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Meet the  *Handbook for Foreign Students in the United States.*

by

CHING-KUN YANG



INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
2 West 45th St., New York-19, N. Y. November 1, 1945
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Foreword

THIS IS A REMARKABLE BOOK. It tells the story of the experience of a young Chinese student who spent ten years in the United States during which time he was graduated from the University of Michigan. He secured the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at that institution in 1939, and afterward became a successful newspaper editor, a fact which goes far to explain his remarkable knowledge of our institutions. He is now teaching in the University of Washington. If this book merely described the ordinary experience of a foreign student in obtaining his higher education in the United States there would be nothing unique about *it*. Many such books have been written. This is different.

Dr. Yang wrote the book in Chinese for the benefit of the thousands of Chinese students coming to the United States to continue their education *in* this country. The manuscript was translated into English by Dr. Yang and read by members of the staff of the Institute of International Education and of the Division of Cultural Cooperation of the Department of State. Both bodies were enthusiastic about its contents and agreed that the English edition should be slightly revised so as to be of equal service to all foreign students coming to the United States for purposes of study. Nevertheless, in some places references to conditions particularly applicable to Chinese students were retained.

The book contains a searching analysis of American civilization and culture. It describes briefly but adequately all phases of our life: political, economic, social, cultural, and industrial. No activity has escaped the keen eye of Dr. Yang. A foreign student will obtain a splendid idea of the place of great institutions like the Christian Church or the labor union in our civilization. He will also learn the part played by the chain store or the syndicated column in the life of our people. Dr. Yang's analysis is of the most friendly nature but he has not hesitated to point out defects in our customs. The entire book is suffused by a loving enthusiasm for the American Dream. A reading of this book by the American student will *give* him a more intimate knowledge of our own way of life and an increased but chastened pride in his country.

Dr. Yang had *carte blanche* in writing the book. He consulted a number of persons who gave him valuable information. But there are two

to whom he is particularly indebted. As the result of conferences and correspondence with James Truslow Adams, Dr. Yang was enlightened and enthused about the national aims of the American people. His cooperative association with Mrs. Wilma C. Fairbank of the Department of State has resulted in a strengthening of both content and structure of the book. The book is written in a familiar style; sometimes the language is picturesque and incidents are dramatically described. The foreign student—and the American—will read *it* with absorbing interest. The Institute of International Education takes pride in presenting it to them and to the intelligent public.

STEPHEN DUGGAN

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The illustration on the inside front cover shows the view from a window of Brigham Young University in Utah. On the inside back cover is shown a portion of the Princeton University Campus

Chapter One

THE LAND AND PEOPLE OF THE UNITED STATES

A NEW NATION

WHAT IS MOST characteristic of the United States? There might be a hundred answers to this question; one of them is that America is new, appallingly new. The newness of America can be seen from historical chronology, but more obviously from personal experience. The prominent American historian, James Truslow Adams, who is now sixty-six years old, relates that when he was twenty he frequently visited his great-grandmother. At that time the old lady was ninety-six, but she still remembered that when she was twenty-five years old and Jefferson died on the same day. These two men, of course, were among the creators of the Republic, drafters of the Declaration of Independence. The lifetime of this old lady had bridged two periods of American history: the period of men who created the United States, and the period of those who are still shaping it.

In fact, a hundred cities and a thousand towns that now stand proudly in many parts of the country were carved out of forests and wilderness by the fathers or grandfathers of living Americans, or by living Americans themselves. Many a gray-beard can still point to the crowded city sections and say to you, "Here were once woods where we played." Many an old farmer can point to a corner of his field and say, "Once we dug out a big stump here in order to transform a trackless wood into a fertile field." Even many old Chinese and old people from other parts of the world now living in this country, may still picture for you their memories of the New York of forty or fifty years ago when electric wires and gas pipes crisscrossed in a messy fashion under the ceiling; when the "self-coming" water system was an expensive novelty at which one could only stare admiringly; when many stores were kept open Sundays with no chance of rest for the workers; when hawkers pushed meat carts from door to door while flies gathered around.

GEOGRAPHICAL SETTING

This new country is a vast oblong piece of land, with an area slightly exceeding 3,000,000 square miles, which touches Canada on the north and Mexico on the south. On the east is the Atlantic, on the west the Pacific, and to the south is the broad Gulf of Mexico. From the east

to the west coast is about 3,000 miles, and from the Canadian border to the Gulf of Mexico, about 1,500 miles.

America's topography may be described briefly as follows: Near the coasts in the East and West are two great mountain ranges, the Appalachians and the Rockies, both leading from north to south. Between them lies a bowl-shaped plain. Northeast of this plain are the Great Lakes. In the middle flows the mighty Mississippi which carries the water of its eight great branches and numerous smaller streams southward into the Gulf of Mexico. The area drained by the Mississippi river system is the greatest fertile plain on earth. Economically and in the matter of navigation it is the American Yangtze. This great river bisects the eastern one third of America from the western two thirds. Eastward from the Mississippi and the Great Lakes an inclined plain rises until it meets the slopes of the Appalachian Mountains. Farther east, along the Atlantic coast, is a narrow strip of flat land and rolling hills. Westward from the Mississippi another great sloping plain rises until it reaches the Rocky Mountains. The Rockies extend from Alaska in the North to Mexico in the South. They are known as the backbone of the continent. West of the Rockies the land slopes down, running into the hills and deserts of Idaho, Nevada, and Arizona, continuing the downward slope westward, we find two minor ranges, the Sierra Nevada Range and the Western Coastal Range, and between these lies the Central Valley of California.

The Northeast is the oldest and most highly industrialized region. The plains' section around the Great Lakes, with Detroit and Chicago as its twin hearts beating strongly, has also attained a well-established industrial position. Important new industries have grown up in the South in the past two decades, and the war has brought heavy industry to the great cities of the west coast. Thus both the South and the West are developing into industrial regions. In the great mountain ranges, of course, we find the concentration of mining enterprises. The bread basket of America is in her central plains. On the fertile plains directly south of the Great Lakes is the endless corn belt. South of this lies a long belt of corn and wheat and, farther south, the great cotton belt. In the extreme south, a narrow strip of coastal land of subtropical agriculture yields such products as rice and fruit. West of the great central plain we find a vast region of grazing land and of irrigated crops, and on the southern California coast, a most highly developed agricultural region devoted to truck gardening, fruit, and mixed agriculture.

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

The 135,000,000 Americans who inhabit and develop the land described above do not come from one ancestral origin, but from a great diversity of nationalities and cultures. Various sources have estimated that when the white man first settled in the original thirteen colonies

of the United States in 1607, there were about 300,000 to three-quarters of a million Indians, divided into numerous tribes and hundreds of language groups. Some of them hunted and some farmed, and their cultural levels differed greatly. Some people believe that the Indians are of Mongolian blood, and came from the Asiatic mainland through Alaska, but this view awaits further proof.

When the English-speaking people first came to this country they settled along the east coast, cultivating the land and trading fur with the Indians. Here they built their thirteen little colonies. The Dutch also settled in what we now know as New York, which went under English rule only as a result of war. Meanwhile the French came down from Canada along the Great Lakes to the central plains, building villages and fortresses on the way. Some settled down and cultivated the land, but most of them traded fur with the Indians. The Spanish had settled in Florida in 1565, and in what is now Mexico in 1598. By about 1700 they had commenced to move northwestward into southern California. In 1812 the main group of Russians came down from Alaska to California where they settled and took up fur-trading with the Indians. The Swiss and Swedes also emigrated to the United States at a very early time. The French in the Middle West and the Spanish in the South and on the West coast pushed ahead, building up their own empires. It is obvious that the origin of the Americans was a blended one even in the early period. Only through wars and by purchase did these vast lands pass into American hands. After the present American borders were established in the middle of the nineteenth century, America's language, laws, and customs gradually became unified.

From the year of the Declaration of Independence (1776) until 1820, the Europeans who migrated to the United States—Exclusive of imported slaves—totaled 250,000. These Europeans came mostly from England, France, Germany, and other western European countries. After landing they moved westward, first engaging in fur trade with the Indians, then clearing forests and settling down to farming. About 1850, Germans, Dutch, and Swedes went to the Middle West in large numbers to clear the land and to farm. During the last decade of the nineteenth century, multitudes of southern and eastern Europeans flowed into the country, totaling about half a million annually. Their national backgrounds included Austrian, Italian, Polish, Hungarian, Bohemian, Greek, Russian, and many others from smaller countries. From the turn of the century to 1914, the number gushing into the United States swelled to the average of about a million annually. After this they decreased, due to the World War, and in 1921, the United States set up a quota system, putting definite limits on immigration.

This account illustrates the complexity of the American people. In 1940 those who were born outside of the United States or born of alien

parents numbered 34,500,000—more than a quarter of the American population. In other words, one out of every four Americans possesses something of a foreign cultural background. Classified according to their own country of origin or that of their parents, we find the following figures: 5,240,000 Germans; 4,519,000 Italians; 2,911,000 Canadians; 2,900,000 Poles; 2,611,000 Russians; 2,411,000 Irish; 1,917,000 English; 1,300,000 Swedes; 1,216,000 Austrians; 1,000,000 Mexicans. Immigration of Chinese laborers into this country has been stopped since 1882 so they now total only about 80,000 to 100,000. We find in great American cities, sections called Little Germany, Little Italy and Chinatown. In some states practically an entire village or town is inhabited by Germans, Italians, or Dutch. Besides these diverse nationalities are 13,000,000 Negroes, comprising almost one tenth of the total population. Since the importation of Negro slaves was prohibited by law early in the nineteenth century, practically all of the present Negro population has been born and raised in this country.

UNITY IN DIVERSITY

How can a united nation arise in a country which is larger than the European continent exclusive of Russia, with a people of such diverse background and a history so short? If you ask an immigrant of any European origin after he has spent ten years or at most after one generation in this country, what his nationality is, both fact and sentiment will lead him to answer that he is an American, not a German or an Italian. And the age-old blood feuds, long plaguing the diverse peoples of Europe, seem to melt away among them here. Why is *it*? There are numerous possible answers. For instance: early in the colonial period the English brought to this country a unified language, law and custom, and American politics became stabilized soon after Independence. But there are many other factors besides historical ones that deserve our attention. First, those who migrated to the United States were possessed by a dream of independence, freedom, and an ambition to *get* ahead. They were mostly poor Europeans who left behind them the oppressive class system and risked everything to come to America. They found here endless forests and prairies and boundless resources, and they recognized this as a land where the common man might build his career. But they also knew that if they did not unite and struggle together to secure freedom, this great opportunity might not long remain theirs. In the early years of the United States, all the European powers had their eyes on the American continent as splendid material for empires, and a realization of this danger was a powerful force impelling the diverse races to become a united nation.

Next, while numerous races were cooperating to open up a wild continent—all with the common dream of personal freedom and independence—tolerance gradually became an American characteristic. It is true that when colored races and new immigrants from Europe first

arrived in this country they were frequently slighted and were called Chinks, Wops and many other uncomplimentary names. But once the older Americans mingled with them, except when there was a question of color, they learned to live and cooperate with these seemingly foreign peoples. However, America is not without her minority problem. Racial prejudice can be encountered almost anywhere in the country. The Negro problem *is still* a very serious one. But, *in general*, tolerance of differences is characteristic of Americans and you do not find here the bloody feuds of generations which exist in Europe. The vastness of America's land and the richness of her opportunities have taught the American that it is not necessary to kill one another for a "place in the sun." This is another factor contributing to the broadmindedness and tolerance of Americans.

The middle of the nineteenth century, when America's territory was expanding rapidly and when huge masses of immigrants began to flood in, also saw vast improvement in the railway system. The whole country was carried away by great enthusiasm for railway building. In three or four decades this huge area of 3,000,000 square miles was covered by a dense net of railroads. A heavy network of telegraph lines was also erected throughout this vast land, binding together its every corner. These railway and telegraph nets also bound together the political, economic, and social life of the country. The advent of the automobile brought a similarly rapid expansion of the highway system. Early in the twentieth century, when the tide of European immigration rose to the high mark of about one million a year, the motor car, airplane, and radio and other modern means of fast transportation and communication also made their appearance, knitting together the physical and psychological life of America. Upon the completion of the railway and telegraph nets there followed closely the record development of large-scale commercial and industrial organizations penetrating all barriers of space and race within the country, and organizing peoples and economic activities of every description into huge closely cooperating units.

Another result of America's large-scale production is the standardization of American *life*. Identical articles multiplied by machines by the tons, pour into the American market. Whether houses, streets, clothes, articles for use in daily life or in music and art, all come under the yoke of mechanical duplication. The philosophers may deprecate this standardized *life*, but besides raising America's standard of living, this peculiar institution of standardization has the effect of turning people of a great diversity of national origins into standardized Americans. In America where developments came so fast, where social organization is so complex and impersonal, the original economic and cultural differences of these diverse peoples would undoubtedly be very hard to break down without the pattern of standardized living which ensues from mass production.

Probably of equal importance to the forces generated by the new means of transportation and production, is America's universal and adult education whose development coincided in time with the rising tide of immigration. What constitutes the real "melting pot" of the Americans are the 240,000 schools together with the numerous study groups, lecture gatherings, night schools, and training classes. These institutions continuously pour into the minds of the people of varied backgrounds a unified point of view on life and a common conception of political, social, and economic matters.

The organizing ability of the Americans is undoubtedly an important force in unifying their diverse nationality background and vast area. We might almost say that whenever three or four Americans are found together they will establish an organization. Whether in a big city or a humble town, we are bound to find numerous organizations—business, professional, religious, cultural, civic, and political. Their variety covers the entire length and breadth of social and economic life from its broadest aspects to its most obscure corners. The annual directory of New York's charitable and social organizations alone consists of three hundred to four hundred pages, and untold numbers of organizations in other fields have not been included. The more common ones unite into state and even national systems. Whenever an American thinks of a new idea, he will immediately launch an organization for its promotion and realization. One who does not join an organization will find himself considered odd and will probably find it very difficult to get ahead in his own profession, however great his talent. This organizing mania is a powerful force in increasing the individual's contacts and in breaking down racial barriers.

In spite of his tolerance of differences, the rapid progress and national strength of his country have given the American a strong national egocentricity. He thinks America is the biggest and best country; that America is an unsurpassed paradise, the richest and strongest nation on earth. This attitude frequently makes Americans speak of the foreigner in their midst with an uncomplimentary note. We will not discuss here the right and wrong of this psychology but it has created an atmosphere in which any foreign people will be rapidly absorbed in America's main current. It forces the foreign immigrant to forsake his own cultural background and to imitate the American mode of life with all the speed he can summon.

Finally, the rapid economic changes, together with weak class barriers, served as a cocktail shaker in which the Americans constantly came into contact and mixed with each other. Whenever news came that somewhere there was good land, gold or oil available, people of all backgrounds rushed forward and mingled with each other in the real or imagined spot of fortune. There might frequently be friction between nationalities in such places but once the members of various nationalities came to know each other, *if* the question of color was

not involved, they would unite and cooperate in facing life in the wilderness. The rise and fall or the combining of numerous business enterprises, and the constantly changing economic situation—all force the members of various races to change their places of employment and to mix and cooperate with each other. In the drama of fate, whoever gets the lucky number will become a millionaire floating to the top, receiving hero worship from the multitudes, and his national origin does not make a particle of difference.

AMERICAN CHARACTERISTICS

The forces mentioned above have not only unified the people of numerous origins but have also produced an American with distinct characteristics. How does an American look? In physical feature, you can never describe him distinctly but you can recognize him by his individuality.* Let us take a few instances at random. The American is boundlessly self-confident. After opening up a wide continent in a little over a century, the American thinks there is nothing in the world he cannot do. After America's entrance into World War II, her leaders did not worry about lack of sufficient confidence on the part of the people to carry out the gigantic plans of armament production and manpower mobilization, but that over-confidence might lead them into a false sense of security. Lack of confidence never handicapped the Americans in the war.

The American is not merely confident but is ambitious and loves freedom and independence. He does not submit to control by anyone except under the law. Even when he is censured by the law he still waves his civil liberty in his hand, meticulously questioning the applicability of the law in his case. He hates a privileged class, but hopes one day to * 'crash' into it. His conception of freedom makes him disregard convention and follow his own inclination. That is one of the reasons we find strange things of every description in this country.

In fact, the Xoyc of new and *strange things is a characteristic of the American.* He is surrounded by gadgets and ever-new toys. He will spend his last penny for anything that will save his own or his wife's labor, be it a vacuum cleaner or a refrigerator. Whenever he sees a new machine, a new house, or new furniture, if he can afford it, he will scrap his old ones without hesitation. He has little serious care for the past in spite of the fact that he spends a great deal of money to buy antiques. In a sense his life may be described as an unceasing competition against his fellow men for newness.

The American ever seeks bigger and better opportunities. He is ever adventuring. He has little fear of failure. If he fails, he will pick himself up and try again. He rushes for land, for gold, for oil, for

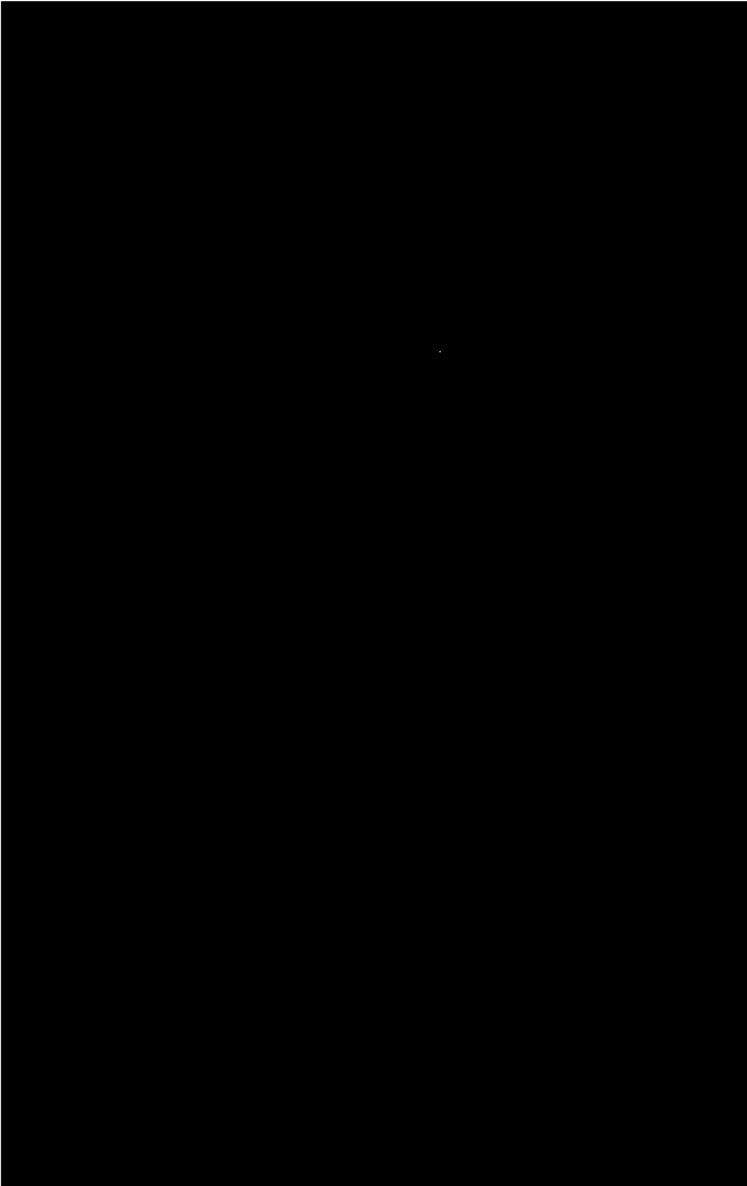
* Many ideas in this section are from James Truslow Adams' *Tie American*, N. Y., 1943.

mines, hoping to "hit it rich" at one stroke. That is typical of the first American settler. Many people may return from such adventures empty-handed but this does not daunt others who hope for better luck. Today an American may have a very good job, but if he thinks *it* is beneath his ability, that there are better places elsewhere or if he quarrels with his boss, he will lightly cast *it* aside. The casual way in which an American throws away a job appalls a foreign observer. It makes others feel that Americans neglect too much the factor of safety and contentment, but this constant job-changing is all in the order of the day. For tranquility he cares *little*. Perhaps there is still a vast abundance of opportunity in American life and there is little use for such small storekeeper calculations. Wherever there is new opportunity, whether in the arctic wastes or on top of the Himalaya Mountains, there you will find an American. In many cases he will not be doing the work to which he is accustomed at home. Many a prominent American leader has tried a great number of jobs before finally "making the grade."

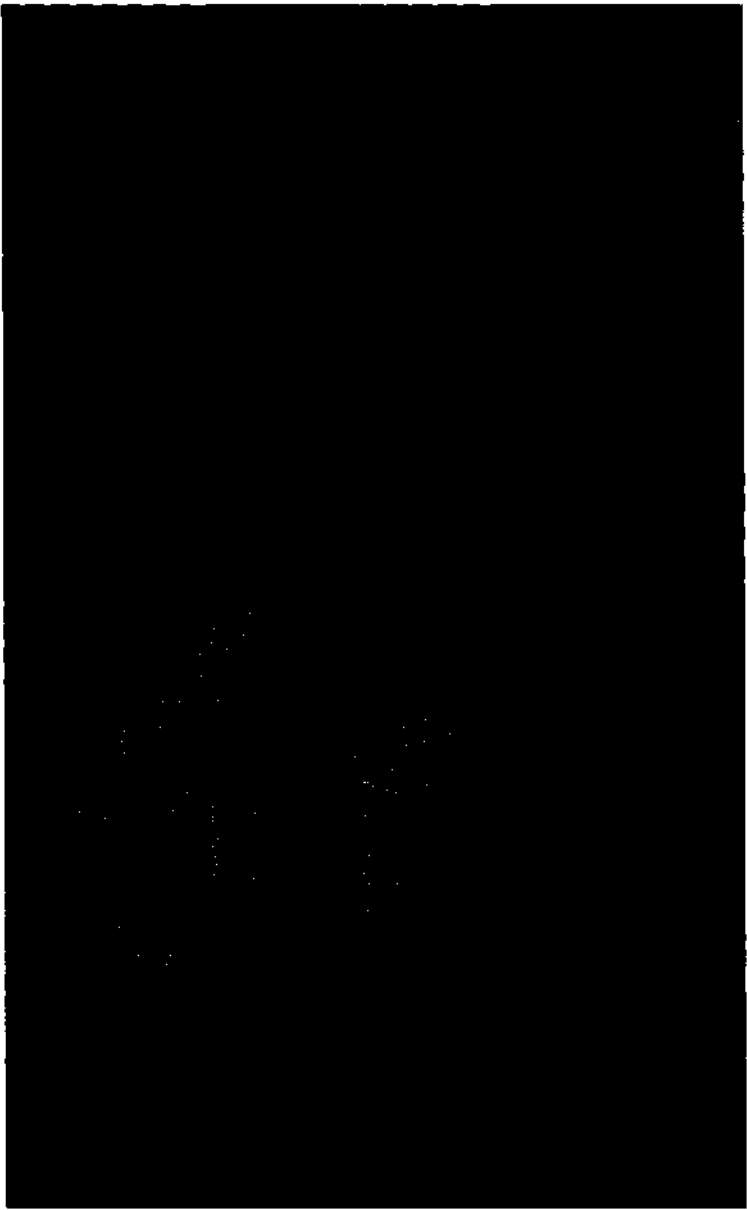
The American loves to talk. When he meets someone, whether an old acquaintance or a total stranger, he will ask questions on any subject. He has limitless curiosity, especially regarding someone from a strange land. He loves to brag about his country. But he is astonishingly frank about America's weaknesses, and as long as you do not point out those weaknesses in such a way as to hurt his pride, he will not try to hide them from you. His love of talking is not limited to private life but extends to public activities. In big cities and small towns we find countless numbers of lecture gatherings, study and discussion groups, and other group activities where there is a great deal of public speaking. The number of participants is larger than we usually find in other countries. In America, lecturing—the proper term for talking in public—has become quite a lucrative specialized profession. *Digging into* one's purse in order to listen to someone talk is an American custom. But we cannot characterize him as one who can only bluff, because he is serious in putting his recommendations into practice. That Americans have built a new civilization on an empty continent in so short a time is an evidence of this.

The vastness of America's territory and the richness of her opportunities have given the American a megalomania. * 'Bigger and better*' is the American's credo in work and in life. A factory hiring the entire population of a city, a business company extending its tentacles into every corner of the globe, a ranch which requires hours to cover by train, a forest that sprawls over hundreds of square miles, a dam that generates electricity by millions of kilowatts—all this represents the reality of this credo. Even American jokes tend to be overstatements.

But this megalomania has not made the individual American consider himself exclusively as superior and everybody else in the world as



*Statue of Abraham Lincoln
Lincoln Memorial, Washington, D. C.*



*Thomas Jefferson Memorial,
Washington, D. C.*

inferior. In fact the American is an amazingly good mixer in crowds. He is very informal and has a healthy respect for jattes. This informality may be seen in the fact that everybody calls everybody else by his first name, dropping the "mister" after knowing someone for a short time. We may be quite amazed to hear college students occasionally calling their teacher by his first name. In social life a young person frequently addresses a much older person in this way. When the President of the United States writes to an important political leader, he not infrequently addresses him by his first name. The common people, in addressing an important official whom they know well, often call him by his first name regardless of his age or position. Such informality is an American trait quite astonishing to many foreign observers.

Americans, from the middle class down, are very strict about money matters in daily life or in social activities, but are always ready to hand out pennies, dimes or dollars to charity—a readiness seldom found outside the American border. This generosity is illustrated in the following incident: One Friday when a group of workers gathered in front of the office of a factory for their weekly pay, one of them lost his check. A fellow worker immediately took off his hat and passed it around, yelling that this unfortunate man could not be permitted to go home to his wife and children empty-handed. Hands dug into pockets and one dollar and five dollar bills showered into the hat. At the blink of an eye the hat held far more bills than the lost pay check. If you work in an American factory you may expect someone to come to you every day or so for a contribution for a fellow worker's illness or for his wedding. We are already familiar with the big American contributions to feed war or famine refugees wherever they are found. When someone has made a fortune, *giving* contributions becomes part of his business.

These are a few prominent characteristics of the American. We cannot expect every American to conform to these standards; nevertheless they are the qualities we will find most commonly among the American people. America is still new, her history short; the American is still vibrant with energy. We do not *yet* know what other characteristics the Americans will take on in the future.

Chapter Two

THE BIRTH OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

Like other countries in the Western Hemisphere, the United States is a new state, created by Europeans. In its early history the United States showed no particular promise of becoming a great nation. Even now it is not the largest country in this part of the world; both Canada and Brazil are larger. Its historical background is quite short compared with many others. When Columbus discovered America in 1492, he did not discover what is now the United States but the Indies in Central America. Even a hundred years later the center of European settlement, exploitation and trade was still in Central and South America. It was not until a century after the discovery of America, when the sea power of Spain had fallen, that the English-speaking people had an opportunity to establish their colonies in the Western Hemisphere. Only in 1607 did the first European settlement, Jamestown, come into being within the borders of the original thirteen colonies.

