52
World War, America in, 294; expenses of, 269

Y

yards, importance of keeping clean, 99
yellow fever, 182
Yosemite National Park, 200

THE END

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 040 055 177 7