THE SEED OF FREEDOM

How did the United States forge ahead of other American countries and become the great power she is now? There is no categorical answer to this complex question. But one of the leads undoubtedly lies in the fact that the atmosphere of freedom released the potential energy of every individual to open up the rich resources of this wild continent. Let us examine briefly the embryonic differences between colonies in the United States and those in other countries of the Western Hemisphere in the seventeenth century.

The colonial policy of Spain and Portugal at that time was "to occupy and to hold by force." The main objective was to rule and to exploit the native population. The people who migrated to American colonies under this policy had no freedom to govern themselves, but were under the governor who was sent by the King. What they got from their labor was largely taxed away by the governor. They constantly struggled in poverty, sweating for the rulers, unable to enjoy the fruits of their own labor. When the colony was attacked by Indians or pirates they relied largely upon the mercenaries under the governor for protection. The people had no training or organization for their own protection and the mercenaries were quite detached from the local community life. The people therefore had little initiative or

incentive, and the colonies naturally grew weak. The French colonies in Canada, did not differ greatly from those in Central and South America.

But the English-speaking colonics, though established with the same motive of creating wealth for the ruling class in the mother country, are another story. Between the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, British sea-ad venturers wanted to establish colonics in America which would be more prosperous and stronger than the Spanish and Portuguese settlements. Their plan was to bring British immigrants here, give them a degree of self-government and freedom, and an opportunity to enjoy a considerable portion of the fruits of their own labor. Such people in peace time would be glad to work hard to exploit the boundless land around them. When attacked by enemies, they would protect with their lives their families and the farms built by their own hands. So when the first colony, Virginia, was established, the people with property qualifications were given the right to elect an assembly. All other colonics established subsequently had assemblies, although above the assembly was the governor, sent by the King.

Some of the colonics were not established by the British government but by voluntary groups. In colonies of this type, for example, Plymouth, the people enjoyed a greater degree of democracy and freedom. Shortly after the establishment of Jamestown, a group of Pilgrims in England migrated to Holland to escape religious persecution. Here they enjoyed freedom of worship but found it very difficult to earn a livelihood, and especially difficult to secure proper education for their children. So when the Pilgrims learned of a free new world in America, they gathered together, borrowed money from British merchants, and chartered two ships. One of the ships proved unseaworthy and was discarded before the voyage. They started out from England for America in 1620. On the ship which brought them over, only one third of the passengers were Puritans and trouble developed in regard to religious worship even before they landed. In order to maintain order and carry on group life in a new land they met in the captain's cabin and drew up a compact, which was signed by all the males on board. As the name of the ship was the Mayflower, the document was called the Mayflower Compact. It consisted of only seven lines, briefly *giving* the procedure for electing a governor annually and for conducting public affairs in the tiny colony according to the will of the people. This was not new in political theory but it established the first completely democratic settlement in America.

When the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth on the Massachusetts coast, they found no form of white man's government. During their first year in this new land, the people were unable to produce enough food for subsistence; life was extremely hard, and many became sick and died. In the second year, the small patches of land produced some crops. When these were harvested and food stocked up for the cruel

winter ahead, the colonists gathered for a big feast to thank God and to relax their tired bodies. This feast is still observed annually as Thanksgiving Day. The people labored hard in the free air of the new continent and within several years they repaid every pence they had borrowed to come over.

Later, groups of a hundred or more people migrated to this country in the same way. They crossed the Atlantic in sailing vessels, picked out a good harbor on the east coast in which to land, settled first along the shore, and expanded inland when their population increased. Once settled on the shore, they would carve a small clearing in the thick woods and would begin farming. They supplemented their food by hunting and fishing. In several years a small settlement, sandwiched between the forest and the sea, would gradually grow in population and wealth. It did not merely supply its own subsistence but had some surplus to exchange for the small luxuries of life from Europe and with older settlements in the West Indies. As the people knew they could enjoy the greater part of the fruits of their own labor, everyone was glad to work hard. The number of immigrants increased; cleared land expanded, and the forests retreated. An entire continent was conquered in this way. So, settlements in this country, in its embryonic stage, were strong, prosperous and full of morning-air as compared with colonies elsewhere in the hemisphere.

In the old world of Europe, a person's value was measured by his class or social position, and the common man had little dignity as an individual. A house or a good piece of land was valued more highly than the life of an individual. But in the limitless wilderness of America where land and resources were plentiful, no matter how common a man's background, if he was willing to sweat it out, clearing the trees and carving out his own field, he could become a respected citizen. Thickly populated Europe was a world in which man struggled against man, but early America was a world in which man struggled against nature. What was most precious here was not land or resources but man to develop them. In the early days when techniques were simple, when only muscles and honest labor were needed to develop the land and resources, a man's value did not depend upon his birth but upon his ability. The dignity of labor, the concept of freedom and equality, and a general democratic atmosphere were thus born in the frontier life.

In this new world, created by the sweat and blood of the common man, people's attitude differed greatly from those in the old world. James Truslow Adams relates that in England in those days the nobility was an object of awe to the farmers. Tradition reports two incidents which illustrate the contrasting attitude in this country. Shortly after the establishment of Virginia, one of the farmers called Lord Baltimore a liar to his face and threatened to knock him down. One winter day the Governor of Massachusetts was driving down a road flanked with high drifts of snow, when he met two **farmers**

in their wagon coming from the opposite direction. The Governor ordered them to turn out and let his carriage pass. The farmers in turn told him to drive to one side and let them pass. When the Governor unsheathed his sword, it was seized and broken in two by the farmers.

Other countries in this hemisphere also had empty land and frontiers but they did not have this atmosphere of freedom, stimulating the latent energy of the people to develop the new continent.

FEUDALISTIC INFLUENCES IN COLONIAL AMERICA

The foregoing does not mean that America's present system of democracy developed smoothly and unimpeded in this free atmosphere. From the point of view of the ruling class in the colonies at that time, such incidents as those described above were only expressions of the unruliness of the frontiersmen—expressions not to be encouraged. For example, shortly after the establishment of Plymouth, a Puritan by the name of Roger Williams spoke out boldly against religious intolerance in the colony and even criticized the English King. The adverse atmosphere in which he found himself as a result, soon caused him to leave Plymouth, and he wandered into nearby Salem. There he continued his attack against religious intolerance and, in addition, denounced the King for stealing land from the Indians and selling it to the white men. Such utterances, it was feared in the colony, might bring on a long-threatened visit from His Majesty's warships. He was finally arrested, tried in Court, and sentenced to be sent back to England for punishment. As Williams was a good and respected man, the lenient judge, instead of sending him back to England to be hanged for his utterances against the King, banished him from the colony. Thus Roger Williams wandered southward into the wilderness, where he built a log cabin and established friendly relations with the Indians. Immigrants soon joined his settlement and it eventually became Rhode Island, the first American colony allowing complete freedom of worship.

Since at that time denouncing the King might bring the death penalty, it is understandable that openly advocating democracy was anathema to the upper class. Conservatives in Europe felt that democracy would bring about total destruction to law, order, property, and culture, and regarded advocates of democracy as ruffians. Even in the New World, anyone in a slightly favored position considered democracy as a low-class term, to be avoided in one's own speech. Only such reckless elements as Roger Williams dared to call themselves democrats. Even at the time of the Revolution, few in the ranks were bold enough openly to advocate democracy as a slogan to arouse the people to fight for independence from England. Neither the revolutionary Declaration of Independence nor the state or national constitutions contained the term democracy. Even the leftist leader, Thomas Jefferson, avoided the word democracy in his public addresses or docu-

ments, using it only occasionally in private conversation. When it was needed, he used *republican* in its stead. Not until the middle of the nineteenth century did democracy wash off its low-class connotation and become a word commanding respect and dignity.

In addition to the antipathy to democracy, the political and social structure of the colonies at that time was coated with the color of feudalism. With the growth of population and wealth on the east coast, the value of America's empty land became more evident and the English Crown and nobility became more interested in the exploitation of the colonies. Selling American land became an important source of income to defray the expenses of Europe's incessant wars and those incurred in the wasteful social life of the nobility. By the time the thirteen American colonies had been established, British control of their finances had increased and vast tracts of land on the new continent had been enclosed. The days had passed when the colonists in Massachusetts could elect their own governors. It is true that the colonies continued to have assemblies, but these assemblies had become more and more a tool of the upper classes. The electorate was limited by property qualifications. Moreover all assembly legislation became effective only with the approval of the governor, who was sent by the King, and when it did not come into conflict with any of the laws passed by the British Parliament.

Meanwhile class barriers in the colonial community grew higher and higher. The governor, who had to be a nobleman, was arrogant and would not speak even to the rich merchants of the town, much less to the common people. The merchants and plantation owners also had their own social status. Their clothes and lives were luxurious. Many Boston merchants owned indentured servants. The only time when they would stop to shake hands and talk with the common people was just before election. Class barriers even invaded the sanctity of the church, which advocates universal brotherhood, and people entered it on Sunday in the order of their wealth and social standing. The seats in many churches were classified according to the age, wealth, and social position of its members. All these, however, were troubles among free men. In the middle of the eighteenth century the majority of the colonial population were indentured servants whose ranks were constantly being filled by new-comers as soon as the old ones bought their freedom. And below these indentured servants were the Negro slaves whose day of freedom lay only in heaven.

Other conditions adverse to democracy which existed in those days were the despotic patriarchal families, in which the father was legally dictator of the family wealth, and illiteracy. Since the common people had to spend practically all their time clearing the land and in other frontier tasks, they had little opportunity to seek education. Even those who were literate had only a very limited education, as we can see from the misspelled words and ungrammatical sentences in the

written records handed down from that time. According to the estimate of Charles Beard, at the time of the Revolution only about twenty per cent of the population was literate. Even more than sixty years after Independence, when the first census was taken in 1840, only forty per cent of the total population was found to be literate.

SEVEN YEARS OF HARDSHIP AND WAR FOR FREEDOM

These feudalistic influences and backward conditions could not, however, prevent the growth of democracy and freedom bred in the frontier life. By the middle of the eighteenth century, native-born democratic forces had come into direct conflict with the feudalistic influences transplanted from Europe. The struggle first took the form of an anti-British movement. Although the merchants and plantation owners participated in this movement, they had to take into account British protection, upon which they depended for their prestige and privileged position. They demanded only increased power for the colonial assemblies, reduction of financial burdens, abolition of British control over colonial commerce and manufacturing, and other remedial measures. In other words, they supported a compromise program but were strongly against independence from the mother country. For the growing democratic currents among the common people in the colonies, which threatened directly to overthrow the ruling class, they had nothing but abhorrence. The wholehearted stand for complete independence and democratic freedom came from the common people. They demanded not merely independence from England but freedom and equality in the colonies, abolition of rule by the privileged class, and an increase of the people's influence in the government.

These two forces soon came into wide conflict. The influence of democracy had become deeply rooted and widespread, and the British government was entirely ignorant of the internal situation in the colonies. Its strong-arm methods eventually led to the Intolerable Acts and then to the Boston Tea Party in 1775, precipitating the Revolutionary War. But even after armed conflict had broken out between the British forces and the militia, the upper class and the revolutionary elements within the colonies continued their fight over internal policies. The general trend finally led, in 1776, to the Declaration of Independence, which raised the battle cry, "all men are created equal," based on the political theory that the government derives its power from the people. The die was cast. Not until then did the upper class come over to the revolutionary camp—only half willingly—and many of them continued to fight against independence from the mother country. This resulted in the persecution and exile of no less than 100,000 high Tories—a considerable proportion in view of the fact that there were only some three million people in the thirteen colonies.

But the colonies, shaken by revolutionary cries, faced seven years of hardship and war before gaining their independence and freedom. In

those years of tears and bloodshed, the thirteen colonies, with practically no military preparation, fought an England which had attained the status of the mistress of the seas, an England with a well-organized and well-supplied army. During the greater part of the war, the colonials were chased around by the British forces. The American army was almost shoeless; blood from the bare feet of the soldiers stained the snow on their long treks. Their clothes were worn to a degree that made the onlooking ladies blush. Finances were so limited that the officers had to borrow money on their personal credit in order to maintain the subsistence of their forces. The coast was under complete blockade by the British men-of-war, and there was little manufacturing industry in the colonies. Inflation plagued the entire land; the Continental Notes fell to one-thousandth of their original value. There was practically no central government. The Continental Congress, organized by representatives of the thirteen states, had no direct power to tax or to draft men. Within the country, the common people were still fighting the loyalists, confiscating their property, controlling their activities, and persecuting and exiling the die-hards. But final victory was eventually won under the determined leadership of Washington. It was won through the persistence of the people and widespread revolutionary organizations, with increasing aid from France, Spain, and other friendly European powers, and also because of England's necessity to defend her other stakes. In the Treaty of Paris of 1783, the United States was formally awarded its independence.

The American War of Independence created not merely a new nation but the first successful kingless democratic state on the globe. It was, moreover, an important social revolution, and its success greatly encouraged the French Revolution which came shortly afterwards.

DRAFTING THE CONSTITUTION

Final independence ended seven years of suffering and sacrifice but did not end the internal chaos. The common people were still carrying on their fight with the upper class for a larger share of political, social, and economic power. The Continental Congress still had no direct power to enforce law. The thirteen states were like thirteen independent countries, each with its own revenue customs, law courts, and governmental structure. With the ratification of the Articles of Confederation in 1781, the social and political chaos was even worse than during the war. In 1786 a retired officer of the Revolutionary Army, Daniel Shays, led five thousand poor farmers in Massachusetts in armed rebellion against the privileged class—a rebellion which was suppressed only after months of bloodshed. Such conditions could not go on. The common people demanded the continuance of democracy, with the Continental Congress as it was. The upper class, on the other hand, did not believe that the uneducated masses could govern them-

selves by the democratic procedures of proposal, discussion, and decision by vote. Some of them according to reports even cooked up schemes for a military dictatorship or monarchy.

By this time Washington had retired to a quiet life on his farm. But he received an increasing number of reports on the movement to establish a military dictatorship, and letters urging him to become dictator or king. Realizing the necessity of a strong central government to end internal strife and the danger of civil war, which would threaten the very existence of the new-born Republic, he gave up his retired life. Together with other creators of the Republic, Washington convened the Continental Congress, and in 1787 the Philadelphia Convention met. Washington worked four months during the sweltering summer as Chairman of the Convention. In this capacity he seldom spoke; when he did, it was to attempt to bring the conflicting parties together in a common agreement. When the Constitution was finally drafted, although Washington was dissatisfied with many of its articles, he nevertheless accepted the common decision and urged its adoption by the various states.

The success of the Philadelphia Convention blew away the dark clouds of military dictatorship and civil war. That success, however, had not come with ease. Although most of the fifty-five delegates met on a common ground with the aim of building a strong central government, their means of attaining this end were widely divergent. Numerous proposals came up from the floor; clashes of opinions and interests were sharp. Conflicts of rights and privileges between the big states and the small states, between the Southern agricultural interests and the Northern commercial interests, and many others, almost broke up the Convention more than *once. Fortunately most of the delegates realized the importance of maintaining unity and when conflicts arose were willing to compromise. Hence the Constitution contained many compromises widely differing from the original proposals. The primary objective of the Constitution was to create a strong central government and put an end to internal strife among the autonomous states. The Constitution gave to the central government many powers formerly belonging to the states, such as the power to coin money, issue paper currency, levy tariffs, maintain troops and warships, and conduct foreign affairs.

Having constituted a powerful central government, the delegates feared it might become despotic if it fell into the hands of unscrupulous parties. To prevent this they devised the check-and-balance system, enabling the legislative, administrative, and judiciary branches to watch each other. Thus within Congress, the Senate and the House can check each other in legislation. The President possesses great independent power within the executive branch, but this power is limited by Congress which can enact laws* and appropriate money. Members of the federal court enjoy life tenure, with power to determine the

legality of the action of the President and Congress. These judiciary members are appointed by the President but they may be impeached and removed by Congress. Thus the executive officials could no longer exercise unlimited power according to their personal will, and no one person in the executive, legislative, or judiciary branches could seize the entire power of the government. The Constitution was finally ratified by the necessary majority of states, after a terrific struggle by the farmers who regarded it as too favorable to the upper class.

MR. PRESIDENT OR HIS HIGHNESS?

In 1788, the Constitution went into effect and the states unanimously elected George Washington as the first President of the United States. At that time the Capital was in New York City and in April of the following year, accompanied by a group of representatives from Congress and a small cavalry detachment, Washington rode from his residence in the city to the newly completed Federal Hall amidst the cheers of the street crowds. On the steps facing the street he took the oath as the first President. After the oath, the master of ceremonies shouted to the street crowds below, "Long live Washington, the President of the United States." The crowds echoed the cry and the rest of the day in town was spent in celebration. Thus the United States of North America, which a century and a half later stands proudly among mankind, stepped out on the high road of destiny amidst a comparatively humble ceremony.

Looking all around the world in those days, one could see only monarchical and despotic states. So when a country without a king was created, the people did not know where to place the president or how to address him. Many members of Congress recalled the luxurious and dignified courts in England, France, and Spain, and felt that luxury and dignity were necessary in the government of a state. They thought that when Washington received Congress, he should stand on an elevated platform as did the emperors and kings in Europe. Most congressional members disagreed, maintaining the equality of the President and the people, and that they should meet on the same physical level. As to the title of the head of state, some leaders thought that since in Europe the King was called "His Majesty" and the Prince, "His Royal Highness," he should be addressed at least as "His Highness." The general opinion among the Congressmen, however, was that the officials and the people were Americans alike, and *it was not necessary to call anyone "His Highness."* Meanwhile people had started to address Washington as "Mr. President," and this title has been used generally ever since.

On the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, a speech was made to the effect that during the Revolution the army had the complete political power of the nation within its grasp but had not used it—a fact deserving great admiration and respect. Among those

at the celebration was James Madison, who had participated in the drafting of the Constitution and had been in intimate touch with Washington. After the address, Madison rose and said that the inevitable trend toward democracy had existed even in the Revolutionary days, and that Washington and his aides had won the respect of the people for their loyalty to democracy as well as for their military achievements. So strong was the democratic trend that Madison believed Washington could not have secured the crown even if he had secretly sighed for it.

The strength of the democratic forces in this country in those days is shown above. The American Revolution did not create the philosophy of democracy, but it did create the first modern state in which democracy could be put into practice, with a machinery provided by the Constitution.

WASHINGTON'S ACHIEVEMENTS

One of the important contributions of the American Revolution to mankind was the fact that it was not followed by a dictatorial government. Although there have been many people's revolutions in history, the Roman Revolution produced a Caesar; the British Revolution, a Cromwell; the French Revolution, a Napoleon. Following revolution was dictatorship, and dictatorship in turn bred revolution. The people were chained in a vicious circle of revolution and dictatorship, and their aims were sacrificed to the ambitions of their leaders. The American Revolution broke this vicious circle. After it, America escaped the ugly fate of dictatorship and created a democratic government that has continued and developed down to this day.

The success of the Revolution, in spite of sharp internal conflicts and in the absence of a strong central government, may be ascribed to the determination and persistence of the people and the willingness of conflicting forces to compromise. But it was primarily due to Washington's leadership and devotion to the law. After the Revolution he did not become a Caesar, a Cromwell, or a Napoleon. The ambition of these historic giants to usurp power was distasteful to him, although he did not lack opportunities similar to theirs. During the Revolution, Washington twice received dictatorial power from the Continental Congress, but twice he returned it unimpaired. Many of his aides wanted to rebel against Congress, and indeed it was frequently seriously at fault in regard to handling the military situation, but he remained loyal to Congress and made no attempt to exceed his own legal power. When he was scolded by Congress, he merely replied in satirical tones.

When Washington took office as the first President he appointed Hamilton and Jefferson, leaders of two enemy factions, to important posts in order to enable both to have a voice in the affairs of the state. These two leaders very frequently came-into bitter conflict. Washington first listened to the arguments of both sides and then urged them to

reconcile their differences to avoid a crisis. Washington was a firm ruler but he was also an honorable compromiser. He knew well the conflicting interests of that time and was well acquainted with the greed and ambitions of various individuals and groups. His personal leaning may have been toward the conservative faction but he never let his private sentiments interfere with the primary aim of building a constitutional government and a unified nation.

Washington decided to retire at the end of his second term as President. In his Farewell Address, he urged Congress to maintain government by law and in national unity. He said that in human society conflicting interests were inevitable, as were parties and factions, but that the American people should avoid extremes and violence which might break up the nation's unity. He repeatedly warned against sacrificing national welfare to the ambitions of individuals or parties. These principles, Washington had practiced while he was leading the Revolution and during his two terms as President.

Thus in spite of early feudalistic influence and backward conditions, the democratic forces among the American people in the thirteen colonies had initiated the Revolutionary War. During seven long years of suffering they had maintained a united front amidst sharp internal conflicts until final victory had been won. In the postwar years, despite dangerous internal frictions, America was able to escape the evils of dictatorship or monarchy, and created the Constitution which laid the foundation for the development of democracy. In all these great historic processes we can see clearly the contribution of Washington.

Chapter Three

THE RIGHTS OF MAN UNDER THE CONSTITUTION

AMERICAN CONSTITUTIONAL GOVERNMENT

When Washington opened up the first page of America's national government, he found not merely the absence of king or dictator but a strange new system of democratic constitutional government. We may say that, in brief, American constitutional government involves the following principles: 1) The final power of the government lies in the people, not in a king or any party or class; 2) the people decide the supreme law of the land through a procedure of proposal, discussion, and decision by representatives of their own choice; 3) they reserve certain fundamental rights, not entrusting them to the government; 4) elected officials exercise limited power within a limited time, at the end of which time their record must be reviewed by the people who decide at the polls whether the officials shall go or stay; 5) the people exercise their right to vote on the basis of equality, each person having only one vote. These are the principles for which Americans fought and gave their lives during the Revolution. But in addition to establishing these principles of government, they also forced into the Constitution important guarantees of the rights of men.

Foremost among these guarantees is the writ of habeas corpus. Under this, when any governmental agency legally arrests a law violator, the latter must receive a fair trial promptly. If the defendant is illegally held without a trial, he or his interested friends or relatives can obtain a writ of habeas corpus from any court, and with this writ demand his release or prompt trial. The illegal arrest and detainment of innocent citizens has been a nightmare to people living under despotic government.

According to the Constitution, except in the case of the impeachment of an official, anyone accused of violating a federal law must be given a trial by jury, which must take place in the state where the crime was committed. Under the jury system citizens of good reputation and sound character are selected from local communities to serve on the jury. In the trial of each case, a certain number of these selected citizens sit in the jury box to hear the arguments and evidence from both sides. At the end of the trial, the jurors retire to the jury room to discuss the evidence presented by both sides, interpreting *it* in the light of conditions existing in their local life*. They arrive at a verdict by vote, and also have the right to recommend the degree of punishment.

The judge will, according to their decision, either release the innocent or administer the bitter medicine. This system does away with many frightening injustices doled out by excited and violent judges, and gives the defendant a fairer trial. It also gives the people an opportunity to participate directly in the execution of the law, making them feel that theirs is a people's government and the law is truly an instrument for their protection.

The Constitution gives a defendant the right to counsel. If he is too poor to hire a lawyer, the court must provide legal counseling for him. Moreover the Constitution prohibits excessive bail. Until he is proven *guilty*, the defendant is considered innocent and is not subject to treatment as a criminal. Thus an innocent person will have full opportunity to prove his innocence. Even if he is proven guilty of violating the law, the Constitution prohibits the imposition of unusual punishment.

The definition of the crime of treason is strictly interpreted under the American Constitution, being limited to an act of war upon the government or assisting the nation's enemy. A further requirement is at least two witnesses or a confession in open court before the verdict of treason can be imposed. At the time the Constitution was being drafted, the word treason was worse than a nightmare to the people of Europe because treason meant an offense against the power of the ruler. If the government were allowed to define treason any way it wished, then the slightest criticism of the government could be considered an act of treason and the victim could be secretly arrested and tried without an opportunity to face his accuser.

Furthermore, the Constitution forbids Congress to pass any attainder or any post facto law. At the present time these guarantees may not appear very revolutionary. But in 1787 when the Constitution was being cast, the Old World of Europe was wrapped in a black mist of despotic government and the practices of despotism, which were ruled out by the Constitution, were still vivid in the eyes of the delegates attending the Philadelphia Convention. They included these guarantees so that these age-old evils would not take root and generate their ancient poison in the New World. Since then, there have been many amendments to the Constitution to make it more democratic.

However good a constitution may be, if *it* is not observed strictly by the leaders and people, it is only magnificence on paper. While we do find unconstitutional acts in the history of the United States, it is generally true that in the past century and a half, the Constitution has been respected by American leaders and people alike, as the fundamental rule in the game of politics. When certain aspects of the Constitution no longer meet a new situation in a new age, they take steps to revise it; they do not carelessly violate it. This is the chief reason why constitutional government still stands solidly in this country after many dangerous and crucial moments,

The most critical test of America's constitutional government as

well as of her national unity was the Civil War of 1861-1865. The scale of this war was one of the largest in history up to that time, and it raged for four long tortuous years. The South had the initial advantage of brilliant generalship, as well as other advantages. But even amidst his greatest difficulties, President Lincoln clung tenaciously to his constitutional position, and until armed conflict broke out he tried every peaceful means to maintain unity. Not until the Southern troops fired on the government garrison did he use his constitutional authority to suppress the rebellion by force. Even during the conflict he did his utmost to avoid sacrificing constitutional government for the sake of expediency.

While the war was raging, Lincoln had to deal not only with the Southern troops but with the dissenting elements who utilized their constitutional rights to undermine his political position and hamper the military operations of the North. In Lincoln's own Republican party there was a radical faction which accused him of unnecessarily lengthening the war. They urged him strongly, for the sake of more efficient prosecution of the war, to nullify the Constitution temporarily and suppress all dissent in the rear. In fact there was considerable pressure on Lincoln to seize dictatorial power. But he stood unmoved. He did not dismiss Congress nor did he try to purge *it* of opponents. He even tolerated important members in the government who tried openly to undermine his prestige and position, as long as they served the public with ability. He merely urged these dissenting elements to cooperate, in spite of difficulty, to maintain peace and unity in the rear. The dissenting press attacked Lincoln with great ferocity and several newspapers were suppressed by the government. However, according to J. G. Randall's *Constitutional Problems under Lincoln*, the people and the press were more free to criticize the government under Lincoln than under Wilson during the first World War.

The second incident which shows Lincoln's fidelity to constitutional procedures was the election of 1864. That election year arrived in the midst of Lincoln's greatest difficulties, with the Southern troops approaching the Capital and war weariness growing in the North. Whether or not to hold the regular election with all the concomitant internal rivalries was a choice that would test the judgment of the greatest statesman in any nation. Lincoln took the constitutional road and held the election, letting the people pass judgment on his ability and policy during the previous four trying years. In the course of the election race, the Democrats openly advocated an anti-war plank, accused Lincoln of using war as an instrument to restore national unity—an experiment that "failed"—and attacked him with all the vicious words they could find in the dictionary. Even within the Republican party there were powerful elements who demanded the discard of Lincoln. Attacked from without and bored from within, his political position was seriously endangered.

Fortunately, the election resulted in success for Lincoln, and on the night of November 10, 1864, a crowd gathered in front of the White House to serenade him. He hastily wrote a short speech which he read by the light of a candle held for him by John Hay. In it Lincoln said:

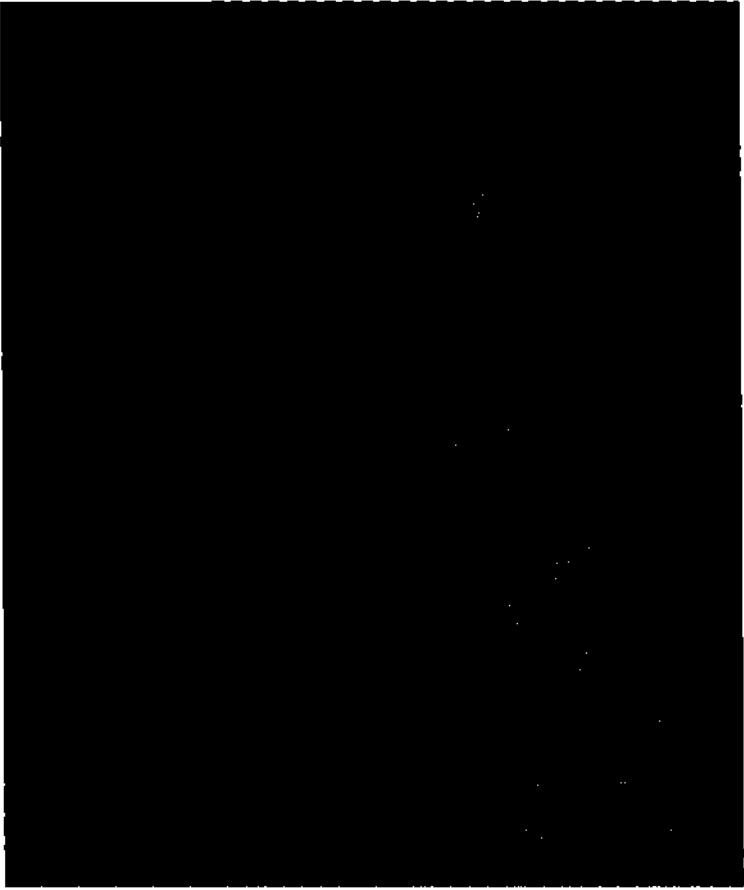
"It has long been a grave question whether any government, not too strong for the liberties of its people, can be strong enough to maintain its existence in great emergencies. On this point the present rebellion brought our republic to a severe *test*, and a presidential election occurring in regular course during the rebellion, added not a little to the strain.

"If the loyal people united were put to the utmost of their strength by the rebellion, must they not fail when divided and partially paralyzed by a political war among themselves? But the election was a necessity. We cannot have free government without elections; and *if* the rebellion could force us to forego or postpone a national election, *it* might fairly claim to have already conquered and ruined us. The strife of the election is but human nature practically applied to the facts of the case. What has occurred in this case must ever recur in similar cases. . . . But the election, along with its incidental and undesirable strife, has done good too. It has demonstrated that a people's government can sustain a national *election*, in the midst of a great civil war. Until now, *it* has not been known to the world that this was a possibility."

Whether every deed of Lincoln's during the Civil War was absolutely constitutional is for historians and students of jurisprudence to decide, but it is generally agreed that his magnificent performance preserved the principles of constitutional government as well as national unity. Today the tradition of basing every act on the Constitution has been firmly established among the American leaders and people. In present-day politics whenever any serious question arises, everyone tries to justify his action *on* constitutional grounds. The incessant argument which results is an evidence of American respect for the Constitution.

One advantage of constitutional rule is that, in a political crisis, it permits a change of government without a bloody revolution, allowing the people to decide the fate of a government peacefully at the polls.

When corruption appears in local affairs, the people sooner or later exercise their constitutional rights to put their government into right shape again. When an act of misrule occurs in the central government, which is under the surveillance of a million eyes throughout the nation, the people, the Congress, and the Supreme Court move into action. There are subcommittees in Congress constantly probing into the inefficient workings of the government. The reports of such investigations are frequently published in the newspapers with all candidness. That this might injure the prestige of some high personality in the government does not make a particle of difference. In every period



Soap Box Orator, New York City

of American history we find famous cases in which the Supreme Court has declared some government act unconstitutional. A recent case occurred during the last depression when President Roosevelt and Congress enacted the National Industrial Recovery Act in order to increase employment. Business interests took the matter to the Supreme Court, which eventually declared the NIRA unconstitutional and ordered its annulment on the ground that the Constitution did not *give* the government the power to interfere with private business operations. It may be a question whether the Court's action was correct, but it shows that the American government under the Constitution exercises only limited power, and that the law is above the government.

PUBLIC SQUARE ORATORS

The American right and practice of free speech under the Constitution can be seen from the great diversity of opinions expressed in the press and radio. This has been true in the United States since the days of its creation. One reason for Washington's decision to retire at the end of his second term was because of the sharp tongues of hostile newspapers. He complained of being assailed "in such exaggerated and indecent terms as could scarcely be applied to a Nero, a notorious defaulter, or even to a common pickpocket." From that time on Americans have fully exercised their constitutional right of free speech to express any opinion on public issues and to criticize government personalities and policies. Even top rank officials cannot avoid the "honor" of being called a communist or a fascist. The "pay off" for such sharp tongues is at most a libel suit; it is not brutal force from the government.

The use of freedom of the press presents a picture of national scope, but in the smaller spheres of the people's lives we find the same pattern. The numerous orators shouting in public places in American cities are one example. They post themselves on street corners, in public squares and circles. In times of social or political upheaval, their vibrant voices are heard everywhere. What *is* the orator's name? That is of no importance; neither he nor the audience seems to care. People are absorbed only in the religion he is preaching, the opinion he is expounding, the sentiment he is fomenting, even the nonsense he is yelling.

You see these orators in every American city, but let us take New York, the crossroads of the world, as an example. If you visit Columbus Circle on 59th Street or Union Square on 14th Street, you will see the inevitable little crowds scattered about, each encircling an unknown orator who is straining his vocal cords on questions ranging from the world's fate to some strange social phenomenon. Their stand may be communist leftist or fascist rightist or any shade between these two extremes. No one is safe from their scathing or praising tongues. Their continuous magic breath will transfigure the President or an in-

consequential local official into a god, a devil or just a half-god half-devil common man. As long as their torrent of words does not advocate violence to overthrow the government or incite rebellion, they will be left alone to express their happy thoughts, even if there are policemen or detectives among them. In this crowd you may find a staunch supporter of the present government; in that, a chest-pounding opponent, tearing to shreds every inch of the government's policy. In the free air of such a public square you will hear voices of every political tone pounding against each other like the waves of the sea.

These unknown orators are mostly humble working men; some are small storekeepers, some are students, some are just plain hobos. Some may be sent out by organizations of various kinds, but most are just "free lancing." It is easy to launch the sociable American into conversation with others. When one comes to a public square to see the crowds or saunter under the shady trees, he frequently just talks to a fellow man next to him about today's headlines in the papers—about anything. An articulate one will pour forth words and ideas. He may start with only two or three souls beside a public bench, but as he talks louder and louder, the crowd grows larger and larger. If someone in the gathering is equally handy with words and doesn't like what the orator is saying, he will raise questions and a beautiful piece of oratory will degenerate into a debate. If the audience doesn't like this newcomer's views they will shout him down and let the first fellow go on. If an inarticulate common man objects to what one orator says he can simply leave and wedge himself into another crowd where he may find an orator more congenial to his own moral climate.

These unknown orators may be quite unpolished and untutored in their speeches, but they are earnest in what they try to put across. Such public square bull sessions are really a form of the people's social and political school where some form their opinions on various public issues by talking and listening. These opinions will guide them to choose their rulers and government policies at the polls, and the people know the eventual weight of their words and opinions. One warm spring evening in Union Square an American girl was talking to a handful of listeners about America's foreign policy, explaining that the way to avoid sending the next generation of youth to the world's battlefields was to establish an international police force. An unkempt middle-aged worker pulled out a pencil and a piece of soiled paper and said, "What is your name? I want to nominate you for the next president of the United States." The worker may not have known the complicated machinery of nominating a president, but he did know that he was living in a democracy and that the choice of the chief of state rests in the hands of people like himself. That these were not the flowery words of an educated American heightens the significance of the scene.

TOLERANCE OF OPPOSITION

The fact that you can take a few steps in a public square and hear opinions of all shades, gives an abbreviated picture of America. On any newsstand you will see, lying side by side, papers and magazines of every political hue, catering to customers of varied tastes. Visit a town meeting in New England, or a public political meeting in any community, dial your radio to one of the many forums-of-the-air, and you will hear divergent views being aired freely. Walk into the legislature of the central government or of any state or city, and you will hear members expounding their theories on a variety of matters such as the desirability of national management of a certain industry (a radical stand in America), the need of lowering taxation on business, the necessity of leaving private business alone. On the surface, the co-existence of such diversity of opinion is chaos, but this superficial chaos is an important stage in the procedure of government by proposal, discussion, and vote. Without this stage, public opinion would not be able to develop. Once the vote is counted, however, and the majority has spoken, order will emerge. Minority will follow majority, and majority will tolerate minority. This tradition of tolerance of opposition is the key to the success of American democracy. On the floor of the legislature opponents may be shaking angry fists at each other and even "slinging mud," but you frequently see them later seated together in a bar over a glass of beer. Their political opinions may be as incompatible as fire and water but they can still be friends and do business together. This is not hypocrisy but a valuable American asset—tolerance of the opposition.

The following incident illustrates this tolerance. Wendell L. Willkie ran for president against Roosevelt in 1940. In his campaign speeches, he violently attacked Roosevelt's administration as eight years of misgovernment, attacked him for breaking historical precedent by running for a third term, attacked him as ignorant of the operation of the American economic system. He left no stone unturned in criticizing the President. However, when the nation had spoken, he immediately sent the customary telegram of greetings to Roosevelt. In a speech to his own party Willkie said that during the heat of the election both sides had used a lot of angry words that would not have been used in ordinary times. But since the nation had spoken, he urged the Republicans to do all in their power to maintain national unity and assist the government. At the same time he urged them to continue to criticize the government's shortcomings as that was the privilege and duty of a minority party. Sometime later at a benefit boxing show he comforted a losing contestant against Joe Louis in a short speech, saying 'T too picked on a champion.' After the war broke out, the victorious Roosevelt sent Willkie on a good-will mission as his personal representative < o China, Russia, and other

countries, apparently forgetting Willkie's attacks against him during the previous campaign.

The diversity of American political opinions and factions is no less than that of any European country but in the United States there are only two parties of nation-wide strength. This gives America political stability, preventing the confusion of political parties such as is found, for example, in France. A strong voice advocating a third party frequently arises in critical moments, but the effective third party is ever in the perennial laboring stage, it is never born. One reason may be that whenever a new demand arises in the nation and gains strong following, one of the "big two" usually adopts *it*, leaving the third party without the soil in which to take root. Down to this day no third party has elected a president; at most it has elected a few lonely members of Congress.* The moral is that it takes tolerance for either of the big two to adopt the voice of a third party movement, since that voice is frequently quite contrary to the traditional policy of the major parties.

LACK OF OFFICIAL ARROGANCE

One result of constitutional protection of the people's rights and of their choosing their own rulers is that the people do not fear the officials. The people know that their opinion makes the law, that the officials are but public servants to carry out the law, and that the law is above the official. If an action of the government or of an official exceeds the power given by law, the people can always demand a court hearing. Even if an unreasonable action of an official is within the bounds of law, he can still be censured by the people. During World War II a famous general, while visiting a hospital near the front in Europe, slapped a sick soldier and scolded him for being a coward. It was found later that the soldier had really been wounded at the front and had been sent to the rear for hospitalization only upon the insistence of his immediate superior. When this incident became known to the American public through the newspapers, a storm of protest arose from individuals and organizations, and an investigation brewed in Congress to consider disciplining the general. Demands for the protection of the dignity of a private soldier were widely aired in the press. The general hurried to make a formal apology. Since he had exhibited unusual ability in conducting the war and victory depended greatly upon him, Congress did not proceed to discipline him. Later, however, when a list of military leaders was presented to Congress for approval for promotion, the general's promotion was intentionally held up for months before the approval was finally granted.

The army is an autocratic organization where the disciplining of a subordinate, even if somewhat unreasonable on occasions, is allowable

* One exception was the Republican Party which in 1860 was still a "third" party.

by law. Whether popular sentiment and the Congressional action in this case was correct may be a question, but it shows unmistakably the democratic temper of the American people who value the dignity of the individual far above the authority of an official. It further shows the determination of the Americans to retain their civilian control over the military. This is only one of many incidents in America's political scene in which a military leader has been publicly censured by the civilian authority.

In a land governed by law rather than by the individual, the official is not cloaked with awe-inspiring dignity. He knows his authority comes from the people, that he is entrusted to enforce the law which is directly or indirectly decided by them, and that his own political fate rests on the people's periodical review of his record at the polls. This has produced in the officials of the United States government an amazingly democratic pattern of behavior. The war year of 1943 saw the State of Alabama seriously short of pickers when the cotton crop was ripening. Since cotton was important for both military and civilian use, it could not be allowed to rot in the field. To prevent this, members of the entire State government including the Governor, cleaned their own office buildings for a week, releasing the building workers to help pick the cotton. Only in America could you see the dignified governor of a state clean his own office.

In the summer of 1943 the following news item appeared in an inconspicuous corner of the New York papers: The owner of a subway newsstand while dozing at midnight the previous night had seen a tall, lanky woman glancing at the headlines of his newspapers. To relieve his own loneliness he said jokingly to the woman, "Hey, lady, you could play the part of Mrs. Roosevelt, for you look it." "I am Mrs. Roosevelt," replied the woman calmly with a smile. Somewhat startled, the man tried to talk to her on equal terms, asking how she liked to ride on the subway. She replied that she was used to it. Shortly a train pulled into the station and he saw the lanky woman enter it with a few lonely passengers who were also waiting.

In a land of unmatched wealth in automobiles and gasoline, the First Lady conserved gasoline by doing a lot of plain walking and by taking a five-cent subway like everyone else, when going to a distant point. She went alone, without servants or guards, enjoying a chat with a lowly newsboy, in plain style without fanfare. To Mrs. Roosevelt this was ordinary routine. She often helped unknown persons, especially young men and women. Sometimes she invited a street-car acquaintance or a correspondence friend to the White House for tea or even for dinner.

Though these little things are interesting and significant they by no means encompass the whole scope of Mrs. Roosevelt's public activities. She has done a tremendous amount of work for the welfare of American women in peace and in war. She has made important contributions to

youth work, and *is* constantly making speeches, and helping to direct group activities all over the country and even on far-flung battle fronts. Her column, "My Day," is enjoyed by millions of people every day. But the little things she has done for individual citizens have further bridged the distance between the people and the officials, making the people feel more intimately that the government is their own. In such an atmosphere, the people have no fear of the officials and even make personal use of the government whenever they can. A puzzled merchant or a troubled farmer will not hesitate to write to the respective governmental agencies for advice and help, and will get a reply. Whenever someone feels dissatisfied with a government measure, he writes or wires his congressional representative to protest, and a member of Congress has to heed these letters and telegrams from his constituents, whose votes decide his political career. If you glance at the newspapers and periodicals when important legislation is pending in Congress, you will see strange advertisements by various groups, urging the people to fill out a form pro or con a certain issue and send it to their Congressmen to show where they stand.

Petitioning an official is not a monopoly of adult voters. In January of 1944, a ten-year-old girl in Massachusetts wrote to the President:

Dear President Rozevelt:

My name is Ann Gilcreast. . . . and I am ten years old and in the sixth grade. Since you are President and head of the United Stats, I would like it very much if you would reduce the prices of Cocker Spynal puppies. We would like one very much but with prices the way they are now we cannot afford one. Will you please write me a letter back and tell me if you are going to reduce the prices. My father is in the Navy and is in Africa. So you see we would like a puppy very much to keep us company these cold winter nights. I would thank you very much if you would reduce the prices.

P.S. Don't forget to write to me and tell if you are going to reduce the price of Cocker Spynal puppies.

ANN

The President referred the letter to the Office of Price Administration, which in turn discovered a federal employee about to leave Washington who was trying to dispose of a cocker spaniel puppy. The OPA moved into action and Ann had her "spynal"—and without cost. Ann had certainly never read the Constitution but she knew that the government existed for her welfare and to carry out the will of the people.

All this does not mean that there are no instances of infraction of the Constitution and of civil liberties in the United States—there are quite a number of them. But the total of such infraction is negligible compared with the overwhelming number of incidents of the nature described above.

Chapter Four

ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE COMMON MAN

THE FIGHT FOR POPULAR GOVERNMENT

A noteworthy characteristic of the American people is their tradition not to inherit but to create. Many of the political freedoms described in the foregoing chapter are the result of the struggle of the common man; they are not an inheritance from the original Constitution. The Constitution gave the people only an opportunity to fight for their privileges and interests in a peaceful and orderly manner.

Today a man without a penny in his pocket can go to the polls to vote on who shall govern him. This is one of the achievements resulting from the struggle of the common man, since the original Constitution did not entrust political power to all the people, and the right to vote was the privilege of the propertied class. Men without property rose and fought for this privilege for three-quarters of a century after Independence. Not until the middle of the last century was the property qualification of franchise wiped out and white manhood suffrage established throughout the country.

Alfred Smith was a spectacular political personality, who rose from a fishmonger in the slums of New York City to the dazzling position of Governor of New York State, and exerted great influence upon modern American politics. Had he lived at the time of Independence, however, his spectacular rise would have been more difficult since state constitutions then had property and even religious requirements for government offices. In 1778 under the Constitution of North Carolina, the governorship was out of reach of anyone without property valued at ten thousand pounds. Several state constitutions even required the candidate to be of a specified religion. By the middle of the last century, however, these property and religious qualifications for office, like the property requirement for franchise, were submerged in the roaring tide of the common man's struggle for political equality.

The high property requirement for office resulted in control of the government by the wealthy aristocracy, a condition which the rising masses would not long tolerate. When the common people sent Andrew Jackson to the White House in 1829, their determination to end government control by the aristocracy had become widespread. Acting as a representative of the people, Jackson summarily dismissed a large number of aristocratic elements and gave the offices to his own loyal Republican followers. By 1840, it had become common practice

in local and federal politics to distribute major offices among members of the victorious party. With this practice came that of rotation of office and the end of government monopoly by the aristocracy.

Today the great drama of presidential election, which occurs once every four years, stands as a symbol of American democracy and an evidence of the political power exercised directly by the common people. But this, again, is the fruit of their struggle rather than a blessing bestowed by the original Constitution. Most of the Fathers of the Constitution did not believe the common people could govern themselves and were anxious to avoid heated election campaigns such as we see today. Under the original Constitution, the people did not participate directly in the presidential election. The power to examine candidates and eventually elect the president was delegated to a group of presidential electors. These electors were sent by state legislatures, with the exception of five states where they were elected directly by the people. After a long period of dissatisfaction with this system, they rose to fight for popular election of the president. By 1828 the presidential electors in all but two states were elected directly by the people. The common people then reduced the electors to dummies, and finally achieved their objective of popular election of the president. Not until this had been done did Americans enjoy the present quadrennial drama of presidential elections. Under the original Constitution, senators were appointed by state legislatures instead of being elected directly by the people. Only after a century of vociferous demands and stiff struggles was the Constitution finally amended, in 1913, to provide for popular election of senators. This also greatly increased the direct political power of the people.

Another achievement of the common man was the adoption of democratic methods of selecting candidates for government offices. Presidential candidates were originally selected in secrecy by caucuses, that is, committees formed by congressional members of various parties. Since the people had long looked upon this system as a means for those in power to monopolize the election of the president, they initiated a fight for the open selection of candidates. After the 1830's it became customary for both political parties to hold national conventions to select candidates for the offices of president and vice-president. While *it* is true that politicians still "pull strings" behind the scenes of these national conventions, this system is undoubtedly more open than the secret dealings in the caucuses. In the early days, local conventions of political parties undertook the selection of candidates for offices in Congress and in the local government. But since the opening of the twentieth century, this method has been superseded in most states by "primaries." A "primary" is held some time before election in order to permit the voters in each party to select candidates for local and federal offices. This gives the able elements an opportunity to appeal directly to voters within their party and avoid the controlling hands

of party bosses. Later, in the final election, the general voters elect their officials from among these candidates.

The foregoing story tells only of the struggle of men for popular government; it does not include that of the other half of the American nation, women. The political, social, and economic freedom enjoyed by the American women of today is the fruit of a protracted struggle which lasted more than a century. Since 1800 the number of women leaders has increased and the movement for women's rights gradually emerged as an impressive force. Before that time, when a woman was married she had to transfer all her property rights to her husband. After 1839 the upsurge of democratic forces compelled one state after another to grant property rights to married women. When the women leaders held their first national convention for women's rights in 1848, they issued the Declaration of Sentiments, demanding equal rights with men in education, economic opportunities, law, and franchise. This Declaration was hailed with jeers and rage from the press. Leading men in the nation shuddered to hear the advocacy of such "destructive" changes in the status of loved and cherished wives. Even some women were irritated by such ideas of women's rights. When Susan B. Anthony, the leading woman suffragist of the past century, went around to advocate her ideas to other women, the door was often slammed in her face. She was told by women that they had husbands to protect their rights and that what she needed was a husband. But leaders of the movement continued their efforts and gradually pushed forward the frontiers of women's privileges. In 1920 they achieved their objective of amending the Constitution and began to enjoy complete equality with men in suffrage.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRARIAN AND LABOR MOVEMENTS

In the rise of the common man during the nineteenth century, the objective was not merely to secure political privilege but also economic advantages for the underdog, namely, the farmers and laborers. During the War for Independence, the farmers had furnished the main force of the revolution. When independence had been won, they carried on their struggle against merchants and creditors, a struggle that resulted more than once in armed rebellion. After the gradual stabilization of the political situation, the farmers exercised their political power, sending Thomas Jefferson and, later, Andrew Jackson, to the White House to continue the fight against the privileged class. Later, when the territory of the United States sprawled westward, huge tracts of land became public domain. The rich and the politicians saw in this another source of profit and began pilfering from the immense public domain. The poor farmers naturally rose to fight, demanding that the government give the land free only to those who would actually cultivate it. "Vote yourself a farm**" had become a slogan

among freehold farmers by the middle of the nineteenth century. To realize this aim the common people fought with all their strength and finally, in 1862, under President Lincoln, forced the passage of the Homestead Act. Under this Act, the public domain was divided into tracts of 160 acres each, which were given free only to those who actually cultivated the land. From then until all the public land had been granted to settlers, the common people enjoyed an important source of economic security. The poor and discontented could always go west to find their niche and build an independent life on a tract of free land. This was an important victory for America's agrarian movement.

Soon after the farmers had won their free land, they organized a widespread movement to raise the price of their produce and improve farming methods. They sought to elect representatives of their own interests to Congress in order to swing governmental policies in their favor. Local and national agrarian organizations mushroomed all over the country. With nation-wide influence, these organizations used every available instrument to protect agrarian interests and to fight against industrial capitalism, more than once causing great political upheavals. With their power organized, the farmers forced the government to regulate rail rates in favor of agricultural products, to pass the Irrigation Act, to make agricultural loans to subsidize farming, to assist in the marketing of their products, and to improve agricultural technique and the livelihood of the farmer. Government action in the interest of the farmers increased in variety and scale. Today the "farm bloc*" in Congress consists of representatives of agrarian interests and wields a power that can tip the scale in many a political struggle. The American farmer still faces many serious problems, such as increasing tenancy, sharecroppers, and soil erosion, but the agrarian movement in the past has done much to improve his lot.

During the period when America was predominantly an agricultural nation, the poor farmers formed the major under-privileged class. But with the progress of industrialization came the growth of an urban proletariat, and an increase in the intensity and frequency of economic depressions. The wage earners suffered unemployment and wage reductions during these depressions. Even in times of prosperity there was a constant problem of unemployment and poverty. Since these problems had not existed when the original Constitution was framed, that great document did not provide for their solution. It was up to the American workers to rise and fight for their own interests and security. This they have done for more than a century, and scarcely a day passes now without news of some sort of strike or labor disturbance.

Back in 1809, the shoemakers in New York City went on strike, demanding improved working conditions. The strike was a new phenomenon at that time and no law existed to settle it. Although

all the strike leaders were arrested, the court could only prosecute them under an old common law of "conspiracy," accusing them of preventing their employers from doing business by forcible interference. The case was settled by imposing a light fine of one dollar on each leader. This case pictures vividly the condition of the American worker of that time. The employer had the sole right to determine wages and working conditions; the worker could take them or leave them; he had no legal right to strike.

However, in the new atmosphere of freedom and emancipation, the workers had no intention of continuing under such conditions. The number of labor unions and strikes increased with time. During the 1830's one state government after another was forced to abolish imprisonment for debt, and in the next decade the 10-hour working day gradually superseded the 12- or 13-hour day. The more important industrial states were forced to initiate labor legislation to insure the health and security of the urban worker. These are some of the victories won by the early American labor movement.

After the Civil War, as America's industrialization was accelerated, the organized power of the wage earners increased tremendously. Local trade unions dotted every part of the country, and workers, in all the important trades organized separately into powerful national unions. The intensity and scale of the workingmen's struggle in this period dwarfed anything that had occurred previously. It was a far cry from the shoemakers' strike of 1809. After repeated wage cuts by the railroad companies, the great railway strike exploded in 1877, affecting the whole nation and immobilizing all railway traffic between the Mississippi and the Atlantic. The companies succeeded in persuading the government to send armed forces to the strike centers, but the strikers showed no compromise. In Baltimore, Pittsburgh, and Chicago, pitched battles developed between troops and strikers, causing many deaths and casualties. Cities fortunate enough to escape bloodshed had to face riots and demonstrations by workers. During the strike huge mass meetings were held in a threatening atmosphere of popular revolt in industrial centers, especially in the East. An avalanche of propaganda deluged the public from both camps. Capital accused workers of inciting riots and plotting to overthrow the existing social order; labor accused capital of starving and slaughtering the workers. Radical socialists seized the opportunity to foment social revolution in the streets and the critical situation threatened to shake the nation to its foundations.

The railway strike continued for two weeks and was finally forcibly broken by armed troops. After that, America's labor movement entered an even more active stage. Strikes had become the accepted instrument of the workers in demanding improvements, and labor disturbances rose like a torrent overrunning every part of the land. In 1881 strikes in the United States totaled 70; from 1881 to 1905, the

yearly average of strikes was 1,470, involving approximately 270,000 strikers; in the period 1916-1932 the annual average increased to 1,875 strikes with some 912,000 strikers. With this irresistible trend came the renewed movement for national labor unions. From 1834 on, there had been repeated attempts to unite all the workers of the country into organized national unions, but these early attempts were short-lived. The first real success in this direction was the organization in 1886 of the American Federation of Labor. Another national body of organized labor arose in 1938 in the Congress of Industrial Organizations, rivaling the American Federation of Labor in membership and strength. Each of these two great organizations had an approximate membership of six and a half million in 1944. The power of the American working man was enhanced tremendously under their dual leadership.

This stage of the American labor movement won many new victories. From 1910 on, the eight-hour day gradually replaced the ten-hour day. The Fair Labor Standards Act passed by Congress in 1938, required all inter-state business to observe the Act, which called for an eight-hour day and forty-hour week. The employer must pay 1 Va overtime wage if the work exceeds eight hours a day or 40 hours a week. The American worker is no longer merely a working animal; he has leisure for self-improvement and enjoyment of cultural advantages. There has been a continuous improvement in the health of the worker and in his safety in his working environment. Congress and state legislatures have passed laws requiring employers to pay compensation to workers injured at work, and in many cases requiring the employer to buy accident insurance for his workers. Finally, a major victory was the passage by Congress in 1935 of the National Labor Relations Act, *giving* the workers legal right to organize unions and to carry on collective bargaining. Working conditions and the treatment of workers is no longer determined solely by the employer but must conform to legal standards.

ABOLITION OF IGNORANCE

Present-day America is a land of universal education where education is not merely free but is also compulsory. In large cities one frequently sees truant officers trying to catch school children in movie theaters and places of recreation. The appearance of these officers starts headlong flights of boys and girls through various exits, just as the approach of a dog scares away the animals and birds in the woods. This is one of the melodramas of modern American life. Compulsory education, however, is the harvest of a century of struggle rather than a product of the original Constitution. Although in its early days the United States had laws to provide education for the common people, these laws were mere words on paper, and education was largely monopolized by the upper class. With the rise of the urban proletariat, it was the poor who raised the cry for universal education sup-

ported by public revenue, in order to abolish the ignorance of the common people. After decades of agitation and struggle, by the middle of the nineteenth century, the Eastern states began to establish public elementary school systems. Progress was rapid in the Western states where the democratic spirit was high; but in the South, dominated by plantation owners, no great progress in public education was made until after 1860. Compulsory education was handicapped by child labor and by the ignorance of parents as to the importance of education for their children. It was not until after 1920 that all states in the union had compulsory education laws which were efficiently enforced.

As the movement for free and compulsory education plowed forward, the number of public high schools increased by leaps and bounds. There were only about 100 high schools in the country on the eve of the Civil War; in 1900 there were 6,000; and by 1940 their number exceeded 29,000. Keeping pace with America's growing national wealth were the lengthening figures of public revenue devoted to education. The total expenditure for all grades of public schools in the United States was about \$70,000,000 in 1871; it had exceeded \$200,000,000 by 1900; and had leaped to \$2,130,000,000 by 1930. During this time, the high schools were placing increased emphasis on vocational training to meet the needs of the children of farmers and workers.

The growing number of public schools and the increased public revenue devoted to education have shattered the monopoly of education by the upper class, and have rapidly reduced illiteracy. Illiteracy in the United States was 17 per cent in 1880; less than 11 per cent in 1900; and only 4.3 per cent in 1930. But America's aim in developing its educational system is not merely to wipe out illiteracy, it is rather to teach the people to use their knowledge in meeting life's problems. In the past, youth had lived in ignorance, by the plow and hammer and chisel; they now rush to the public schools by the tens of thousands. By applying their education in business or professions they squeezed into the ranks of the middle or even upper class, becoming engineers, technicians, lawyers, and teachers. Women also utilized fully their new educational opportunities to acquire knowledge and skill, and to raise their own status.

THE STATUS OF THE NEGRO

In the century and a half since the United States won its independence, there has been a continuous struggle by the common man for equality in political rights, for a fair share of economic benefits, and for better educational opportunities. This struggle has enabled the present-day American to enjoy dignity and respect as an individual as well as many blessings of democratic freedom. However, in many places these blessings are still beyond the reach of black citizens of the country. Although *it is* all too obvious that the American Negro is

still condemned to many injustices, it is not correct to say that the problem has been completely ignored by the white citizens. Many liberal leaders have made great sacrifices in the cause of the emancipation of the Negroes. For this cause, a bloody civil war was fought for four years. In this cause, the Constitution has been thrice amended: once to abolish slavery throughout the union, once to guarantee civil rights, and once to forbid the denial of franchise to anyone on the ground of race, color, or previous servitude. When the Northern armies occupied the South, white leaders went along also to forcibly raise the social and political status of the Negroes to full equality with the white citizen. But while a law may be changed by the sweep of a pen, social attitudes and institutions cannot be changed overnight. Soon after the withdrawal of the Northern troops from the South, the Negroes found it hard to maintain their new gains, and white supremacy was rapidly and ruthlessly restored.

Progress in the status of the Negroes, however, cannot be gainsaid. Before the Civil War, with the exception of New York and New England, Negroes could nowhere vote and enjoy the legal privileges of the white men. After the Civil War, in many southern states Negroes were still denied many political rights, including the right to vote. In all the northern states the Negroes now vote and live under the same law as white men. Chicago has twice sent a Negro to Congress, and since 1917 many states have had Negro members in their legislatures. The Negro vote is coveted by both major parties in every presidential election.

The Negroes' economic status, although still very low, has been considerably improved since pre-Civil War days. Savings and property of Negroes in 1866 amounted to \$20,000,000; by 1936 their value had risen to \$2,500,000,000. In 1930, there were 70,000 Negro business enterprises, including fifty insurance companies and thirty banks, and the number of Negro professional workers had also greatly increased. The advancement in Negro education was even greater. In the 1830's, many states in the Union had laws forbidding the teaching of Negroes to read. Illiteracy among the Negroes throughout the whole country was 97 per cent in 1860, by 1930 it had been reduced to 16 per cent for the entire country, and 5 per cent in the northern states. Negro education in the South is still at a great disadvantage. Large numbers of individual Negroes have "achieved high distinction, especially in the field of athletics and entertainment.

Serious discrimination in social and economic life confronts the American Negro today, and his full status as a citizen is still to be attained in the South. A hopeful sign is that this condition is recognized, and that liberal leaders throughout the country are bending their efforts toward a solution.

Chapter Five

FROM LOG CABIN TO SKYSCRAPER

When we think of Americans, who top the world in financial and material progress, we usually think of them in terms of luxuries and enjoyment. But in the period when the United States was being founded, it was a paradise for the poor rather than the rich. The Europeans who migrated to this country came for various reasons—to avoid religious persecution; to escape famine and war; to leave behind the oppressive class systems of Europe, which offered little chance to get ahead. There was, indeed, a great diversity in their nationality, religion, and other backgrounds. They had, however, two important characteristics in common: The vast majority were the poor and oppressed people of Europe; and they were progressive and ambitious, willing to face the danger and hardship of crossing the ocean to start life anew. They had one common dream: opportunity for the individual to develop freely in a new and unpopulated land.

This dream acted as a magnet to draw shipload after shipload of Europe's poor, hungry, and oppressed. In the New World, it turned them into frontiersmen, political leaders, educators, scientists and millionaires. English, Irish, Germans, and many other nationalities, like a warm current latent with heat and energy, flowed across the Atlantic, flowed into the cities and towns of the East and into the wilderness of the West, to open their own factories and stores or to carve out their own farms. Once the years of hard frontier labor were over, they became solid independent citizens.

Men of more than average ability could, of course, take advantage of the bigger opportunities. John Jacob Astor came to America in the steerage in 1784, landing with only a few dollars in his pocket. He rose rapidly from a poor laborer to become the richest American of his time. He organized the fur trade in the Northwest and developed many other great enterprises. On his death in 1848, he left a fortune of twenty million dollars and a heritage of unlimited ambition to his family. In the same year in which Astor died, Andrew Carnegie, the son of a poverty-stricken Scotch weaver, landed in New York. This poor boy grew up to be the steel king of the world—with an annual income of twelve million dollars. During his lifetime Carnegie contributed 350 million dollars to charitable causes in America and other countries.

Cultural fields offered equally rich soil for development. Thomas

Hunter arrived in New York in 1850 as a penniless and friendless political fugitive from Ireland. After many a hungry day, he started his career teaching in a public school and rose to become a prominent reformer in public education. In 1866, he opened the first free evening high school in New York City. Three years later, he founded the Normal and High School for the higher education of women, the first free institution of its kind in this country. The following year the name of the institution was changed to the Normal College of the City of New York and Thomas Hunter became its President, a position he held for thirty-seven years. The Board of Education later (1914) changed the name to Hunter College of the City of New York, as a memorial to this distinguished immigrant.

The famed Joseph Pulitzer came as a boy from a garlic-growing town in Hungary. He was so poor that his first bed in America was a bench in the park. One cold winter night he tried to warm himself in a hotel lobby and was thrown out. Twenty years later he bought the same hotel for \$635,000. Pulitzer was not only a remarkably successful publisher but also one of the first to build a skyscraper. He purchased the newspaper, *The World* and, with his own hand, traced the blueprints for the first New York skyscraper, the World Building.

Edward William Bok also came to this country as a poor boy, in 1870. At the age of thirteen, he had to leave public school and take a job as office boy in a telegraph company. In his spare moments he poured over the biographies of the successful men of his time and started writing to them. Soon his correspondence friends included such notables as President Hayes, Emerson, and Longfellow. Pushing his way up from a humble reporter for the *Brooklyn Eagle*, he became the editor-in-chief of the *Ladies Home Journal* in 1889. When he retired from that position thirty years later, he had built up the magazine's circulation to two million copies, one of the largest in the country. Stories of this type could be multiplied almost endlessly.

CLEARING A CONTINENT

The abundance of land and resources, together with the opportunity for free development, first drew floods of immigrants from Europe, and later shifted the population from the East to the West. The people of the well-settled towns on the East coast were constantly swept by waves of enthusiasm to migrate into the western wilderness, looking for bigger and better opportunities. This movement westward to the frontier continued for three hundred years after the arrival of the first white man.

The frontier communities usually went through three stages of development: In the first stage, the frontiersmen ventured into wild plains and forests, chopping down trees and clearing the land, carving out a few acres on which to build a crude log cabin. Here they farmed, hunted, and traded fur with the Indians. With the arrival of more

and more people, these frontiersmen felt crowded and again moved westward. In the second stage, the people who remained in the settlement continued to develop the half-cleared land, enlarged the fields, built churches, schools, and stores until a rudimentary village or town appeared. In the third stage, this new town gradually grew in population and became an old settlement. Here, again, the people caught the fever to migrate further west.

In these frontier communities, with their crude houses and dirty streets, life was hard, lonely, and poverty stricken. The war-like Indians could not be enslaved and the white men had to chop the wood, build their houses, do the farming, and all the work necessary to make life possible. Under these conditions, the American came to respect brawn, physical prowess, and practical skills. Manual labor attained a respected position. Whoever excelled in strength and persistence was looked up to by his fellow men. Before becoming President, Lincoln was a champion rail splitter. In such a civilization there was no place for the cultured or the weak. Meanwhile, in a community where everyone carved out his career and fortune by his own two hands, a highly democratic spirit and a hatred for class distinction naturally developed.

In this way, the poor hard-laboring frontiersman continued to push the frontier westward. Train after train of covered wagons, drawn by horses or oxen, poured into the forests and prairies of the West. They were frequently attacked by Indians on their way. Those who did not perish in such attacks had to begin sweating immediately upon arrival at their destination. From trees and mud arose houses and fields. Little, scattered patches of clearings soon swallowed up forests and a limitless wild continent. What is now a rich and strong America grew from the clinking sounds of axes, from mud, and from the smell of sweat. Some of the early crude log cabins still remain but around them has appeared a new civilized world. These log cabins have been superseded by comfortable houses.

When Washington became President in 1789 there were only thirteen small states, all located in the East. In less than thirty years, nine states were added in the West and two new ones in New England. Population had almost tripled. During the following thirty years, rumors of rich land and resources continued to knock at the door of the East, and wave after wave of migrants again took to the road, flooding the western frontiers. By 1850, California had joined the Union and America had become a vast country, spanning two great oceans. In this brief period of sixty years, a wild continent had been conquered, although there were still large areas of uncultivated land. In 1862 when Congress passed the Homestead Act, the government possessed an immense area of unclaimed land—approximately half the area of the United States. In another twenty years most of this empty land was submerged by the flood of migrants.

These two decades are known as the period of the land rush. Whenever the government declared a stretch of land open for development, thousands of people would rush westward, gathering like ants to await the officer's gun as the signal for the "free-for-all". When the signal gun was sounded, everyone rushed forward—on horseback, in carriages, or on foot—to drive his stake in the land he had selected. A cage of chickens was suddenly shaken out of the wagon, followed by a screaming woman, but there was no stopping the wagon. The woman might walk to the piece of land which her husband had selected to call their new home.

Among the many interesting life stories of early Americans, a moving one is that of Noah Webster, famous for his work in improving American education and, primarily, for editing dictionaries. Webster had fought in the War for Independence. He had seen the borders of the little country, then composed of thirteen states, creep across the Alleghenies, across the Mississippi, up the Rockies, straight to the shore washed by the Pacific. When he heard that the westward movement had reached California, warm tears flowed from his old eyes.

THE RISE OF CITIES

Cities and towns mushroomed everywhere in the wake of the westward migration. One astonishing instance of this was the founding of Guthrie in Oklahoma, in 1889. At noon one day there was only an empty grass plain. By three o'clock that afternoon, streets had been blocked out. Four o'clock saw the election of the municipal council. That night, stars resembling astonished blinking eyes, looked down on 8,000 citizens, each camping on his new homesite. This town, which virtually dropped out of the sky that day, has grown steadily and is today a thriving city of over ten thousand.

Not all of the cities of the West rose as dramatically as Guthrie. In fact many of them did not take economic root; some took root temporarily but soon dried up. Some remain today as little hamlets with only a handful of people, almost as when they started their career. Today we see in many parts of the country, ghost towns with deserted houses and grass-covered streets, without a shadow of living inhabitants. But at that time each town and village that shot up in the western wilderness, aspired one day to be a great city of commerce and industry. Some forty years after Washington took office, numerous towns and villages had appeared along the Mississippi, varying in population from a few hundred to tens of thousands. Famous cities like Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Chicago had begun pushing up from the earth like young shoots. These embryonic metropolises, like many others, fixed their eyes on the surrounding wilderness and determined to become great *cities*. These humble settlements frequently had their ambitions rewarded. In 1830, Chicago was a mere village; three decades later it was a rapidly growing city of nearly one hundred and ten

thousand; at the turn of the century, its population had exceeded a million. Since that time it has grown rapidly into the rail hub of the country, with a present population of 3,400,000. Important urban centers like Milwaukee, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Omaha, Denver, Portland, and Seattle were all desolate little towns *in* 1860. Thus, the westward migration transformed a million square miles of forests and wilderness into fertile fields and great cities.

GOLD AND OIL

A new age in America may come with meteor-like swiftness and pass away at the blink of an eye. During his lifetime, an American frequently sees several great periods pass before his eyes, for example, the period of the gold rush. In 1849, when the rumor spread that gold had been discovered in California, the whole country was turned into a whirlwind. Children, old people, priests, merchants, farmers, workers, humans of every description and from every walk of life joined the westward rush. As there was no highway or railroad from the East to California, they walked overland, went by way of Panama, even sailed around Cape Horn in South America. The Chinese, separated by the Pacific Ocean, hopped on sailboats to join the plunge toward California. Within a year an almost unpeopled state had collected 92,000 gold seekers. In four years' time, the newly established Pacific Mail Line Shipping Company had shipped to New York from California, gold worth \$122,000,000. Prices in the mining area were fantastic. Gold miners were paid twenty to thirty dollars a day; lucky gold washers picked up from one hundred to one thousand dollars a day in "pay dirt." Even the cats, which were used to catch rats in the stores, were worth fifty to a hundred dollars apiece. Ten years later, the population of California had grown to 380,000, but the great period of the gold rush had ended.

Oil was discovered in Pennsylvania in 1859. Land worth less than three dollars an acre now spouted oil worth more than ten thousand dollars in one day. Within a brief period of ten years the oil industry, including its refining, transportation, and marketing, had become one of the flourishing enterprises of the country. John D. Rockefeller, the three-dollar-a-week storekeeper, "had the jump" on others. He used his amazing organizing ability to build an oil empire. During his lifetime he gave more than five hundred million dollars to charitable enterprises of every description in every land. The profit from the California gold rush was nothing compared with that of the oil rush.

THE CHINA CLIPPER

America's rapid economic development was not limited to the rush for wealth on and under the soil; it included all forms of economic enterprises, with speed as the criterion for success. In the field of trans-

portation, take, as an example, the China Clipper, which we may remember as the airplane in the Pacific service just before the outbreak of the present war. About 1840 the shipbuilding industry flourished along the northeastern coast of the United States and a type of rapid sailing vessel was built to compete with the English schooners, especially for the China trade. These fast sailing vessels were called clippers from the Dutch word *schep*, meaning a fast horse. They were used chiefly to transport tea and other cargo from China, hence the name China Clipper. Since tea leaves rot quickly in the hold of a ship, speed was important. The American clippers won many dramatic races with the British vessels. One clipper, racing an English ship from Foochow to London, finally came in ahead after eighty-nine days of sailing. The building of clippers became a flourishing business. Americans rushed to invest money in the new enterprise, and many accumulated large fortunes. Within a decade after 1840, no less than one thousand of these fast clippers were sailing the seven seas. The new China Clipper became the mark of a distinctive period in America's history. It was, however, a brief period since after some twenty years the steamer became practicable and the China Clipper epoch passed into the realm of memory.

America's land transportation followed a similar pattern. The rapid development of the rich land west of the Alleghenies resulted in a large amount of agricultural produce. The prices of farm products were miserably low because they could not be transported at a reasonable cost or on a large scale to the East and to Europe. By 1810 cheap canal transportation, such as was found in Holland, had been introduced. This reduced the cost of transporting agricultural products to the East to one-fifth or one-sixth of the previous cost. In a few years the fever of canal building swept the country. When the Erie Canal was completed in 1825, it demonstrated the low cost of canal transportation for western produce to the East and to Europe, and enthusiasm for constructing canals increased. In the next ten years, 2,400 miles of canals were built. The cry for canal building echoed everywhere; anyone with money to invest put it into canal stocks, expecting large profits and fortunes from them. But in about thirty-five years, enthusiasm for canal building became diluted by a new and greater enthusiasm, that of railway building. An American of some forty years of age at that time had witnessed America leaping into the canal period, then leaping out again into the era of the railroad.

BUILDING THE NATION'S ARTERIES

Let us take another look at the development of land transportation. At the present time a train will take us from New York to Philadelphia in less than two hours, and to Boston in about five hours. The "fire-wagon" had made its first appearance in America in 1830, but it was a very crude affair and the total railway mileage in the United States was

only twenty-three miles. The chief means of transportation at that time was the newly introduced stage coach, which traveled over muddy highways. From New York to Philadelphia by stage coach took at least two days, and from New York to Boston, six days. Moreover, only the rich could use it when it was first introduced. In 1836, the stage coach companies introduced an innovation, dividing the fare into three classes. The first-class passenger rode to his destination; a passenger in the second class had to get out of the coach and walk up the hills or when the mud was too deep; while anyone traveling third class had to get out and push. This may seem very funny at the present time but in those days *it* was a great boon to the people. The stage coaches often raced the new fire-wagons side by side, amid the rousing cheers of the riders.

But the stage coach lost out in the final race. The fire-wagon, which frightened horses, killed dogs, and aroused popular anger, eventually proved itself the most rapid and cheapest means of land transportation, as well as a very lucrative investment. In less than a decade, the old American quest for speed had turned to the railway enterprise. The improvement in locomotives, freight and passenger cars, and the laying of tracks took place with amazing rapidity. Within three decades the twenty-three miles of experimental tracks laid in 1830, had been extended to 30,000 miles. The development of its transportation at that time was a serious and urgent business to the nation because it was feared that, separated by huge mountains and vast distances, the West might detach itself from the East and become independent. Congress assisted the railroad companies by *giving* them large tracts of land to build new lines. After 1860 the mileage of tracks laid every year multiplied rapidly, although by 1869 when the Transcontinental Line was completed, the total was only 50,000. By 1890, 167,000 miles of railroad furnished the nation with important economic arteries, making possible the rise of big cities through the cheap large-scale transportation of food and other commodities. The thick net of railroads connected every hamlet and big city. Economic activities in one part of the country were closely connected with those in all other parts. Statistics for 1940 show American railways totaling about 233,000 miles, with siding tracks of some 119,000 miles.

The railway is still the backbone of America's land transportation but with the advent of the twentieth century, the automobile and modern highways suddenly rose like a strong competing army. Since 1916 this new means of transportation has clipped *off* 20,000 miles of railway mileage.

Although the invention of the motor car dates back to about 1885, the first decade was only an experimental period. This racket-making monster frightened dogs, horses, and pedestrians, and broke down frequently. Those willing to risk their safety to try it were mostly investors and manufacturers. In the early years of the twentieth century,

it was not sold in any large numbers, and many cities would not allow it to run in the streets. In 1895 a large circus company hired an automobile as an object of curiosity for its audience. But after Henry Ford had built his improved version of the low-priced car, many farsighted people realized that it could no longer be considered a nonsensical toy, but was an innovation with a great future. When Ford opened his automobile factory in 1903, it attracted national attention, and within a few years the characteristic American speed-and-rush had descended on the automobile industry. Huge capital investment from sources large and small poured into it. More than a hundred automobile factories mushroomed everywhere in the country.

The early automobiles broke down very frequently, and the smaller factories did not have enough capital to establish repair stations throughout the country. This resulted in the rise of large-scale manufacturers with huge investments, while the smaller ones gradually dropped out. Within a short time the American automobile industry grew into an industrial giant. Mass production and the standardization of parts skyrocketed the number of cars and greatly reduced the price. In 1910 an automobile cost from several thousand to ten thousand dollars; before Pearl Harbor, seven to nine hundred dollars would buy a beautiful new car—far better than an expensive one in the previous period. The total number of cars in America in 1900 was less than 8,000; in 1910 it was still less than 500,000; but by 1922 it had broken the ten-million mark. This strange toy, first known as the horseless carriage, had dragged the country into a new era. In 1942 there were more than thirty-three million cars running in this country. A look at the registration numbers on the number plates today will give you some astonishing notions.

The building and improvement of highways accompanied the rise of the automobile. As the automobile crowded the horse and carriage out of the road, the nation's attention was drawn to the importance of adequate highways and soon the enthusiasm for highway building matched that of building canals and railways. In 1900, there were only 140,000 miles of gravel roads, which were made for the use of carriages and could not stand the weight and high speed of the automobile. Ten years later, hard-surfaced highways stretched across 270,000 miles. By 1941 paved roads in America had reached the astonishing total of 3,300,000 miles, of which 1,600,000 were hard surfaced. These roads knit together every village and town in the country. Upon them flowed a continuous tide of cars, consolidating the nation's economic organization, widening social contact and enriching the lives of the people. During his lifetime Henry Ford has witnessed the automobile coming out of its embryo to change the entire pattern of American life.

These scattered stories of the transportation enterprise may suffice to illustrate the rapid developments of American technology and the brevity of various periods in American history.

FROM A NATION OF FARMERS TO A NATION OF WORKERS

Surveying the hundred and fifty years of America's history, we find the growth of its industry a very recent thing. Although industrial capital had outstripped agricultural capital by 1861 and important inventions were being made every year, American industries were still very crude and on a small scale. Measuring America's industrialization by the percentage of its urban population, we find the following figures: in 1860, urban population made up 19.8 per cent of the nation; thirty years later it was still only 35.1 per cent; not until 1920 did it reach the halfway mark, with a percentage of 51.2. An industrial America, comparable to her present status, did not appear until the end of World War I. If we take the number of millionaires as a rough yardstick in the development of large-scale economic enterprises, we find only three millionaires in 1861, thirty-eight in 1897, and 42,554 in 1919.

The lifetime of an American ninety years old at present would have spanned several great eras. In his childhood he would have heard his parents tell stories of hardship during America's war for independence. He would have seen with his own eyes an America of forests and wilderness transformed into a world of machines, of electrical and chemical inventions, and of great cities. He would have witnessed shiploads of poor but ambitious men from Europe, cross the Atlantic and rush ashore to release their boundless energy clearing forests, *digging* mines, building railroads and highways, constructing factories, founding great cities, and accumulating huge fortunes. The machine was first used to save man's labor but it soon did things impossible for human hands.

The signs of wrecking companies are highly symbolic of the rapid changes in the appearance of American cities. In any big city today you will see many signs and advertisements of wrecking companies. In other countries, wrecking a house is part of the work of the building companies, but here house-wrecking has become a specialized profession. This is partly because of the huge amount of wrecking to be done and partly because, as a specialized profession requiring the development of particular skills and the use of expensive machinery, it can be done more cheaply and with greater speed. These professional wreckers have wrecked an entire city of houses. New buildings too arc put up with startling rapidity.

FACTORIES ANSWER THE CALL OF ARMS

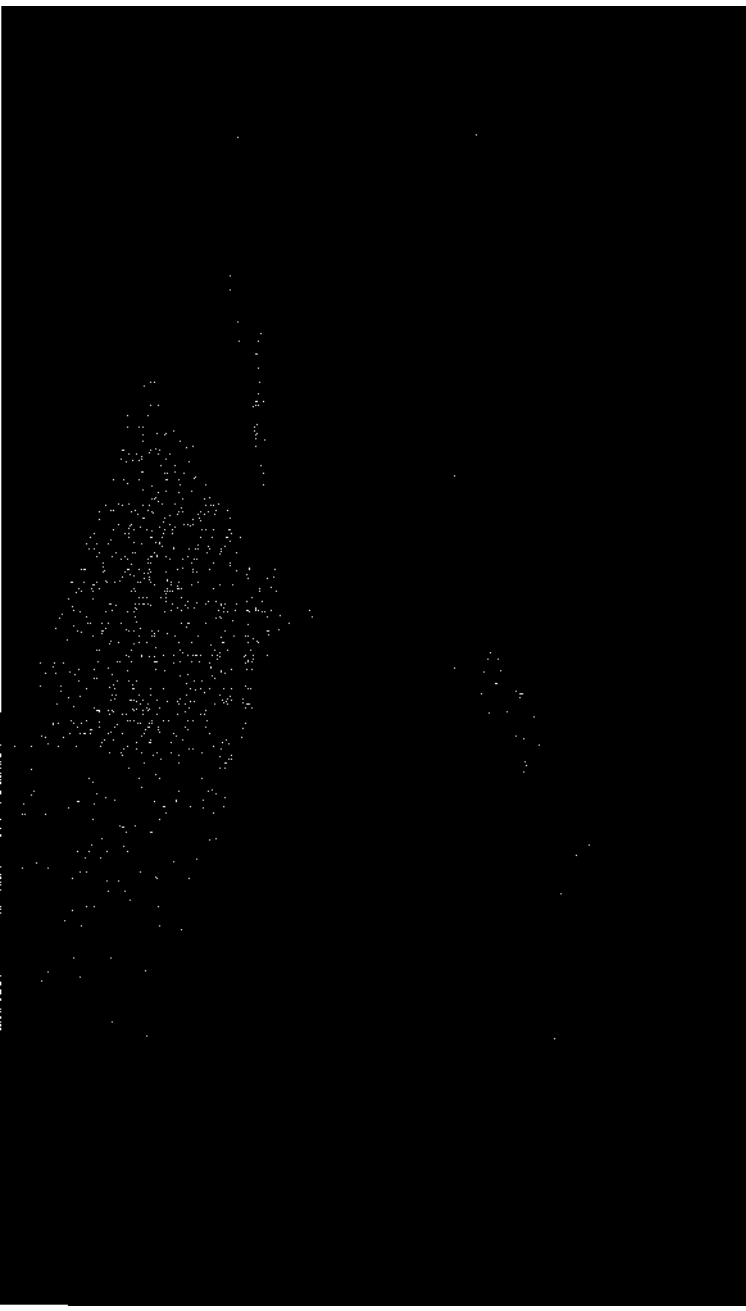
Today American material progress has not slowed down because of its great achievements in the past but, in fact, has speeded up. The astonishing story of industrial conversion in the war is an illustration. From the time of the last depression until 1939, America's production climbed back to its peak. During this period there was no munition

industry to speak of; what manufacturing of arms was done was on a small scale. In March 1941, after Congress passed the Lcmd-Lcase Act, President Roosevelt made his "arsenal for democracy" declaration to the world, and set up the Office of Production Management, which absorbed many leading industrialists. This new office gradually transformed the American industrial machine into a machine for the manufacture of arms, but the production proceeded at snail's pace. Only a few of the heavy industries, such as those manufacturing locomotives, began making airplanes, tanks, and other weapons. Figures showing America's production of civilian goods in 1941 are as follows: 5,000,000 cars and trucks; 3,700,000 refrigerators; 2,000,000 washing machines; 13,000,000 radio sets; 4,700,000 stoves and heating apparatus of various kinds; 2,000,000 vacuum cleaners; 5,500,000 electric irons; 5,400,000 electric clocks, and untold quantities of other commodities. The quantity of arms produced in that year did not compare with the production of civilian goods.

After December 7, 1941, the situation changed beyond recognition. The following January 6, President Roosevelt announced the nation's aim in arms production, and strengthened the administrative agencies dealing with armament production. In February of that year no more cars were manufactured. April ended the production of radios, phonographs, refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, amusement and vending machines. May saw the stoppage of production of washing machines, electric irons, stoves and other electrical equipment, and metal furniture and other articles—in fact, as many as 400 metal items. July ended any production of sewing machines and many more metal articles. By October, 205 industries were required to discontinue the manufacture of civilian goods or were so limited in their use of critical materials that they went over to armament production. Finally, the use of metals or critical materials was restricted to farm tools and items absolutely necessary for daily life.

Large factories with a considerable number of workers and engineers accepted armament contracts directly from the government, but among the 184,000 American factories, 168,800 are small plants employing less than one hundred workers each. Since these small plants could not produce complicated modern weapons, the government held exhibitions in the towns and cities to explain the methods of armament production and the ways of obtaining contracts or subcontracts from the government or larger factories. In this way, numerous smaller workshops were absorbed in the roaring tide of armament production. Those who could not manufacture a complete weapon obtained subcontracts from larger factories to make parts.

Since a modern weapon is frequently made up of many complicated parts, small shops would often work* together in the production of an article. For example, one item used in suspending the wheels of a tank is made up of as many as fifty-four parts. One small stove factory, which





could not make even one of these parts, organized seventy smaller factories in the neighborhood to produce the fifty-four parts, and assembled them in its own plant.

Another instance occurred in a town in Florida the month after Pearl Harbor. All the small factories of the town gathered together, rented the training ground of a circus, moved their machinery into the ground, and together made airplane landing wheels with a total value of a million dollars a year. Thus numerous industries were converted within a single year from civilian to armament production, and United States munitions flowed like a river to the world's battlefields.

In modern mass production, converting machinery from civilian to armament manufacture is frequently a slow and costly process, and it is often quicker and cheaper to build new factories. America's armament production in the war did not depend entirely on conversion but to a considerable extent on new factories. Her industrial equipment in 1939 was valued at approximately seventy to eighty billion dollars. In the next two years *it* increased nearly twenty per cent. In 1942, America's total expenditure for military purposes was forty per cent of that for other commodities and services. This figure grew to sixty per cent the following year. But in spite of this, the production of civilian goods in 1943 was thirty per cent more than in 1939. That is why, despite the great increase of the buying power of Americans in war time, the United States was able to avoid serious inflation.

THE MATURING OF AMERICAN CULTURE

When we see pedestrians in great American cities rushing along instead of walking, and the personnel in American offices and factories running about or their fingers flying on typewriters and calculators, we cannot help occasionally asking why they are so rushed. Is such a busy life really worth while? It seems to have become an inseparable part of machine civilization and its real value is a riddle. Without questioning the intrinsic value of machine civilization, however, let us look into the busy habits of Americans.

In a little more than a century, these Americans cleared a wild continent, and built the world's richest and most luxurious civilization from forests and empty prairies. Again, in two brief years, they converted an industrial machine whose complexity *is* beyond the grasp of man's imagination, into an effective, well-integrated armament industry which furnished the world with weapons to fight the dictatorial monsters. How could the Americans have accomplished all this without frantic haste? When the poor of Europe first flocked to America, they found everywhere opportunities which they had to grasp with all possible speed. They rushed to build railways; to secure land, gold, and oil; to invent; to build factories and business enterprises. All the periods in American history have been brief and people have had to hurry in every period.

We frequently criticize Americans for their lack of cultural refinement and gentleness, for their overemphasis on practical things. These criticisms may have some justification, but their origins can be explained. We have already seen that America started not as a land of the rich but of the poor, and that her history is very short. Many American frontiersmen, who have had to do hard labor of all kinds, are still living today. With a continent waiting to be cleared, they have had no time for cultural refinement and gentle manners, for tending a flower garden.

When enterprises are rising everywhere and opportunities are rich, the immediate problem is to accomplish things quickly. This is why Americans like to finish a job first and talk about it afterwards. Under these conditions, who has the desire or time to talk about purely theoretical things? One's whole life is spent in building some practical enterprise, in practical work. The American railroad giant, Frederick Townsend Martin, once went to a seaside spot in Florida with a friend. The friend remarked, "The earth is really beautiful. I wonder if Paradise can be as beautiful as this." Martin turned to answer, "Unless there are railways to build in Paradise, I don't think I would like it up there." Martin, like most railroad magnates, came up the hard way as a laborer.

In the nineteenth century, America looked to Europe for leadership in the field of culture. A scholar was not respected unless he had studied music, art, science, or philosophy in Europe. European fashions, the social life of European nobility, was the captivating dream of rich Americans. Sons and daughters of American millionaires sought to marry European nobility as a means of improving their social position. The important buildings in American cities at that time were in the classical European style. An America which had suddenly developed into a materially progressive state, lacked confidence and still looked to Europe for its cultural refinement.

But twentieth-century America is a different story in the matter of science, technology, and education. It has now developed world-famed centers of learning which do not blush when compared with any similar European institution. Some of these American rostrums of learning have even forged ahead of those in Europe. Lincoln was the last President from the backwoods; all the heads of state after his time were college or university men. A French girl, who came to this country as a refugee during the war and was studying at an American university, when asked her opinion of America, replied, "Europe is too backward. Here everything is growing and progressing. There are only seventeen universities in France compared to the 1,700 colleges and universities in America. The difference is striking. One feels that one has stepped into a new cultural world." The comparison may not be entirely fair since America is much larger than France and naturally has more centers of higher learning. How-

ever, the population and area of the United States are not one hundred times those of France.

American literature is ever attaining new heights. Readers in other countries have long been familiar with the translations of the works of some American writers such as Sinclair Lewis' *Main Street*, and *The Jungle*, by Upton Sinclair. Other writers noted for their penetrating pen in depicting social scenes include John Steinbeck, Ernest Hemingway, and John Dos Passos. Ever since the days when Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* helped to bring about the "Second Revolution," emancipating the Negro slaves, each generation of Americans has produced powerful literature which has aroused popular interest in social problems. In poetry and other fields of literary endeavor, America has produced shining stars who have commanded world-wide admiration.

In the field of music and art, America is still young but is rapidly maturing. Music of native composers is now heard on the American stage and concert hall, which formerly played chiefly European selections. Jazz not only plays an important part in American daily life but also furnishes rich material for great symphonic pieces. In motion pictures, the wonder child of the twentieth century, America has topped the world. Museums and art connoisseurs, who previously bought pieces only from the European masters, are now beginning to purchase the work of American artists, depicting American scenes. There are famous centers for artists in various parts of the country. We rarely encounter new buildings in America which are in classical European style. Manhattan, which was bought from the Indians for twenty-four dollars, is now firmly ruled by typically American skyscrapers. The rugged sky line of skyscrapers portrays for tourists not only the general outline of New York but that of America's native culture as well.

After the fall of Paris in 1940, the world capital of fashions moved to New York, and New Yorkers are determined to maintain this status. Many observers agree that American women are the most fashionable in the world. This may be the work of American dollars, but we cannot deny that *in* its cultural tastes America has more than caught up with Europe. During the two world wars, a large number of the European nobility have come to this country. In World War II while bombs were exploding everywhere in Europe, you could pick up European nobility by the handfuls in any big American city, many of them working in factories and stores. The result is that the American's worship of European nobility has disappeared like smoke in the open air, and its social life is no longer the great dream of the wealthy American. America is maturing culturally at a rapid pace.

Chapter Six

PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY AND INDUSTRIALISM

America has achieved epoch-making progress in democracy and economic development, but this does not mean that she has brought about the millennium in her brief history of a century and a half. Each time the country leaps into a new era, she wades into troubled waters. In the frontier days before 1890, whenever a man felt dissatisfied with his job or environment he could pick up his belongings and go out into an empty world to build an independent career. Since the close of the frontier, it is not impossible for an ambitious man, even without money, to establish a small business, but in most cases he will become hired help in a complex and impersonal world. In 1860, four out of five Americans possessed their own land or independent business; today, four out of five live on a salary or wages handed out by others.

THE BIG FELLOW AND THE LITTLE FELLOW

Great changes have also descended upon the organization of America's business. During the three decades following the Civil War, Americans discovered the advantages of large-scale business organizations. This discovery netted many lucky ones huge fortunes. Big organizations suddenly came into fashion, swallowing up small firms or snuffing them out of existence. When Congress passed the Anti-Trust law in 1890, almost the entire oil industry of the country was in the grip of Rockefeller's Standard Oil Company. As many as five thousand sugar factories were merged into the American Sugar Refining Company. By 1900, from fifty to ninety per cent of the commodities used in daily life, such as tobacco, matches, and biscuits, were controlled by huge organizations.

Since the strict enforcement of the Anti-Trust law, big trusts like the Standard Oil Company have been forced to break up into independent competing units. Unfair attempts by large companies to crush small ones or to control the market were strictly forbidden. Nevertheless, the definite trend is toward "big business" with its numerous economic advantages. Its influence instead of decreasing is still growing. Because of the pressure exerted by the Anti-Trust law, we cannot arrive at any accurate estimate in regard to the undercover activities of the big companies.

With the great industrial mergers arose the chain stores. These

utilize centralized scientific management and large-scale buying. They administer from several to several thousand stores, selling goods cheaply, and making it more and more difficult for the independent shops. Everywhere you go in America today, you are bound to find these neat-looking chain stores, showing up the weaknesses of the old-fashioned independent stores around them.

Large-scale business organization has brought about a highly efficient and economical system of management. It has produced cheap automobiles, telephones, clothes, and numerous gadgets which make up the high standard of living of the American people. But the chances of success for the small independent enterprise have become narrower and narrower, and the degree of economic freedom for the individual is also shrinking. The outlet for the individual is no longer the unsettled land, but to become hired help in some large complicated organization, like a negligible part in a complex machine. His alternative is to take up a small independent business, the disadvantages of which are growing with time. Men of superior ability can, of course, rise readily even in gigantic complicated organizations. In fact, many high executives in big business today worked their way up from laborers or other lowly positions. Most big railway men work their way up instead of being born into their high positions.

The question is how the average man can maintain his freedom in these large complicated business machines and secure a position commensurate with his ability. How can the modern efficiency of a large business organization be maintained without turning the average worker into a mere cog in the wheel, thus curtailing his opportunity for full development? With the close of the frontier, America left behind a world where the predominant struggle was between man and nature, and entered a world where the struggle is between man and man. How can freedom and opportunity for the average man still be maintained in accordance with the country's democratic tradition? These are some of the questions America has taken on together with her brand-new industrial civilization.

ENJOYING THE FRUITS OF INDUSTRIAL CIVILIZATION

Before the outbreak of the second World War, President Roosevelt declared that one-third of the nation is ill-fed, ill-housed, and ill-clad. Those who see only America's luxurious stores, beautiful streets, and smooth hard-surfaced highways may not realize the truth of the President's words. But if we were to lose our way in a poor section of a big city or among the workers' homes near a factory, we should see an entirely different picture. There we should find row upon row of dilapidated buildings, numerous dirty ragged children playing in narrow streets. If we ask one of these children where he lives, he may point to a windowpane thickly coated with smoke and dust. Curiosity might lead us into one of these houses where we would

sec dimly lighted corners and squeaky floors, with many families living on each floor. If we enter one of the homes, we may see several rooms with beds, chairs, a table or two, a chest, a coal stove, a sink and wash basin, and clothes scattered on the beds and floor. Some of these rooms may have eight or ten or even more persons living in them. Some contain four or five beds, and frequently three or four children sleep in one bed. The toilet is often an outdoor privy.

This is the other side of America's world of luxury, totally different from her middle class homes. These include a patch of lawn and flowers, a dining room, living room, bedrooms, and toilet cleaner than a Chinese eating table. They are equipped with electric lights, a telephone, vacuum cleaner, washing machine, and an untold number of the gadgets of modern living.

The above dark picture may not represent the situation of the entire working class, still there are large numbers of people huddled under the dark shadow of America's modern materialistic civilization. In New York—a city outwardly sophisticated, intoxicated with songs, dances, pretty dresses, and perfume—one quarter of the inhabitants live in "old-law" tenements. In 1937, Philadelphia and St. Louis each had 10,000 outdoor privies. In the same year, Minneapolis had 8,000 houses absolutely devoid of any water system, even hand pumps. It is worse in the rural districts, of course. In the era of electricity we still find fanners everywhere using the good old kerosene lamp.

The *New York Times* reported on November 14, 1935, that there were 135,000 undernourished children in New York City. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection reported in 1930 that there were no less than 6,000,000 undernourished children in the country. In 1937 a rural school teacher introduced me to two contrasting American families. In the home of the first, where I had dinner, I saw hardly any meat under the dim kerosene lamp; I had only vegetables and bread. The next day we visited a middle class farm where we had lunch. My mouth watered when I saw a big platter of roast beef being placed on the table. I have always been grateful to that teacher for showing me the two sides of the story of America's machine civilization.

How many poor people are there in rich and luxurious America? There is no accurate answer to this question, but let us look at the statistics for 1929, the peak year of America's prosperity. Figures for that year, indicating family incomes, are as follows:

Number of families	Annual income
5,899,000	\$1,000 or less
10,225,000	\$1,000-\$2,000
5,192,000	\$2,000-\$3,000
3,672,000	\$3,000-\$5,000
2,256,000	More than \$5,000

At that time the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics disclosed that the adequate annual income to maintain a healthy family was \$1,900 in New York, \$2,100 in Chicago, and \$2,300 in San Francisco. According to these figures, there were between six and ten million families with an inadequate income at that time. Thus, large numbers of Americans are still unable to enjoy the fruits of scientific and industrial civilization. How economic progress can be brought to the masses is a problem that has come to America together with her rapid advancement.

THE QUESTION OF SECURITY

The above figures represent a year of peak prosperity. In years of depression, the number facing financial difficulties is much larger, and in the American economic system, depressions come to call with the regularity of malaria. They came in 1837, 1859, 1873, 1893, 1913, 1929—one depression every twenty years with almost uncanny accuracy. When the United States was still an agricultural country, most of the people would suffer economic losses and a reduced standard of living but not actual starvation during these years of depression. But in industrial America the majority depends upon business jobs for its bread, and when a depression causes business collapse and a reduction of workers and wages, it brings far greater hardship, even danger, to the people. In a country where banking is well developed, as in America, a man may labor and save throughout his life only to find all his savings evaporated with the closing of his bank. A careful and *thrifty* man may find himself innocently dragged into hunger and poverty by a depression. Such economic insecurity is another great problem in America's rapid progress. Recently, however, the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation has assumed responsibility for protecting depositors, thus offering an effective remedy.

One of these depression monsters in a complex, impersonal, industrial community entails many fatal experiences. The great depression that began in 1929 scattered tragedies across the entire country. There were sixteen million unemployed, and eleven million working but one to three days a week. The unemployed included twenty thousand school teachers. Countless idle workers, small business men and even professors were reduced to selling apples on the street. Parents, unable to feed their children, were forced to leave them to orphanages; husbands and wives were parted, each going back to live with his parents; men, women, and children were evicted from their homes because they could not pay rent. Shanty towns lined railway tracks and even public parks. Hungry guests called on garbage cans in the alleys, and respectable people were driven by hunger to seek help from public welfare agencies, not daring to greet an acquaintance on the street. Yet in this great tragedy we find the burning of potatoes and wheat in order to maintain price levels. This is what *we call poverty* in a him-

dance, man-made famine. We use the word famine only metaphorically because the large-scale relief measures of the central government were very effective in the depression, and extremely few people actually died of starvation. Nevertheless, we can see from this picture that the masses in America still lack economic security.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Economic insecurity stems not only from the regular visitation of depressions but also from the phenomenon of normal unemployment. Except in wartime, when there is always a shortage of labor, we find more than a million unemployed even in times of prosperity. The ranks of the unemployed naturally swell in years of depression. In 1935 there were 3,833 applicants for every hundred office jobs in New York.

In the rapid current of modern economy, numerous business organizations fail every year or are combined with others into larger units, with the result that many people are thrown out of work. Another cause of unemployment is technological. Whenever a new machine is installed *it* takes the place of many human hands. A man who finds himself replaced by a machine or because of a new business set-up may learn a new skill or look for another job if he is young, but if he is old his chances of a come-back are very limited. If he has accumulated some savings, he can live meagerly on them or start a small business, but if his savings are limited and he has the burden of a large family, he will have to look for a job against numerous odds. Many modern efficient business establishments have fixed policies not to hire workers above the age of fifty or even forty. If an older man is hired he is frequently put in an unimportant job, not utilizing his lifetime skill. Socially speaking, this is a waste of man power and hard-earned skills; speaking from the standpoint of the individual, it is the tragedy of old age. In a scientifically and technologically advanced society, one who has devoted his whole life to conscientious work should have the right to enjoy a happy old age. But in the highly competitive economic current of America, both unemployment and underprivilege of old age are serious problems.

Technological unemployment, however, is relative rather than absolute. A new technological invention may throw some out of work but it also creates new industries for a large number of new workers. If we visit a modern steel plant in Pittsburgh, we see a few lonely workers in a huge building, manipulating machinery and pouring tons of molten steel into molds. We cannot help recalling that this work was formerly done by tens or even hundreds of workers, and we unconsciously think of this as technological unemployment. But when we visit the laboratories of the same plant, we find hundreds of scientists and technologists doing research work. This is technological employment because when one of these experiments achieves success,

tens of thousands of workers will be employed in some new industry of its creation. Thus, when the telephone was first used it replaced several thousand messenger boys but the telephone industry now employs more than 400,000 workers. New opportunities created by technology show the other side of technological unemployment. The solution of America's technological unemployment is naturally not the halting of its progress but the orderly distribution and transfer of man power.

CAPACITY PRODUCTION AND FREEDOM FROM WANT

It seems inevitable in human society that part of the people shall find themselves poor or unemployed. This may be true in a society of backward economy because the production of goods is limited by slow handicraft processes and the number of consumers is large. But since the development of machine production, the most crucial problem is no longer poverty caused by the scarcity of goods but the distribution of surplus commodities. When it is no longer a question of insufficient production but one of overproduction, the abolition of poverty becomes a real possibility. To a country of backward economy, President Roosevelt's "Freedom from want" seems like a fairy talc, but in America where production technology has resulted in such great progress, it is a real possibility. ,

According to the book entitled *America's Capacity to Produce*, published by the Brookings Institution, production in the United States from 1925 to 1929 was at least twenty per cent below the maximum practical limit. Adequate utilization of the means of production in that year ought to have brought to the American people the fruits of scientific civilization. In other words, if the production equipment had been utilized to the full practical limits, twenty per cent more goods could have been produced. Translating this into dollars, America could have produced an additional fifteen billion dollars worth of goods. If these additional goods were distributed among all the families having an annual income less than \$2,000 in 1929, it would bring their income up to that level. In other words, America could, theoretically, wipe out poverty merely by using her surplus production power. The Civil Works Administration in its *National Survey of Potential Product Capacity* in 1935 published a Chart of Plenty which stated that *H* America's raw materials, equipment, and man power were fully utilized they could produce goods that would require an average annual income of \$4,370 for every American family to consume. Naturally these figures are hypothetical since the differences in people's abilities and efforts will not permit of an even distribution of goods to all families. Nevertheless we can see that America has potential ability to banish want and hunger. We can also see that a nation cannot solve all the problems of its people's happiness merely by adopting modern technology and efficiency.

POLITICAL DEMOCRACY

Democracy in America has indeed progressed with time. Since the establishment of the Republic, the poor people have consistently expressed their will through its constitutional government. They forced the Bill of Rights into the Constitution; they sent champions of the common folk like Thomas Jefferson, Andrew Jackson, and Abraham Lincoln to the White House; they changed the system of indirect election of the President and senators into one of direct election by the people. The method of elections has become increasingly fair since 1888. The Civil Service law passed in 1883 greatly reduced the evils of the party spoils system. In general, the rights of man have been closely observed, except in the case of the Negro. All this does not mean that American democracy has reached perfection. Poll taxes in the South still prevent Negroes from voting. No federal law has yet been passed to prevent lynching. A considerable number of citizens of voting age still do not go to the polls. Since the rise of big cities, political bosses and political machines cause corruption in many localities. Control of the press by "big money" has to a certain extent impaired the people's freedom of speech. These are a few defects in America's democracy which even a layman can spot.

EFFORTS TO FIND A REMEDY

Not only the foreign observer can detect some of America's economic, social, and political perplexities, but Americans themselves are becoming aware of them. The people and government are constantly discussing them and attempting to find a solution. Since the 1880's there has been a distinct trend by both the people and the government toward emphasis upon social and economic problems. Furthermore, the crash in 1929 produced important legislation during Roosevelt's administration.

In the past half century there have been many attempts to solve these problems: The Anti-Trust law aims at limiting the excessive aggression by big capital and protecting the free development of smaller enterprises. The progressive rates of the income tax are an attempt to make a fair distribution of the public burden on people of varying incomes, thus \$400 is taken out of an annual net income of \$2,000, while \$800,000 is taken from an income of \$1,000,000. Insurance on*^savings banks' deposits protects one from losing his lifetime savings. The government has limited activities on the stock market in an attempt to mitigate the evils of gambling in stock, which time and again has shaken the nation's economic structure to its foundation. Work and emergency relief tided over the worst period in the depression years for millions of people. Social legislation passed since 1935 includes: unemployment insurance; old age pensions; federal aid for orphans, expectant mothers, families overburdened with a large number of de-

pendants, disabled children, and the poverty stricken. The federal crop insurance protects farmers from serious loss in bad years, while other farm legislation gives farmers the benefit of loan and various aids. Federal housing acts enable people to build adequate homes with government guaranteed loans; local government housing projects furnish the low-income groups with large-scale housing facilities. Time and again Congress has debated legislation on the poll tax and lynching questions. All these are but a few of the many public and private efforts to improve the people's social and industrial welfare.

It would take volumes to list all the social legislation by the United States government. Whether this legislation can attack the root of the evils mentioned above is debatable but it is a fact that many Americans have benefited from these public measures. Among the many postwar plans of this country is one to guarantee the people's security from the cradle to the grave. Such proposals show that the Americans are aware of their defects and are attempting to remedy them. But America's greatest contributions are freedom of speech and democratic constitutional government. Under the system of free speech, leaders and people alike are free to discuss openly any problem, examine openly any defect, and propose openly any plan of remedy or reformation. From the great diversity of opinions expressed in the press, one feels that Americans will not let any illness grow in the dark until it becomes an incurable disease. At the same time, under the system of constitutional government, the majority can always express its decisions regarding its own welfare at the polls. With the progressive lifting of educational standards, the people understand better where their own benefit and interest lie, and the continuing advancement of America's education is an evident trend.

These factors, together with America's progress in science and technology, and her immense productive capacity, with the confidence, energy, frankness, speed, and practical nature of her people—all make one feel that America is a country full of hope and deserving our attention. That America tops the world in prosperity and progress is too glittering a fact to need emphasis. Therefore, we have to point out rather the shadow behind the bright light. It takes hundreds of years for a civilization to mature, for a historical age to arrive at a state of balance. The history of machine civilization is still short; modern machines and the energy they generate are still new; man has not yet worked out an adequate social organization to utilize them wisely. Such an adequate social organization will not appear abruptly, for its complexity has never been experienced by man in the past. America is still young. Her defects, like measles in a rapidly growing child, will not be fatal to her final growth and development.

Chapter Seven

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

SHORT HISTORY

America's higher education is almost as new as her factories and cities, and its development as dramatically rapid as her machine civilization. During the 140 years between 1636 (shortly after the establishment of the Bay Colony) and 1776, only nine colleges were founded. From 1776 until the Civil War in 1861, the number increased to 173- By 1940 the number of colleges and universities had reached the high mark of 1,700. When Harvard was founded in 1636, and Yale in 1701, they were hardly comparable to the present-day preparatory school. Before the Civil War, almost all the colleges and universities were established and maintained by religious organizations so there was very intense religious color in their courses and school life. It was not until the latter half of the nineteenth century that college education began to be liberalized; religious instruction was reduced; limited selective systems were introduced, and courses added in foreign languages, science, the professions and other specialized branches. After 1862 when the government began to make land grants to the states to establish universities, American higher education commenced to detach *itself* rapidly from religious influences and to develop the scientific aspects.

Even in 1865 American higher education naturally did not compare with that of the present day. According to Professor Allan Nevins, Harvard was still a small college struggling in poverty, with no clear system of teaching or research. Its courses, except in science, were not so advanced as the present-day high school. Yale was even poorer. Its courses were backward; the salary of a Yale professor was less than that of a young minister; the library fund was used up before it was received. Most colleges did not teach foreign languages; courses in science were few, and experiments were performed in the classroom by the professor, giving the students no opportunity to do their own experiments. The main courses were classics, mathematics, ethics, and rhetoric. A professor frequently taught four or five different subjects.

Such was America's higher education in 1865- Not until the last decade of the nineteenth century was rapid progress made in the courses of study and student life generally of the colleges. When the curtain was raised on the twentieth century, **that** progress had **been**

greatly accelerated. This trend kept pace roughly with the increase of college students. Statistics show the following enrollments:

Year	Number of college students
1891	74,000
1901	129,000
1911	198,000
1921	437,000
1931	989,000
1940	1,500,000

The graduate school is a comparatively recent development in American education. Harvard began to organize its graduate school in 1872—more than two hundred years after its establishment. Johns Hopkins was the first university to have a graduate school when it was first founded. At the close of the nineteenth century when William Rainey Harper took over the presidency of the University of Chicago, he declared that his policy in administering the University would be "searching for knowledge first and teaching knowledge second."* This period marks the beginning of the rapid development of the graduate school in American institutions of higher learning. The following figures indicate its development: the total number of masters' degrees conferred in 1890 was 70; in 1910 it was 2,440; in 1930, 18,243; in 1938, 22,631. The number of doctors' degrees conferred in 1876 was 44; in 1890, 164; in 1910, 409; in 1929, 1,912.

In American graduate schools today we find not only a tremendous increase in the number of students, but also a large number of world-famed masters of learning. The graduate school is comparable to any European institution in buildings and modern equipment, in the beauty of its campus, in academic standards and research achievements, and in its contributions to society in general. Laboratories and classrooms of the university have become the fountain of industrial and cultural progress of twentieth-century America. „The standard of practical science in American universities has topped the whole world. Even in the less practical subjects, such as astronomy, the United States is ahead of any other country. This is the achievement of American higher education within the brief span of half a century.

VARIETY IN SYSTEMS OF HIGHER LEARNING

The main categories of institutions of higher education in the United States are the university, the college, and the junior college. In spite of the theoretical distinction between the college and university, these two terms are often used interchangeably. According to their financial resources, American institutions of higher learning may be classified as state, municipal, private, and denominational. We find the

largest number of state institutions in the central and western part of the country. The municipal government formerly undertook only elementary and secondary education, but it has recently launched into the college field.* The municipal colleges in New York City, for example, have achieved a high reputation in enabling the residents to enjoy free college education without leaving home. Many cities and towns in the West have junior colleges, thus reducing the burden of full college education for the residents. Most private universities and colleges were started by religious bodies, secular control being greatly increased later. Early in the nineteenth century these private institutions were the mainspring of America's college education. Private colleges and universities center mostly on the east coast, the best known being Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and others. Religious bodies, such as the Protestant and Catholic churches, have established a large number of colleges throughout the country.

American universities use the credit or point system, usually requiring 120 credits for the B.A. degree. The average student takes about 15 credits per semester. Many schools charge tuition according to the number of credits taken by the student. The number of points required for the master's or doctor's degrees vary according to schools, departments, and other factors.

Four years of study are usually necessary to secure the bachelor's degree, with at least one additional year for the master's degree. In addition to a certain number of credits in the major courses, some schools or departments require a thesis. The doctor's degree usually requires three years. Besides receiving a definite number of credits, a student has to write a thesis of a creative nature proving his ability to do independent research. Oral and written examinations are also part of the requirement. The former deals only with questions concerning the thesis, but the latter covers all courses related to one's major field, thus taking several days to complete. Preparation for the written examination requires the reading of a large number of books, especially in the field of the social sciences. Therefore students whose English is not up to par or whose reading is slow will encounter great difficulty. In many institutions one can start work for his doctorate immediately after obtaining his bachelor's degree, without first securing a master's degree.

THE SUMMER SCHOOL

One of the interesting features of many prominent universities is their summer school work, usually covering six weeks in July and August. Foreign students arriving early in the summer will do well to register in a summer school of good standing, especially if they do not possess an adequate command of the English language.

* One exception is the College of the City of New York, founded back in 1847.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION*

A list of selected institutions of higher education in various specialized fields appears in the Appendix. Following is a brief description of the nature of each major field of professional education:

AERONAUTICS

A great many universities and colleges in the United States give specialized courses in aeronautics. These courses include aerodynamics; aircraft design, construction, and stress analysis; propeller design; aircraft engine design and operation; air transportation, navigation; meteorology, metallurgy, and other allied subjects. The number of schools giving one or more courses in aeronautics is constantly increasing.

The first three years of a four-year course are usually on general engineering subjects. Specialization in aeronautical engineering subjects does not begin until the senior year.

There is a definite trend toward the division of aeronautics courses into two options, either technical or air transportation. The former touches on strictly engineering phases, such as design and construction, while the latter has more to do with management and operation in air transportation. The curricula of the various schools are constantly undergoing changes.

AGRICULTURE

The typical school or college of agriculture offers to graduates of accredited high schools, or equivalent secondary schools, a four-year course in agriculture leading to the degree of bachelor of science or its equivalent. Most of the colleges of agriculture also offer opportunities for post-graduate work leading to the degree of master of science or master of science in agriculture, and a number offer work leading to the degree of doctor of philosophy.

Institutions for higher education in agriculture exist in all of the states of the United States. As each institution adapts its research and instruction in some measure to the agricultural and climatic conditions peculiar to its region, great diversity of opportunity results. The more highly developed institutions offer work of broad character suited to the fundamental training of students in agricultural science from any part of the world.

Most of the existing agricultural colleges and experiment stations are state-controlled institutions, and they naturally devote special attention to agricultural enterprises of importance in their own part of the country. For instance, the amount of attention given to cotton and sugar would be greater in the southern states than elsewhere,

* The section on Professional Education is taken from the *Handbook for Lot in American Students in the United States* published by the Institute of International Education in 1943.

while wheat and corn production are best studied in the middle western states, and wool production in Wyoming. Hence it is of great importance for a foreign student to select a state college & considers the problems which will be presented in his own native land. ;

For institutions where various courses in agriculture are given, refer to tables on pages 171 and 172 of the Appendix.

ARCHITECTURE

The minimum requirement for entrance to schools of architecture is a high school education. In some cases the preliminary requirement includes a few definitely prescribed subjects. The usual length of a course leading to the degree of B.Arch. (bachelor of architecture) or B.S.Arch. (bachelor of science in architecture) is four years, during which practical work during the vacation periods may be required. However, a course leading to the bachelor of architecture degree in four years from a high school education is not considered by the best schools as sufficient training. At Columbia University, for example, one year of college work is required for admission followed by four years of specialization in architecture; at Harvard graduation from college is required. In combination with schools or colleges of engineering, a number of schools of architecture offer courses in architectural engineering, leading to the degree of B.S. in architectural engineering. Graduate courses leading after one year of study to the M.A. (master of arts), M.Arch. (master of architecture), or M.S. Arch. (master of science in architecture) are offered by many institutions.

ART AND ARCHAEOLOGY

The majority of art courses offered by United States colleges are concerned with the theory, history, and appreciation of art without offering studio work. There are, however, more than 400 art schools in operation throughout the country, and over half of these are independent, either affiliated with museums or privately controlled. Colleges, universities, and teachers colleges require the standard 15 units of secondary work or high school education for admission, but the *independent* art schools have few educational requirements for students who evidence special ability in art. These schools usually offer a certificate or diploma upon completion of training. A list of them is published annually in *the American Art Annual* issued by the American Federation of Arts, Barr Building Washington, D. C. In colleges and universities the usual time required for a degree with a major in art is four years. For the bachelor of fine arts degree (B.F. A.) the usual time is also four years, but in a few institutions five years are required.

Graduate courses in the fine arts and in archaeology have been offered in increasing numbers in recent years until there are now some 10 colleges and universities where students may pursue advanced work in



Chinese Center, Oberlin College

either one of these subjects and, in some cases, in both. The doctorate in fine arts may be secured at Bryn Mawr College, University of California, University of Chicago, Columbia University, Harvard University, Johns Hopkins University, University of Michigan, New York University, University of Pennsylvania, Princeton University, Radcliffe College, and Yale University.

BUSINESS

Collegiate schools of commerce, of business, or of business administration in the United States may be classified in three groups:

First—Schools that require a complete four-year high school education for admission and that *give* a degree in commerce (usually a bachelor of science in business, or a bachelor of commercial science) at the completion of four years. The curriculum combines cultural subjects and technical business training. In this group belong such schools as the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce of the University of Pennsylvania, and the School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance of New York University.

Second—Schools that require for entrance at least two years of collegiate work in cultural subjects which are followed by two years of technical and professional study. Such a curriculum leading to the degree of B.S. in business is offered by such schools as the School of Business of Columbia University and the Amos Tuck School of Administration and Finance of Dartmouth College. Some of the schools in this group also offer, as does the School of Business of Columbia University, graduate courses leading to the degrees of master of science in business and doctor of philosophy.

Third—Graduate schools of business administration that require a complete college course for entrance. Such schools are open only to college graduates and confer a graduate degree (usually a master of business administration or master of commercial science, and the higher degrees of D.C.S. and Ph.D.). The Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration and the Graduate School of Business Administration of New York University are illustrations of schools in this group.

Somewhat different from these three types is the five-year cooperative business course offered by the University of Cincinnati, in which class study and office work are combined.

DENTISTRY

Four types of dental education are available in the United States: a five-year course of five professional years; a five-year course with two pre-professional and three professional years; a five-year course with one pre-professional and four professional years; and a six-year course of two pre-professional and four professional years. All require a four-year high school course for entrance. The better university

schools require two pre-dental years, identical with the pre-medical years.

It is becoming increasingly recognized that dentistry is properly a specialty in medicine, and that dental education is essentially the function of the universities. For this reason only those schools can be recommended which are bona fide parts of well-recognized universities, and which undertake dentistry from the medical point of view. The best schools offer courses in clinical medicine, hospital connections for instruction in diagnosis and therapeutics, and well-equipped laboratories and teaching clinics.

First degrees awarded by dental schools are D.D.S. (doctor of dental surgery), or D.D.M. (doctor of dental medicine). The D.D.S. is the usual degree granted, although a few institutions, notably Harvard and North Pacific College of Oregon, award the equivalent D. D. M. degree. For work done beyond the first degree, graduate degrees are granted—M.S. (master of science), Sc.D. (doctor of science), or Ph.D. (doctor of philosophy).

EDUCATION

The school of education is comparatively new and is distinctly American, whereas the normal school is European in origin. The normal school course for high school graduates covers two or three years. Most states maintain normal schools to train teachers for the elementary and secondary schools.

The general aim of the school of education is to prepare prospective high school teachers, school principals, and superintendents. Some universities have distinct schools of education offering a four-year course leading to a bachelor's degree, while in many institutions the student may major in the Department of Education.

Good schools of education provide opportunities for observation and for the practice of teaching. In the professional part of their curricula they offer instruction in such subjects as history of education, principles of education, methods of teaching, educational psychology, educational sociology, educational administration, and the various aspects of secondary, elementary, and kindergarten education.

Graduate courses in education leading to the degrees of M.A. and Ph.D. are now offered by the graduate departments of many universities, especially by the state universities. Among the foremost specialized schools of education are the School of Education of Teachers College, Columbia University, and the Schools of Education of the University of Chicago, Harvard University, Yale University, University of Pennsylvania, University of Pittsburgh, Stanford University, State University of Iowa, Ohio State University, University of California, the University of Michigan, the University of Minnesota, and the George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tennessee.

ENGINEERING

The school of engineering or applied science offers properly prepared graduates of secondary schools a four-year curriculum leading to the degree of B.S. in architectural, chemical, civil, electrical, mechanical, metallurgical, or mining engineering, or in a subdivision of one of these such as aeronautical, hydraulic, industrial, or sanitary engineering. Degrees containing the title "engineer," such as C.E. (civil engineer), E.E. (electrical engineer), or M. E. (mechanical engineer), are generally given only following advanced work or accomplishment in the professional field. Some of the best schools recommend a curriculum that combines two years of study in the college of arts and sciences and three or four years of engineering subjects.

The first two years of the four-year B.S. curriculum are devoted to the study of mathematics (including differential and integral calculus), physics, chemistry, mechanical drafting, English, modern languages, and a few other subjects. In the first year there is practically no differentiation of the program of study for the several branches of engineering, and in many schools the differentiation in the second year is small. In the third and fourth years the courses of study relate to more technical engineering subjects and are arranged to supply the needs of training in the particular branch of engineering that the student has selected.

Because the program of study in engineering schools is mainly professional, it tends to be more prescribed than elective. It is practical and concrete rather than purely academic, a great part of the work being carried on in laboratories and machine shops belonging to the universities, with supplementary work in the factories or industrial organizations of the vicinity. The so-called cooperative course in engineering, by which a student alternately attends classes for two weeks or more and works in an industry for an equivalent period of time, usually requires more than the normal four years for the attainment of a degree.

All the larger university schools offer graduate courses of high quality in engineering science, leading to the degrees of M.S., Ph.D., Dr.-Eng., or Sc.D. The conditions are practically the same as those prevailing in all university graduate schools.

For institutions where various courses in engineering are given, refer to tables on pages 173 to 177 of the Appendix.

FORESTRY

Scientific training for forestry is a development of the last 40 years in the United States, but since 1898, when Cornell University established the first professional school of forestry, ample training has become available, and many colleges and universities now offer courses leading to a degree in forestry.

After four years of successful college work first degrees in forestry are awarded—B.S. (bachelor of science), B.S. in forestry, or B.S. in agriculture, according to the institution in which the work was taken. Upon-completion of one year of graduate...work master's degrees are awarded—M.F. (master of forestry), M.S. (master of science), or M.S. in forestry. A few institutions offer work leading to the doctor's degree; the Ph.D. (doctor of philosophy) is the usual award except at Harvard, where the D.S. (doctor of science) is granted.

College courses are designed to meet the needs of students who are preparing to enter (1) professional forestry, (2) technical positions related to forestry, (3) agriculture, or (4) teaching. The first two years are generally devoted to academic subjects necessary to the mastery of the technical subjects which are given in the last two years. Technical subjects include general forestry, forest policy, silviculture (methods governing growth), forest protection, forest utilization, forest products, wood technology, forest management, forest engineering, forest mensuration, range management, grazing management, logging and lumbering, dendrology (the classification and identification of forest trees), forest entomology (study of insects) and pathology (study of diseases), and miscellaneous courses, such as forest appraisals, fish and game propagation, forest recreation, landscape engineering, and sawmill construction. Courses are not standardized but vary with different sections of the country.

Practical work in a forest for a period of two to five months is usually required for graduation. Colleges either maintain forest tracts or provide facilities within reasonable distance from the campus for practical work and projects. Woods experience may be obtained at summer camp or in field work during vacations. To specialize in lumbering, additional experience in logging camps and mills is necessary to learn the essentials of the business.

HOMB ECONOMICS

Home economics training, primarily a field for women and formerly known as "domestic economy" or "domestic science," has been extended beyond the teaching of cooking and sewing to include the scientific study of economic and social changes, child care, nutrition, textiles and clothing, and institutional management. More than 300 colleges, universities, teachers colleges, and normal schools offer courses in home economics leading to a degree after four years of study. The most usual degree granted is the bachelor of science in home economics (B.S.H.E.), but many institutions grant simply the bachelor of science degree or the bachelor of arts without qualification. In a few instances advanced work is offered leading to the master of arts or master of science in one year, or the doctor of philosophy in three years after the first degree.

JOURNALISM

Only a few universities include in their organization schools of journalism, most of which are recent additions. The course ordinarily covers four years and is open to graduates of secondary schools. The degree conferred is B.Litt. (bachelor of literature) or B.J. (bachelor of journalism). The first two years of the course are mainly devoted to social sciences and English, planned to familiarize the student with present social and economic conditions and to help him interpret those conditions through the medium of writing; the last two years provide practice in reporting, interviewing, editorial writing, dramatic and literary criticism, feature writing, and the study of international relations. Columbia University maintains one of the best equipped, and the University of Missouri one of the oldest, schools of journalism in the country.

LAW

The standards of legal education vary considerably in the numerous law schools of the country in respect to the admission requirements and length of course. Most law schools require a high school education, and a few even less, for admission; others require from one to three years of college study, and a few admit only those who have a bachelor's degree in arts, letters, or science. In some schools full-time courses are offered during the day, others offer part-time courses, and still others give courses at times when they can be attended by students regularly employed in other occupations. The highest requirement for admission to a law school is the completion of a college course. In the best law schools courses are offered in Roman law, European civil law, jurisprudence, international law, and public law courses in general. The foreign student will be especially interested, in addition to the usual courses, in the method of instruction peculiar to United States law schools known as the "case method." Opportunities are offered in a few schools for advanced study in law leading to the LL.M. (master of laws), the Jur.D. (doctor of jurisprudence), the J.S.D. (doctor of the science of law), and the S.J.D. (doctor of juridical science).

In planning a program of legal studies in the United States, Latin American students should remember that in general the law of the United States is based on English Common Law while that of the other American republics is based on the Napoleonic Code.* Consequently, United States law schools devote most of their attention to the study of legal precedents and statutory foundations which will be of relatively little use to *licenciados* who require training in Roman Law. On the other hand, the study of comparative law and inter-

* Since the Civil Code of Louisiana is based on the Napoleonic Code, the College of Law at Tulane University of Louisiana places chief emphasis in its Bachelor of Laws curriculum upon Roman Law.

national commercial law might profitably be undertaken by Latin American students in the United States.

LIBRARY SCIENCE

At the present time there are approximately 20 library schools in the United States accredited by the American Library Association. Each accredited library school offers a one-year general basal course in library science with the exception of (1) teachers colleges which train for school library service only, and (2) graduate library schools which require college graduation for admission. A special two-year program is offered by the library schools at a number of universities. A college degree with a record of good scholarship and a reading knowledge of French and German is required for admission to most of the accredited library schools. A few require only three college years and include one year of specialization in library science as the fourth year of college. At the end of one year, the B.A., B.S., or B.S. in L.S. degree is awarded. At the end of two years, the M.S., M.A., or M.S. in L.S. degree. The University of Chicago was the first institution to award the Ph.D. degree in library science.

MATHEMATICS

Many of the better-known universities provide through their graduate schools opportunities for study and work leading to the Ph.D. degree in mathematics. Preparation for this work should include differential equations with as many courses beyond this as can be taken without interfering with a broad undergraduate training. It is advisable to supplement mathematical preparation with work in some related field such as physics, engineering, chemistry, economics or philosophy. Since work in a graduate school is not a mere continuation of undergraduate study, the steps leading to the Ph.D. degree cannot be definitely set down, one by one. Emphasis is not placed upon accumulation of credits or courses taken, but upon development of ability to do original mathematical research. However, a period of at least three years of work beyond the bachelor's degree is normally required.

A few of the largest universities are prepared to offer work in many different fields of mathematics, such as algebra, theory of numbers, analysis, geometry, topology, history of mathematics, applied mathematics, mathematical statistics and probability. Most of them do not attempt to maintain strong programs in all of these fields, but concentrate their offerings in a few—a fact which is of importance in selecting a university. In many fields America is pre-eminent, and it is beginning to build up others, including many sectors of the applications to engineering.

MEDICINE

All schools of medicine now require for admission two or more years of college work after the completion of a four-year high or secondary

school course and offer a four-year course leading to the degree of M.D. Not only the school authorities but the state must be satisfied that the pre-medical education of the applicant is up to standard. Upon graduation a physician cannot practice in a state without passing an examination before the licensing board of that state.

United States medical colleges are well equipped with laboratories and have hospital facilities for first-hand observation and practice. Along no other professional line of American education has more rapid and noteworthy progress been made in recent years than in medicine.

Practically all medical students plan to spend a year or two as an interne in a hospital before beginning practice. A number of the more progressive medical schools have in late years added a fifth year to the medical course for this purpose. Advanced study and research in medicine are possible in most of the colleges in this country. A number of universities offer a combination of cultural and medical courses covering six or seven years and leading to the degrees of B.A. (or B.S.) and M.D.

Music

In addition to the independent conservatories and schools of music, three-fourths of the colleges and universities offer courses in music with college credit. Courses include applied music, harmony, history of music, composition, elementary counterpoint, and orchestration. The course leading to a degree of bachelor of music (B.Mus.) covers a period of four years and is analogous to the arts and science course leading to the B.A. degree. At least two years spent in study and practice must elapse before the master's degree may be awarded. Doctor of music is conferred only as an honorary degree for outstanding achievement in the field, although some universities offer the Ph.D. degree in music.

NATURAL SCIENCES

Instruction in the natural sciences, such as astronomy, physics, chemistry, biology, and geology, is carried on in colleges and universities of the United States in (1) the undergraduate college of arts and sciences and (2) in the graduate school. Work in the undergraduate college is at the pre-professional level and forms a part of the four-year liberal arts program. The degree usually awarded is either the B.A. or B.S. The courses in the natural sciences at the undergraduate level provide basic training in science as a foundation for later specialization in graduate or professional schools.

Advanced work in the natural sciences is carried on primarily in the graduate school. For entrance to the graduate school the degree of B.A. or B.S. is required. Graduate instruction is conducted not only in regularly organized courses and seminars, but also by means

of the investigation of special research problems. Laboratory or field work is always an important element in graduate study in the natural sciences. The central feature of all graduate work in the sciences is the independent research which each graduate student carries out, leading to the preparation of a dissertation or thesis. The graduate degrees usually awarded are either the M. A. or M. S. and the Ph. D. (A few universities grant the Sc. D. as a graduate degree, but this is gradually being supplanted by the Ph. D.) Considerable variation prevails among universities of the United States as to whether one or two years of graduate study in science are required for the master's degree. Ordinarily not less than three years of graduate study are required to qualify for the doctor's degree.

All of the leading universities in the United States provide programs of graduate training in the various branches of the natural sciences leading to the master's and doctor's degrees. In addition, many of the smaller colleges, which do not possess graduate schools as such, offer advanced training in certain fields of science to students who wish to qualify for the master's degree only.

In some universities certain professional schools, particularly those of medicine, agriculture, and engineering, offer graduate instruction in the pure sciences in addition to that offered in the graduate school of arts and sciences. For example, a number of medical schools award the Ph. D. degree in such subjects as anatomy, bacteriology, and physiological chemistry. Some of the better agricultural colleges offer instruction at the graduate level in zoological and botanical subjects. Not infrequently a graduate student in one of the natural sciences supplements the major part of his advanced study, taken in the graduate school of arts and sciences, with a certain amount of work in a professional school.

NURSING

The demand for nurses trained in approved schools has developed rapidly. A list of schools of nursing meeting minimum requirements set by law in the various states is prepared periodically by the National League of Nursing Education, 1790 Broadway, New York City. The complete course of training in the majority of schools is 36 months in length. In conjunction with colleges and universities, many schools of nursing now offer combination courses covering a period of five years and leading to a bachelor of science degree. Other institutions accept graduate nurses as candidates for the B. S. degree upon the completion of two or three years of academic work. A diploma in nursing is awarded with the degree.

PHARMACY

The school of pharmacy requires graduation from a high school or an equivalent education for admission. At the end of a three-

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A High School Class

year course, either the degree of graduate in pharmacy (Ph.G.) or of pharmaceutical chemist (Ph.C.) is conferred. Schools of pharmacy directly connected with universities generally confer the degree of bachelor of science in pharmacy at the end of a four-year course, and a few of them the degree of doctor of pharmacy at the end of a seven-year course.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Prior to the year 1915, major courses in physical education were offered in only a few colleges and private schools. Since that time, three-fourths of the states have passed laws requiring that physical education be taught in the public schools of their states. As a result of this requirement, the State Colleges established major departments of physical education. At the present time about 150 colleges and universities offer a four-year major course in physical education leading to a degree of bachelor of science in the department of education. An equal number of institutions offer a two-year course or special elective subjects for teachers of physical education. Regular college entrance requirements are the standard for admission. The following schools offer work leading to higher degrees in physical education: University of Southern California, State University of Iowa, Wellesley College, University of Oregon, New York University, University of Wisconsin, and Teachers College of Columbia University.

PUBLIC AFFAIRS

A significant recent development in higher education in the United States is the special attention being given to train men and women for public life. This broad field of instruction prepares students not only for careers in politics, government administration, and diplomacy, but also in business and professions intimately associated with the public interest, such as banking, public utilities, transportation, international trade, journalism, and law.

Within the last ten years departments of government, political science, economics, and international relations in many American universities—as at Yale and the University of Chicago—have tended increasingly toward the establishment of special courses and advisory facilities to encourage able students to prepare for government service. Most notable, however, are the separate schools of public affairs which are devoted to this objective, such as the Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University, the Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, the Graduate School of Public Administration at Harvard, and the School of Public and International Affairs at Princeton.

Some of the leading institutions have set up procedures through which students can combine their theoretical studies with a period of employment in municipal, state, or federal government agencies for

practical training; and in some instances government offices have arranged leaves of absence to enable promising members of their staffs to attend schools of public affairs and supplement their practical experience with additional theoretical knowledge. Work in one of the new special schools usually leads to one or more of the degrees—M.A., M.P.A. (master in*public administration), Ph.D., D.P.A. (doctor of public administration), and D.C.S. (doctor of commercial science).

PUBLIC HEALTH

All Class A medical schools offer courses in public health, but with little uniformity of teaching. The formation of a separate department of public health is of comparatively recent origin. It is only within the present century that there has developed an appreciation of the importance of preventing disease and of establishing courses dealing directly with the principles of prevention. Public health has been developed along two somewhat different lines. At Harvard and Johns Hopkins, for example, separate and independent schools of public health have been established, parallel to the schools of law and medicine. The second plan of public health education involves the development of teaching and research by means of a departmental nucleus integrated with other departments of medical and graduate schools. The Department of Public Health at Yale University, for example, has two objectives: (1) the development of public health as an integral factor in the training of the physician, and (2) the preparation of the specialists for the actual conduct of the public health campaign. At Vanderbilt University, although no degree is offered in the subject, the student is given a real insight into what preventive medicine implies as well as demonstration of the practical application of public health techniques.

THEOLOGY

There are now over 200 institutions in the United States which *give* instruction in theology. Some few institutions are the theological faculties of universities; more are independent, located in the immediate neighborhood of a university, or in quiet country towns.

The better schools of theology require, for entrance, graduation from a college of recognized standing (B.A., B.S., Ph.B., B.Litt., or the equivalent), although this requirement is sometimes waived in the case of foreign students. At the end of three or four years' study in a theological school, those who have fulfilled all the requirements usually receive the degree of B.D. (bachelor of divinity) or S.T.B. (bachelor of sacred theology). For post-graduate work some seminaries offer the S.T.M. (master of sacred theology), the Th.D. (doctor of theology), and if connected with a university, the M.A.

Certain schools of theology are under denominational control. This is the case in all Roman Catholic institutions, (such as the Catholic University of America at Washington); it is also the case in most Presbyterian institutions (such as Princeton Theological Seminary and Presbytcmm Theological Seminary of Chicago), Methodist institutions (such as Drew Theological Seminary), and Lutheran institutions (such as the Lutheran Theological Seminary at Mount Airy in Philadelphia). Some schools, though not under formal denominational control, are bound by creeds to teach certain theological positions, such as the Hartford Theological Seminary and the Andover Newton Theological Seminary. Some seminaries form integral parts of universities; this is the case with the Yale Divinity School, the Harvard Divinity School and the Divinity School of the University of Chicago. Certain seminaries, such as the Union Theological Seminary in New York City, do not require their professors to subscribe to any creed.

The tendency in the larger institutions with their numerous professors is to let the elective system, with group restrictions, prevail, and to offer instruction more specialized than can ordinarily be found in Europe. In addition to biblical studies, emphasis is laid on theology, practical theology, religious education, social ethics, the psychology of religion, and the preparation of university men for home and foreign missions. Most leading United States seminaries, such as Union, admit women students on the same basis as men.

VETERINARY MEDICINE

In addition to a number of privately supported schools of veterinary medicine, there are veterinary colleges in the United States connected with many state universities or colleges. While courses in veterinary medicine are not standardized, there are certain courses which all veterinary colleges offer in order that their graduates may be qualified to enter civil service examinations for positions of veterinary inspector in the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Animal Industry, and other similar posts. The degree D.V.M. (doctor of veterinary medicine) is awarded as a first degree upon satisfactory completion of a four-year course of study in an approved veterinary college.

Chapter Eight

PREPARATION FOR DEPARTURE

KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH

In order to secure a higher education in the United States, one must have a fair ability to read and speak English. If a student's English is inadequate, he should take special courses and spend the maximum amount of time in reading English books and periodicals during the year before his departure for America. When one has to thumb the dictionary constantly in order to struggle through one page of English reading matter, he will have difficulty keeping up with class work and will be unable to take part in extra-curricular activities.

In order to carry on academic work smoothly in an American college, a student should be able to read a page of general material in from one to three minutes, glancing over the page to select important portions for further study. The ability to read rapidly comes only with practice. There are several good books on the development of speed in reading. If one's English is good, it is not difficult to acquire the ability to read rapidly. Some institutions offer a course in Remedial Reading which greatly increases a student's reading ability in the brief period of one semester. It is important to take such a course if one's reading speed is too slow. We must remember that we have to compete with American students on an equal footing.

Equally important is the ability to speak English. A foreign student will not be excused if he cannot answer questions in class discussions because of deficient English. This deficiency will also result in isolation from American life and loss of opportunity to observe the culture and institutions of the country. Some colleges and universities give special courses in English for foreigners. One way to improve one's spoken English is to attend the same American movie several times. The situations and actions on the screen will help one to understand what is being said by the actors, and if he does not understand some of the dialogues the first time, he can frequently do so the second or third time. One German student learned English chiefly by this means.

ADMISSION TO AN AMERICAN COLLEGE

After selecting a school, a foreign student should apply for admission eight, or ten months before he plans to leave his own country. Considerable time must be allowed for the institution to reply after receiving the application. This will take longer if the application

arrives at the school during the holidays or vacation. Moreover, time should be allowed to apply to a second institution in case the application is not accepted for some reason by the first. Even after receiving the certificates of admission from the school, another month or two may be required for the necessary formalities such as securing a passport and visa. If, at the last minute, it is necessary to cable the college and one wishes a reply by cable, he must send the money to cover the return message. So, in order to avoid any last minute jam, a student should allow plenty of time for unforeseen delays.

The first step in applying for admission is to secure an application blank. This may be done directly from the college or from the United States embassy or consulate. The following documents will have to be submitted to the college: 1) Application blank, properly filled out; 2) a photograph to be affixed to the blank; 3) transcripts of courses and grades; 4) health certificate; 5) statement testifying to knowledge of English. One way to save time is, of course, to wire for an application blank. A notice from the admissions office usually comes with the blanks, stating exactly the documents and steps required for admission. If the documents submitted satisfy the admissions office, three certificates of admission will be sent- one to be retained by the consul to whom the student applies for a visa, one to be attached to the visa, and one to be retained by the student for identification.

OBTAINING PASSPORT AND VISA

After meeting the requirements of the student's own government for studying abroad and securing certificates of admission from a school recognized by the United States Immigration authorities, the student should apply to the nearest-American consulate for a non-quota student visa (type 4/E) to enter the United States. Documents required for obtaining such a visa are: 1) Two of the above-mentioned certificates of admission from the school; 2) a statement as to the course of study to be pursued; 3) credentials of scholastic attainment; 4) statement showing that the student's sole purpose in coming to the United States is to continue his education and that he expects to leave this country upon the completion of his studies; 5) evidence that he has made adequate financial arrangements for his period of study in the United States; and 6) a passport issued by the government.

CLOTHING

Men students from Oriental countries will find it advisable to bring with them only sufficient western clothing for use on the journey, and to buy the rest in the United States. As the climate varies greatly in different parts of the country, a student who plans to purchase his clothes before leaving should consult the college catalogue as to the local climate. „A warm vercoat is *necessary* except in California and a few southern states. Since American houses are well heated, clothes

for indoors do not have to be very warm. One should, however, have a bath robe for use between one's room and the bathroom since it is not customary to walk around the house in underwear. "Formals" are not necessary in ordinary college life; a dark suit will suffice for most occasions. On some formal occasions, Chinese men students will find that their long dark silk gown is frequently welcomed by exotic-loving Americans.

Bedding is usually provided in college dormitories and boarding houses. Occasionally one has to supply one's own sheets, pillow cases, and towels, but these can be bought in the United States when needed. A blanket of one's own is sometimes good to take along for cold nights. American hotels are completely equipped with bedding and linen.

PREPARATION FOR LIFE IN AMERICA

In the year before coming to the United States, it is extremely useful to read up on the history and culture of this country and to try to get some idea about the attitudes and background of its people. This will give us leads in our conversation with Americans and will help us in observing and interpreting American life. The short list of books in the Appendix suggests valuable reading material for shipboard.

If time permits, a student may write to the office of the registrar, foreign student counsellor, or the student government of the school he has selected, to get the name of an American student with whom he can correspond. In this way he will be able to learn many things about college life and get valuable assistance after his arrival. Sometimes arrangements are made through such correspondence to secure a roommate, or accommodations in a dormitory or boarding house.

Before leaving, a foreign student may prepare some small gifts characteristic of his country, to give to American friends. Inexpensive articles, typical of the student's native country, will be deeply appreciated. These gifts, however, are not necessary. More important is the preparation of mental gifts in the form of interesting materials on the culture, life, art, and games of your homeland, which will be in great demand. It is perhaps not out of place here to remind some readers that before leaving for the United States it is important to review one's knowledge of his own country—its history, culture, and present-day problems. This is necessary in evaluating the needs of your country and to enable you to carry on intelligent conversations and discussions with American friends.

Finally there is the question, when to leave for America? The trip should be planned so you will land in the United States at least three weeks before the opening of college. If you arrive early you will have a better chance to look for a room and get acquainted with your surroundings. Moreover, it will enable you to stop over to visit places of interest en route to your college, without additional cost for transportation.

Chapter Nine

SELECTION OF A SCHOOL

PROBLEMS IN CHOOSING A SCHOOL

When a student first considers studying in the United States, he should start working on the problem of selecting a school, without waiting for other plans to be completed. This should be done a year or even two before his departure. In the past, many foreign students decided to attend a certain institution because they had heard its prestige was high or that it had a large number of students of their own nationality, with the result that many unfortunate situations arose. The first step in deciding upon a school is to select a few institutions of high academic standing in one's own field and then write for catalogues for purposes of comparison.

Every American college or university publishes a detailed catalogue giving its history, organization, surroundings, faculty, courses in various departments and colleges, tuition fees, living expenses, scholarships and fellowships with their requirements, procedure for admission, information regarding student life, and other items of interest. Many institutions also issue special pamphlets on their school life in general or special activities. These catalogues and pamphlets are free upon request. Securing such publications from various institutions not only helps in choosing a proper school but in deciding questions of finances and other problems.

There are [^]1,700 institutions of higher learning in the United States. To which shall one write for catalogues and what are their addresses? The Appendix contains a list of accredited institutions of higher education in this country, showing the fields in which they are accredited. The American embassies and consulates abroad also keep files of accredited colleges and universities in the United States. A student may write to them for the names and addresses of a few of the best institutions in his field of study. There are several agencies in this country which will furnish this information; for example, the Division of Cultural Cooperation of the Department of State, the Institute of International Education, and the China Institute in America. The United States Office of Education publishes annually a list of accredited colleges in various fields, listing their names and addresses. The American Council on Education publishes a volume *entitled American Universities and Colleges*, giving similar information. This material can be easily found in libraries.

EXCESSIVE CONCENTRATION OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

Foreign students sometimes select a school simply because many friends from their country are studying there. This has resulted in the excessive concentration of students of one nationality—sometimes as many as several hundred—in large institutions. In such centers, Chinese students, for example, tend to associate primarily with each other and are confined to a very narrow sphere of life and activities, entirely isolated from the American environment. On the other hand, there are many schools of high academic standing eager to welcome foreign students, which find themselves without a single foreign student. This fact should be considered when one first starts to select a school.

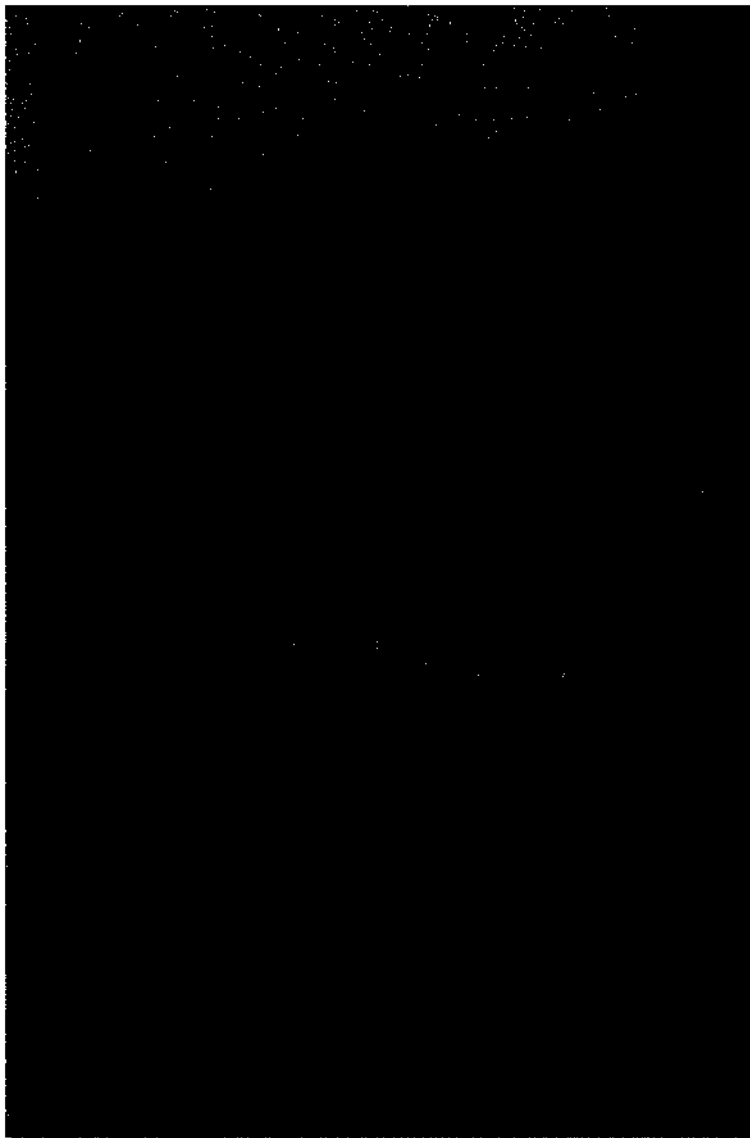
The excessive concentration of Chinese students or those of any other nationality has many disadvantages. Foremost among these is the greatly reduced opportunity to learn English. Many foreigners who have studied in the United States for years cannot speak or read English fluently, chiefly because of lack of contact with Americans. One usually follows the line of least resistance and it is naturally more comfortable and easy to speak one's native tongue, to eat one's native food and move in an atmosphere of one's own culture and customs than to speak English and live in a strange and foreign atmosphere. The most effective way of learning English is naturally to mix with Americans and *live* in an American environment.

Some of the disadvantages of inability to use English easily have been discussed in a previous chapter. In addition to these, if a student's English is poor he will frequently hesitate to visit his professors, and lack of contact with one's professors is a serious loss in a sojourn in the United States.

There are even more indirect disadvantages resulting from a poor knowledge of English and lack of contact with the American environment. For instance, the activities and work of professional organizations have contributed a great deal to America's progress. Contacts with these organizations in the student's field is extremely important in his own work, in understanding America's progress in science and technology, and in developing relations between foreign and American scientific and technological organizations. But if our English is poor and if we associate exclusively with others of our own nationality, without mixing with Americans, we shall be unable to enjoy these contacts.

America a land where practical science is most highly developed, it would result in a great loss or even failure if one who has an opportunity to study in this country confines himself entirely to books, without observing the use of science and technology in everyday life, and their coordination in various fields, and without investigating the complicated problems arising from the application of science and technology to practical life.

PORTS OF ENTRY

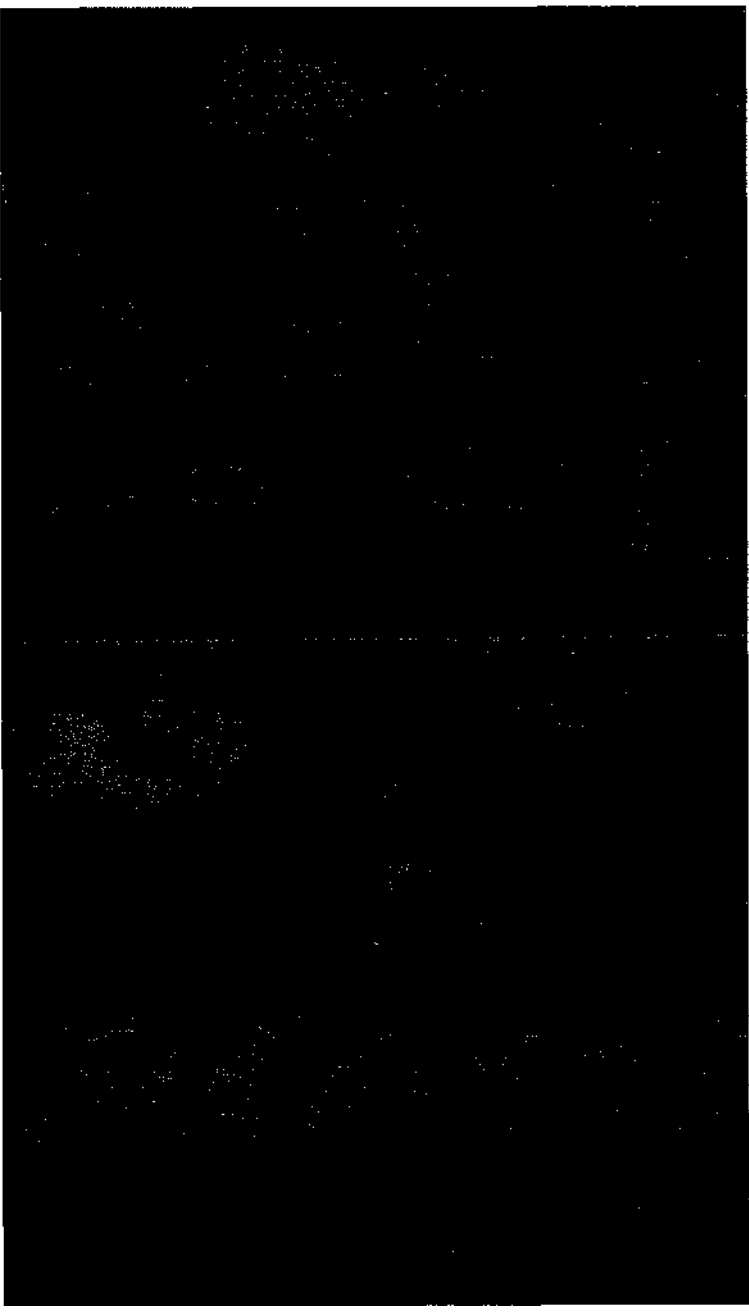


Above—New york

To right:

At Top—*San Francisco*

Mow—Miami



Another duty of a foreign student studying in this country is to attempt to understand the patterns of America's modern life—her social, economic and political systems, and her general cultural background.. Such understanding is the foundation of international friendship. J t o t J U ^

self, he will not be able to get such an understanding pf American life and background. Furthermore, he will lose the opportunity of informing Americans about his own culture, and of discussing with them the conditions and problems existing in his country.

The concentration of large numbers of foreign students in any one center will have the unfortunate effect of intensifying national prejudice against them. Americans arc usually glad to welcome eight or ten foreigners in a community and to have friendly relations with them, but once the number of foreigners increases to any great extent and they form a clique or group by themselves, animosity is aroused on the part of the Americans. Moreover, in any such crowd there arc bound jg be some black sheep. Americans, not familiar with foreigners, might think these bad elements typical of the particular nationality to which they belong and all students of this group might thus suffer from prejudice.

Therefore, in selecting a school, a foreign student should take into consideration the number of nationals of his country already studying there. A young Chinese official in the United States recently said to me, "If I were given a chance to study in America all over again, I would certainly select a small school with very few Chinese. I would study there for a year or two, thoroughly participate in American life, and try to understand things American. Then, if necessary, I would finish my degree in a larger school or do advanced work under a famous teacher there." The same holds true for any nationality.

The opportunities for study and social life arc much richer in smaller colleges. An institution with an enrollment of several thousand students is complicated in organization; human relationships there arc comparatively impersonal, and life for the individual student is more isolated. This is true even for American students, and especially so for foreigners, who have language difficulties and cultural differences. In schools with an enrollment of less than three thousand, you will find many more opportunities for contacts with other students and with teachers. Since foreign students in these smaller institutions are usually few, they are more or less forced to have closer relations with Americans. If there arc a great many Chinese or students of other nationalities in one locality, they become commonplace objects, but if there are only one or a very few, they become precious, receive courteous treatment, and national prejudice dwindles almost to zero, Under Under such circumstances, a foreign student can easily become a prominent figure on the campus. Moreover, he will receive invitations from students and teachers to participate in activities of all kinds in the life

of the college. In a large institution having many foreign students, even *if* the Americans would like to extend invitations to them, they cannot do so to all. In a smaller place foreign students become better acquainted with the teachers and students, and receive help from many more directions. Even when they are financially stranded, students and teachers will assist them in finding scholarships or means of supporting themselves. In fact, there are many smaller schools with scholarships and financial aids available, for which the competition is not so keen as in larger institutions, but few students from abroad avail themselves of them.

ACADEMIC STANDING

A large institution may have high academic standing in all fields, but it is usually outstanding only in certain departments or colleges. No one institution excels in all academic fields. There is a general feeling among foreigners that the eastern schools are the best in the United States. This prejudice affected the choice of schools by foreign students in the earlier period, and others who came later followed their example. The result has been a great concentration of foreign students in Boston, New York, and other eastern cities.

That the eastern schools were better than those in the central and western states may have been true a few decades ago, but recently schools in other parts of the country have made tremendous progress and now compare favorably with many famous institutions in the East. In some fields, western colleges have even surpassed the East. Colleges of the South have also made rapid advances in their academic standards, and there are now many famous southern institutions. In the past half century, the rise of industries and cities, and the development of modern economy in the West have been accompanied by rapid, cultural advancement, making that region independent of the East in education.

Today eastern institutions still enjoy a very strong academic position, but they also have their weak points, one of which is their emphasis on textbook and theoretical knowledge. On the other hand, schools in other parts of the country, especially in the central and western states, emphasize practical training and research *in* practical problems. They defy conventional practices and perform great educational experiments.

For example, educators have long felt that the ivory tower of the college has shut off students from a realistic life. The first institutions which devised daring steps to face this problem were the western ones. Antioch College and the University of Cincinnati were among the first to combine actual work and college learning, in which a student alternately works and studies. Thus he is at the same time a seeker of knowledge, a producer of goods and services, and a healthy member of

society. This system has aroused great interest among educators in the East and elsewhere.

Another example of the emphasis on practical training in the western institutions is the JJnivexsky of Detroit. In its five-year course in engineering, a student must work in a factory for a definite period of time, in addition to his classroom training, before he can graduate. In the factory the student must compete with workers and engineers to acquire his practical experience. This work frequently brings in sufficient remuneration to cover the expenses of the last three years in college. Many institutions in the central and western states have similar requirements. This system enables the student to combine his college education with practical work and gives him a broad training with which to face complex practical problems. Technological education in the central states is frequently given in cooperation with the local industries. Institutions there are also making rapid advances in scientific research and have made many important discoveries and inventions which eastern institutions can only envy. The laboratories in the central and western colleges have made important contributions to the war effort.

In the field of agriculture, the colleges in the central, western, and southern parts of the country are even more progressive, and their achievements in studying agricultural problems have left many eastern institutions far behind. Outstanding examples of these include: work in irrigation in Utah, Idaho, and Arizona; rice culture in Louisiana; subtropical crops in Texas, Louisiana, New Mexico, and Arizona; animal husbandry in Utah, Montana, and Wyoming; fisheries and forestry in Washington and Oregon; soil erosion and associated problems in the western states. Education and research in these institutions are closely related to the ecological surroundings. In comparison, the textbook education of the eastern institutions is backward.

Institutions of the West and South emphasize practical problems even in the social sciences. The problems arising with the rapid growth of Chicago have resulted in the establishment of strong social science courses at the University of Chicago, which has become well known for its development of factual research methods in that field. In economics, the College of Commerce of the University of Denver has surpassed many great eastern institutions. George Peabody College for Teachers in Nashville, Tennessee, is well known for its work in the social sciences, and there are many strong institutions in that field located outside the East.

Because they are more expensive, the eastern schools have been considered more exclusive. It is true that they have many famous masters of learning, but their professors have more students to take care of and are more formal in their attitude. Thus the students have little opportunity of coming into intimate contact with them and frequently lose the valuable informal teacher-student relationship existing out-

side the East. A student often discusses problems—academic and otherwise—with his professor after class over a glass of beer. Even if the professor is not a great master of learning he may be able, through informal personal contact, to give the student benefits not obtainable in larger institutions.

In the nineteenth century, the West was a world of opportunity. "Go west, young man" was the slogan. Streams of covered wagons poured load after load of energetic people into the western wilderness. The covered wagons have now been sent to the museums, but upon the tracks of those covered wagons has arisen a new world of science and technology, with progressive higher institutions of culture comparing, without apology, with those of the East. But in twentieth-century America, foreign students still follow the beaten path to the East, neglecting the first-rate institutions of the West. Moreover, in the colleges of such western states as Iowa, Colorado, Utah, and Nebraska there is practically no discrimination against foreigners. Many good institutions in the southwestern states, which are extremely friendly to foreign students, are found with very few or even none. Both from the point of view of academic work and having a pleasant time socially, it is undesirable for us to flock to only a few large institutions. The nineteenth-century slogan, "Go west, young man," is as appropriate for foreign students studying in the United States today as for the early pioneers.

The distinguished authority on animal husbandry, Dr. R. W. Philips, after returning from China recently, said in an interview, "It is wrong for all Chinese to crowd into famous eastern schools just for prestige, and to study under well-known instructors. Most Chinese will take a bachelor's or master's degree in a limited field, devoting almost their entire time to books and laboratories. Then the student will pick a very narrow subject in this limited field to complete his Ph.D. degree. When he gets through, he is a highly theoretical man on a narrow technical subject, not knowing how to handle a broad technical problem. The distance between the laboratory and the practical field, between a narrow theoretical subject and a broad practical problem of the field, is very great. In order to handle broad practical problems students should go to the western institutions where broad practical problems are predominant in the curriculum and where students are taught a practical project." Such are the words of a famous teacher who has recently observed China's problems. They apply to other nationalities as well.

In the past, foreign students may have heard only of traditionally famous schools, and the large numbers of graduates of these schools have resulted in a student's prestige being judged by whether or not he is a graduate of one of these. But when other good centers of learning are arising and when the opportunity to come into contact with Americans and the American environment is more abundant in smaller

institutions, the concentration of foreign students of any single nationality in large centers should be carefully avoided. This is definitely a very important point for consideration when selecting a school in the United States.

It is reasonable to wish to study under a famous teacher, and the famous instructors in many highly theoretical subjects are concentrated in the East. However, a student can study in a school in the western or southern states or in a smaller institution in order to obtain fundamental and practical training, to get acquainted with the American environment, and to perfect his English; he can then spend the remaining time to complete his education in a larger center. This may prove to be a sound compromise. Moreover, studying in one institution will give us a more representative picture of the country and its education. This is particularly true in the case of those who have not decided upon a school before starting the journey to the United States.

Chapter Ten

FROM PIER TO CLASSROOM

ARRIVAL IN THE UNITED STATES

Upon arrival, the student will be given a customs declaration sheet by the customs official. If you are bringing with you only personal belongings, just write 'personal effects' on the sheet and that will suffice. Duty must be paid on merchandise brought in. The declaration sheet must be kept as it will be needed when the customs officer examines the baggage. The immigration officer will examine your visa, passport, and certificate of admission to the school, and will ask you some questions. If the documents and your answers satisfy the immigration inspector, he will stamp your passport with the date, indicating the length of your stay in the United States. If your papers are in order, there should be no difficulty and you will be permitted *to land*. The inspector will take your visa and certificate of admission *to the school*.

In the past, Chinese students who entered this country at San Francisco have sometimes encountered difficulty with the immigration authorities because they were suspected of being foreign laborers trying *to enter the United States under the guise of students*. However, very few instances of difficulties have been reported at ports of entry other than San Francisco.

Eight dollars must be paid at the port of entry for the alien head tax. Each person is permitted to carry with him \$50.00 in United States currency; the rest of his money should be in drafts or travelers' checks, which can be purchased from American travel bureaus in the student's homeland.

STOPPING OVER ON THE WAY TO OUR DESTINATION

If your destination is a considerable distance from the port of entry, you should take this opportunity to visit points of interest on the way. You can stop off at any station en route to your destination without additional charge; you need only tell the ticket agent where you wish to stop over, and also the conductor on the train. Your heavy baggage can be checked through to your destination.

When you stop over in a city or town, you can hire a cab and go to the Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A., or look up leaders of local organizations such as the Rotary Club, the Chamber of Commerce, churches, or schools. The addresses can be found in the telephone book at the rail-

way station. But before going to visit an organization, telephone to the person in charge. If you say that you are foreign students, who have just arrived and wish to visit the community, he will be glad to receive and help you. If there are eight or ten in your group, you may even visit the mayor. Especially in a small town, the mayor will be enthusiastic about showing you the institutions and his administrative achievements. Americans are extremely curious about students who have just arrived from abroad and will greet you with respect and interest. Officials in the United States are treated with very few formalities and you will have no difficulty in seeing them. In this way you will have an opportunity to visit factories, farms, schools, art galleries, municipal institutions, and scenic spots. Moreover, you will give the Americans an opportunity to welcome you and to get acquainted with you. Students who come at their own expense are usually financially unable to travel extensively in the United States and should stretch their fare to their destination, visiting several places en route in order to gain a general impression of America's industries, agriculture, and the cultural color of various sections of the country. To gain a balanced picture of the country, the places visited should include small towns as well as big cities. Travel bureaus at the port of entry will help in the selection of the route of travel and give you comparative distances and costs by various routes. Other sources of help in this matter include the Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A., Rotary Club members, and free maps which may be obtained from local gasoline stations. Organizations such as the "Y" and the Rotary Club, which have branches all over the country, are helpful in choosing points of interest and sometimes offer to furnish letters of introduction to local leaders in various cities.

The type of transportation to be used from the port of entry to the destination deserves careful consideration. The train is faster and more comfortable. However, those of you who have sufficient time and wish to gain a new experience, may take a long distance bus. The bus ticket can be bought at a travel bureau or at the bus station, whose address can be learned in the telephone book or from the hotel or Y.M.C.A. The long distance bus is a comparatively new means of travel even in the United States and has such new interior equipment as reclining chairs for sleeping. The amount of free baggage allowed on the Hus is 15ff'pounds. Bus fare is less than railroad fare and, as in the case of railway travel, a stop-over is allowed without additional charge. However, few long distance busses will go direct to your destination and it will be necessary to change to other busses. Besides the matter of cost the bus has the advantage of giving you a close-up view of cities, towns, and the magnificent highway system. Their routes are straight through the main streets of the towns, thus enabling you to see the streets and

architectural patterns of various areas. On the train all that can be seen is the limitless countryside flying past, dark tunnels, and stations which are the same practically everywhere.

LOOKING FOR A ROOM

Upon arrival at his destination a student may inquire at the office of the registrar of the college or the foreign student counsellor as to the location of the rooming office. This office usually has a list of accredited living quarters, *giving* their addresses and rentals, from which one can copy a few addresses. The registrar's office generally has free maps of the college town which will guide the student in looking for various streets. In some places, some of the landladies will not accept Orientals. Under these circumstances, one may ask the rooming office or the foreign student counsellor to telephone the landladies of the houses selected before going to look at the rooms. The foreign student counsellor will be especially helpful at this point. This difficulty, however, is not often encountered in places where very few foreign students are found. Some institutions have a rule that houses must accept foreign students in order to be put on the accredited list. This exerts an important pressure in mitigating racial discrimination because many colleges and universities require undergraduates to live in accredited houses or dormitories. Students who want to live in the dormitories will find *it* simpler. It is important to write to the dormitory office early enough to secure a reservation, and to make sure of the date when the dormitories open so that you will arrive in time to secure a room.

A newcomer would do well to try to get an American roommate. This is important in the matter of learning English as well as in participating in American life. Moreover, a double room is cheaper than a single one. Those who wish to have American roommates may seek help from the foreign student counsellor, the rooming office, the registrar's office or the student body. Another way is to first rent a single room and get acquainted with Americans in the same house or elsewhere, and then choose an American friend for a roommate. Those who study in large cities can find a room through the real estate agencies or from newspaper advertisements.

Many colleges have cooperative houses, organized by students of limited financial resources. Those who live in them share the expenses and the work. A student usually works four or six hours weekly, sweeping the floors, cooking, or doing other household chores, and pays \$3.00 or \$4.00 a week for room and board. The cost varies in different sections of the country. Aside from the cost, the greatest advantage in living in a cooperative house is its richness in common cooperative life, which surpasses the ordinary rooming house or dormitory. Cooperative houses are usually free from racial prejudice; a





Cattle Farm

foreign student receives the same treatment as an American. Here one can also make rapid progress in English, and come in close contact with American life, as well as learn their spirit of cooperation. Many foreign students rent an apartment together and cook their national food. This may save money and enable the students to enjoy native food but the crowding together of students of the same nationality retards their learning English and raises a wall between them and American life.

REGISTRATION AND GETTING ACQUAINTED WITH THE PROFESSORS

A student may secure from the registrar's office a printed statement listing the detailed steps for registration. He may also *get* a copy of the college catalogue and regulations.

It is important for the students to get acquainted with the professors, especially the heads of departments. They may be busy at the time of the opening of college but afterward they will be anxious to talk to you and get acquainted with you. Most American professors do not have the air of high dignitaries. A student may invite them out for dinner or a beer, and they may invite him for tea or dinner at their homes. A student may go to his professor with problems on the lessons or a private matter, and whatever his problem, the professor will be glad to help him. The close and informal relationship between professor and student is a feature in American education which has contributed greatly to the learning and outlook of the student. In every institution there are bound to be many professors who especially admire a foreign civilization, and who like to come in contact with foreign students. This is especially true in smaller colleges. It gives you an opportunity to improve your English, to get help in solving your problems, to increase your knowledge of America, and to propagate your culture. Visit your professors frequently and you will discover many sincere friends. Out of consideration, however, do not make your visits to your professor's office longer than fifteen or twenty minutes unless a longer time is really required.

ORIENTATION WEEK

Most colleges designate the first week after school opens as Orientation Week. If you are a freshman, during this week you must go through many tests for the purpose of placement in the proper classes. There will be orientation lectures, telling the students how to study and adjust themselves to college life. There will be guided tours through the school buildings, such as the museum, library, and others, to acquaint students with the school environment.

It is especially useful to accompany the guided tour of the college library. It helps one to understand the system of library management;

the ways of using the catalogues; how to borrow common as well as reserved books, and how to use various types of dictionaries and indices. Freshmen are required to attend such activities during Orientation Week, but because foreign students are usually upper classmen or postgraduates they are not required to attend and, in fact, few ever do. But as this is an opportunity to learn how to use new facilities in an American university, such students should attend them as far as possible even though they are not freshmen. The announcement of the dates and activities of Orientation Week are usually found in the school catalogues, in pamphlets published by the registrar, on the bulletin boards or in the college paper.

LEGAL POINTS

When you transfer from one school to another, you must notify the registrar's office as well as the immigration authorities. One must take at least twelve credits to maintain a student status. Exceptions are sometimes made in the case of postgraduate students, those who are writing their theses, and those who leave school for practice work. This must, however, be arranged with the permission of the immigration authorities. Changes of address must be reported promptly to the school and to the immigration office. Since 1940, foreign students have had to comply with alien registration regulations at the American consulate in their own country before a visa is granted. After arriving in the United States you will receive from the Alien Registration Division, an Alien Registration Card which you should keep as identification. Any change of address must also be reported, within five days, to the Alien Registration Division, Department of Justice, Fifteenth and Chestnut Streets, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Even if you do not change your address, you must report your address to the Alien Registration Division every three months. Moving to a new place without reporting to the school, the immigration office, and the Alien Registration Division ; will get you in trouble.

If the period of your permit to stay in this country is about to expire and you are still continuing school, you should apply for an extension of stay. At least sixty days prior to the expiration date, you must write to the immigration office for Form 1-535- This form should be filled out, notarized (there is usually a charge of 25 or 50 cents for notarizing), and returned to the immigration office together with your passport. The passport will be stamped with the extended date and sent back to you, probably within a few weeks. Form 1-535 is sometimes sent by the immigration office before the expiration of the student's permit, without a request from him. When you have finished your studies and are ready to leave the United States, you must report to the school and to the immigration office, the date and port of departure, the name of the ship, and the class in which you will travel.

One may take remunerative employment only when he is a full-time student taking at least twelve credits. Taking employment in your leisure time or vacation or during your practice period will have to be authorized by the immigration office. Permission is granted in most cases of this kind. Those who take employment of any nature will have to pay an income tax to the federal and state governments. Before leaving the country it is necessary to appear before the revenue officer to obtain a receipt for payment of your income tax, which must be shown to the customs officer at the port of departure. Ask your employer or school official about the rate of your income tax as well as the ways of paying it.

The foreign student counsellor usually keeps such legal forms as Form 1-535 and the form to be filled out when a student leaves the country. In questions concerning extension of stay, employment, income tax, and other legal points one may inquire at the foreign student counsellor's office, as well as the Institute of International Education.

USEFUL INFORMATION

American railway train accommodations are either coach or Pullman. Coach travel generally costs about 2 cents a mile, with regional differences. Pullman is more expensive and requires early reservations. There is, in addition, a federal tax on all railroad tickets. Railway tickets and reservations, coach and Pullman, may be made at the railway station, travel bureaus, or sometimes through hotels. Schedules and rates may be secured over the telephone from the information office of the railway station. JPlane travel is only slightly higher than Pullman, but reservations must be made early either by telephone or by going in person to the airline office.

Each train passenger is allowed 150 pounds of baggage free of charge. This must be checked in the baggage room—except, of course, whatever you wish to carry with you for use on the trip—and you will be given a receipt with which to claim it at your destination. To travel light, ship the heavy pieces by the American Railway Express Company. You can telephone the company, which will send for your baggage and deliver it to the address marked on it. This is one of the convenient and reasonably priced institutions in the United States. Every station has a checking room or lockers for the temporary safe-keeping of baggage for travelers. Methods of using the automatic lockers in the stations are explained on them in writing. Free baggage on domestic airplanes is limited to 40 pounds.

Every main railway station has an information desk; drug store; restaurant; Travelers' Aid Society, which will help you find hotels, restaurants, and addresses of your friends; wash rooms; newsstands, which also sell maps and guide books; public telephone and telegraph offices; barber shops and beauty salons. In addition to public facilities for which there is no charge, the wash rooms of many large stations

have accommodations for washing and shaving at a small charge, usually 10 or 25 cents.

It is not necessary to tip when traveling on the airplane. Tips for handling baggage at the airport are at least 10 cents for each piece. The amount of the tips to stewards on ocean liners depends on the length of the trip, but you may inquire about them at the purser's office. The tip for the porter on a Pullman train is at least 25 cents per night. Redcaps in railroad stations are paid 10 cents for each piece of baggage with a tip of 5 or 10 cents in addition for each piece. A larger amount is necessary if the baggage is taken any long distance from the train to the taxi on the street. A bellboy in a hotel should be tipped 10 to 15 cents for each piece of baggage carried to your room or from the room to the street. Tipping in a restaurant is usually at least 10 per cent of the bill, but is unnecessary if you eat or drink at the counter. Taxicabs in large cities usually have meters which compute the fare mechanically; this is not true in small towns. The driver generally receives a tip of 10 to 25 cents depending on the distance. It is customary to leave 10 to 25 cents for the girl who checks your coat and hat. The barber is tipped 10 cents, except in small shops where it is unnecessary. Tipping in beauty salons is from 10 to 50 cents, depending on the work done.

Postage stamps may be purchased in post offices, drug stores, and cigar stores. In using a dial telephone, if there is an English word (this is called an exchange) preceding the numerals, dial only the capital letters of the word shown in the telephone book (two in most cases, sometimes three), then the numerals given. In making a long distance call, it is necessary to give the operator both the complete name of the exchange and the numerals. The long distance operator may be reached by dialing the numbers 211. The first page or the inside cover page of the telephone book contains useful information about using the telephone.

In making a long distance call, you have to choose between a station-to-station and person-to-person call. In the former you are connected with anyone who answers at the desired number. The latter enables you to reach a certain person, whom you request at the number given, and there is only a small service charge if the desired person fails to come to the telephone. Night rates apply to certain hours in the evening and to Sundays. The telephone book gives detailed information about these. When using a public telephone, pick up the receiver, drop a nickel in the slot marked "Five Cents" and, when you hear a buzzing sound, dial the number you want. Public telephones are found in all department stores, restaurants, drug and cigar stores, stations, and public buildings. In making a long distance call from a public telephone, first dial 211 (the long distance operator) and give the address and telephone number of the person you wish to call, ask the cost, and when the operator tells you to do so, drop the coins into the

slots. This pays for only three or five minutes of conversation, at the end of which you will be interrupted by the operator, and you must pay an additional amount before resuming your conversation.

It is not necessary to go a long distance to send a telegram. Simply dial the operator and ask for *' Western Union.' You can then *give* the message over the telephone. If you have a private phone, the cost will be added to your monthly bill. In sending a telegram from a public telephone, you will be told the cost and when you have dropped the right amount of coins into the slots marked with the various denominations, the message will be sent.

Reserve your hotel room by letter or telegram. If you arrive at a place without a reservation, telephone the hotel or seek the assistance of the Travelers* Aid Society at the station for rooms and rates. This will save considerable running around, for hotels do not always have rooms available. A single room is generally \$2.50 a day and up. Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. dormitories charge from \$1.00 to \$2.25 a day.

When looking for an address it is advisable to write it out on a slip of paper and show it to a passer-by or policeman, as this will avoid the difficulties of pronunciation. You may *get* assistance in finding the addresses of institutions or friends or other general information from such sources as the classified section of the telephone book, the Chamber of Commerce, hotel clerks, policemen, municipal bureaus of information, information desks, and the Travelers' Aid Society at the station, or from various catalogues in the public library, and the local newspapers. If you paste your college emblem on your brief case or baggage it will help you to get assistance from others when going about, for the American people respect foreign students.

Chapter Eleven

UNDERSTANDING AMERICA BY PARTICIPATION

THE HERMIT'S LONELINESS

Shortly after a foreign student arrives in the United States, when the stimulation of new things has worn off, he will feel the pressure of loneliness. A foreign student has much less choice in making friends here than at home. He will not know where to go for recreation except to a movie house. All around him are strange customs, a strange language, strange scenes, to which he finds it difficult to adjust himself. He feels he can only hide himself in the library or in his own room, tasting the loneliness of a hermit. But if he tries, he can find bridges between himself and the lively American environment; a hermit's loneliness is not the necessary fate of a foreign student in this country.

Extra-curricular activities are an important item in American colleges. They aim not only to impart knowledge but also to train the young generation to live and do business together. The number of organizations and the richness of extra-curricular activities in American colleges are important features of higher education in this country. We frequently gaze at American students, lost in numerous merriments and activities, and unconsciously feel that this is the business of the Americans and that foreign students have little to do with it. But here we can observe what is perhaps the greatest distinction between our own and the American college life. On the campus of our colleges we also have groups organized for educational and social activities, but the focus of student life is usually a small group of close friends. Such small groups of intimate fellowship are also found on an American campus but they do not occupy the greater part of the student's time outside the classroom. An American student usually spends most of his extra-curricular time in a variety of organizations. These may not have the intimate atmosphere of small informal groups but they offer a much broader and richer life for the participants.

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AND METHODS OF PARTICIPATION IN THEM

The varieties and activities of organizations on an American campus are countless. Announcements of activities of each organization can be found on the bulletin boards and in the college newspaper. A good introduction to campus life, therefore, is to look at the bulletin board

frequently and to subscribe to the college paper. Anyone who does not is like a person walking on the street blindfolded. American students, who live a highly organized life, nail their eyes constantly on the bulletin board and college paper.

There are more social activities during the first week after the opening of school than at any other time. Students, especially new students, receive numerous invitations from college officials, professors, and organizations of various kinds. Most of them are not extended personally but are merely announced on the bulletin board or in the college paper. One must plan his time carefully to choose wisely among all of these invitations, which are the initial openings for us to observe and participate in American life. Taking this initial advantage is extremely important for our future life and work in America. We must, therefore, accept as many of these invitations as possible.

The most outstanding extra-curricular activity on an American campus is athletics. Such physical exercises as football, swimming, archery, horseback riding, boxing, wrestling, fencing, and rifle shoot-Jug are all within our grasp if we follow the public notices or inquire at the gymnasium. Although many sports are organized into small groups, this does not mean that we are excluded. We may inquire at the gymnasium or of our friends or professors about ways of joining them. Most foreign students will not expect to join the varsity team but if a student is a good mixer he can participate in the management of the team, thus learning methods of organization in American student activities.

Every college offers opportunities for hiking, picnicking, and other outdoor recreation. The bulletin board and college paper will probably contain notices of such activities, *inviting* newcomers to sign up. Receptions or "smokers"* are generally held at the beginning of the school year by organizations associated with drama, music, photography, and the college paper, for new students to try out their skills and to join in the various activities. Even if we do not possess the necessary qualifications, we can still attend these receptions or "smokers" and take part informally in them.

Because of cultural differences, it may be difficult for us to get into organizations devoted to music and drama. Activities connected with the college paper require a good knowledge of English. Those of us who are well versed in English are eligible, of course, to join them. A foreign student often holds the chief editorship of a college paper, Wellington Koo is an outstanding example of this. A great many foreign students are interested in photography and photographic organizations are good ones for them to join. On the American campus, fraternities are the only student organizations which frequently exclude students because of race or nationality; others will accept us. Our language and cultural differences may be a barrier to participating in some American organizations; • on the other hand, our

exotic appearance and manners frequently compensate for these shortcomings.

Academic organizations in every field are found on the campus. The purpose of these is to improve scholastic standards, as well as to enable teachers and students in the same field to become acquainted with each other. Some of these academic organizations require definite standards of scholarship and character. They are the honor societies, whose token of membership is the popularly admired honor key. These honor societies are open to all regardless of race or nationality. The percentage of foreign students wearing these keys is unusually high in this country, a fact which has drawn favorable comment from American educators.

Many colleges have an international house or international center, and other organizations devoted to the welfare of foreign students. Such centers are often rich in their activities. Their programs frequently include courses in English, exchange language lessons, discussions on problems of various countries, group teas, dinners, dances, concerts, week-end trips, and other forms of indoor and outdoor recreation. Foreign students may enjoy many facilities in these international centers, may meet students from all lands, and may broaden their own knowledge of the world. However, if we devote too much time to them, we shall live in an atmosphere quite isolated from the normal American environment. It is better, therefore, to use these centers rather as a point of contact with American friends and environment, and to develop our contacts beyond them.

The Christian churches, the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., and the Rotary Clubs are among the organizations which are most enthusiastic in helping foreign students to get acquainted with American life. Such organizations, whose purpose is to serve the public, are very international in their outlook. All foreign students are welcome at their gatherings. The Christian church is especially important. The church in America is not merely a place for prayer and worship, it is a very important center of social activities in the local communities. Its position is especially important in smaller towns. Those who participate in church activities are not necessarily all religious followers. In addition to religious services, many churches sponsor discussion groups, teas, dinners, dances, outings, and other activities, and students who do not attend Sunday services may still participate freely in these. Here one seldom feels the sting of racial or national prejudice. For instance, at a church dance a foreign student will seldom hear such a reply from a girl as "I am tired," or "I am booked up." The boys in a church organization are usually very courteous and friendly, and quite enthusiastic in offering their help to foreign students. By attending such social functions, one may make many good friends and have an opportunity of observing American life. Announcements of church activities are usually found on church and

college bulletin boards, in the college paper, and other places having public notices. One may ask American students or professors or the foreign student counsellor about them.

National holidays furnish a good opportunity to observe and participate in American life. Holidays represent the calendar of a nation's life: they embody its historical background and social sentiments. For example, Memorial Day (May 30) is a day set aside for commemorating the Nation's dead soldiers and sailors. Labor Day (the first Monday in September) is a landmark in the improvement of the life of the working man. Christmas (December 25) is the day of family reunions, and for friends and relatives to remember each other. Behind each American holiday one can find a moving story. Participation in the activities of American holidays is a very valuable experience, but before going to gatherings and celebrations, one should learn the background of the holiday from friends or from some source such as the encyclopedia. This will make our participation much more meaningful. On Thanksgiving, Christmas and other holidays, schools and local organizations frequently invite foreign students to attend dinners other forms of celebration. If we have made American friends, are very often invited to their homes, for such holiday functions.

Outside group activity, lies the vast field of individual social life. Americans, like any other people, differ greatly in individual character and taste. We cannot expect all Americans to become our intimate friends, but we can establish good fellowship with most of them. Friends can offer us invaluable help in numerous ways—by introducing us to other Americans who may in turn become our friends, by helping us with our English, by introducing us into group life, and by enabling us to understand American manners and customs. On week ends or holidays they may invite us to their homes and give us a chance to talk about our own lands at the dinner table. During our college vacation, some of our friends may even offer us a place to stay. Not every American will welcome us in this way, but if we go out purposely to make friends, we shall not find a lack of Americans who are anxious to establish good fellowship with us. In classrooms, in homes, and in public gatherings, just smile at the next fellow and he will smile back. Ask his name, if he does not ask yours first; start a conversation on any subject, big or small, and in a short time you will usually have made a friend. College life is informal and there is no room in it for conventional introductions on most occasions. Smiling at someone you don't know is not out of the way; it is common practice among the sociable Americans. Smile and you will be popular; a constantly straight, serious face will certainly keep away friends. Treat American students and professors in the same way. On first acquaintance, Americans may find us somewhat strange, but once they mix with us this strangeness will soon melt away.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BARRIERS AGAINST PARTICIPATION
IN AMERICAN LIFE

When we are newcomers, the biggest obstacles to participating in American life are, of course, our language difficulties, cultural differences, and the frequent discrimination against foreigners. The most effective way to overcome these obstacles is to mingle with Americans as much as possible immediately after our arrival. We cannot hope to solve these difficulties by continued isolation from American life.

Another obstacle is our too-serious attitude toward group activities. We frequently think we must do big things when we join an organization. But American group life is full of sportsmanship and is without the foreboding seriousness of our own. Most organizations are merely for the purpose of enabling people to enjoy a common interest together, carrying on activities in which each member has his individual part to play. One's part may be attending functions regularly and promptly; it may be moving the chairs, pouring tea, contributing to the program, or conducting a meeting. Thus each one does his part according to his interest and ability, the main object being to make group life possible. The principal thing is not to have any one individual so exhibit his abilities as to tower above the others. If one has unusual ability, others in a group will doubtless recognize it.

We too frequently dub someone an "exhibitionist" when he volunteers to help move the chairs, pour tea, stand up and express his opinion, or promote an idea—big or small. Those who like to do little things in group life are especially subject to this unfair title. The label of "exhibitionist" has been used too indiscriminately, has discouraged public-spiritedness in many people, has hindered the healthy development of leadership, and has prevented the forming of wholesome habits of group life. American students and teachers who participate frequently in foreign group activities make the criticism that too many foreign students wait for others to wait on them and that too few volunteer to do the small things, such as ushering in newcomers or pouring tea. In an American organization, on the contrary, those who volunteer to do these little things are generally admired for their sportsmanship and public spirit, and are never called exhibitionists.

Other obstacles to our participation in American life are our shyness, and our traditional attitude, which overemphasizes having only intimate friends—an attitude unfavorable to the development of group life. In a slow, contented agricultural civilization where there are no rapid population movements, people have little contact with strangers and shyness seems to be a natural result. This attitude has no evil in it; it does, however, prevent us from making friends easily and from participating in group life. Treasuring intimate friends is a virtue, but confining oneself exclusively to intimate friends, without other broad acquaintances, will drag one into a very narrow sphere of

life. When this attitude becomes a social custom, it results in numerous small intimate groups, with no large organizations. In the complex American system where one finds many organizations of various sizes, one has to have both intimate friends and broad acquaintances. If one confines himself to several intimate friends, he will find it very DIFFICULT to develop his own life and *career*. This is especially true in college life. But if one has the courage to smile at other people and talk with them, he soon forms the habit of making broad acquaintances. From these broad acquaintances one can increase one's own intimate friends.

Our traditional worship of the bookworm is another hindrance to our participation in extra-curricular activities. The famous ancient Chinese scholar, who did not even peep out from his study into the garden for three years, does not have any place in the twentieth century of rapid changes. On the American campus a popular student is one who devotes his attention equally to academic work and group life. One who buries himself in his books, keeping out friends and group activities, will be looked upon as odd. If his scholarship is not outstanding, he may be regarded as a poor citizen.

If, as newcomers, we feel it is difficult to ⁴ 'break the ice**' in American life, we can seek the help of the school authorities or local organizations, such as the church and Rotary Clubs. We may ask them to plan programs for us in order that we may visit the local stores, factories, and public institutions. We may also ask them to arrange gatherings for us where we can mingle with American students. The school officials will undoubtedly be willing to help in breaking the ice for us by planning extra-curricular activities.

OUR DUTY TOWARD THE AMERICANS

Our first duty in this country is, of course, to learn; the second is to inform. We frequently feel that Americans misunderstand our country and the duty of dispelling this misunderstanding is upon our shoulders. It is not the responsibility only of our nation's ambassador to explain our country's situation to Americans and to win international good will; each foreign student having the opportunity to come into contact with Americans here has the same responsibility. Each of us is a member of an unofficial good-will mission to America. In a nation where everyone likes to talk, we shall not lack opportunity. We should attend the discussion groups which are frequently held in American colleges. If we mingle with American friends and participate in the activities of various organizations, we shall receive plenty of invitations to speak on subjects related to our country. Some of these lectures may even bring remuneration, but whether or not we receive a few dollars is far less important than the opportunity to inform Americans about our country. We desire to increase their understanding of our people, to make friends, to enlarge our sphere of activity in Ameri-

can life, and to increase our own understanding of the American background.

We should emphasize facts in our lectures. It is well to choose a series of anecdotes connected with the subject in order to give Americans a concrete idea of the background of our national life. Expounding high-sounding theories or quoting slogans is useless, because few Americans have any sound knowledge of our country. Personal experiences in our nation's family and social life, and stories of our revolutions and wars are the best material for our talks, especially when lecturing to youth organizations and women's clubs. Interesting stories will remain long in a person's memory. Our job is to weave a realistic picture of our country by a series of vivid anecdotes so that the audience will not only be interested in listening but will remember the stories and use them as part of their own conversational material.

In addition to discussion groups and lectures, our daily association with individual American friends and our participation in their family gatherings *give* us important opportunities to inform Americans about our country. Americans are curious, and they like to talk. Curiosity and talkativeness are the secret weapons offered to us in carrying out our duty. As an example, take China. Most Americans have seen Chinese only in laundries or in restaurants; few have met an educated Chinese. So, when they meet a student from China, they are very curious about him. Moreover, they respect him as a future leader of our nation. This is an opportunity we cannot afford to miss.

Chapter Twelve

NEWSPAPERS, MAGAZINES, RADIO, AND MOTION PICTURES

NEWSPAPERS

One characteristic of the people of America, where education is universal, is their great enthusiasm for reading newspapers. On street corners, in waiting rooms, in homes; in fact, everywhere, people glue their eyes on a newspaper or magazine as if the whole world were moving on the paper and the whirling crowds around them were non-existent. As a result of their habit of reading newspapers and magazines, the Americans' world lives on paper. Facts and opinions printed on paper freely inform the Americans of social, national, and world tendencies, enabling them to know where individual and national interests lie, and helping them to determine the direction of their voting at the polls. Furthermore, news items, articles, and advertisements in the papers and magazines direct Americans as to what groceries to buy, what to cook for dinner, what clothes to wear, what houses to build, what interior decorations to use, which shows to attend, books to read, and places to visit, and how to solve a million perplexities in one's love and life. The entire length and breadth of American public and private life is encompassed in the printed lines of their newspapers and magazines.

The press is the real backbone of American social life. Reading the paper is an item in the daily work of the average American. There are no less than 20,000 newspapers and periodicals in the United States. Daily papers alone totaled 2,026 in 1943, with a daily circulation of 44,000,000. On an average, one in every three Americans buys a newspaper. The press can express any opinion and publish any news that is not contrary to the laws regarding obscenity and libel. Even in wartime, an editor censors his paper according to his own judgment as far as wartime censorship regulations let him get the news. A newspaper or news agency has the right to send representatives to attend the President's weekly press conferences and to ask **the President** questions. Therefore, one can really see in the American press **the** opinion of every party **and** faction. **The newspaper is a window** through which one can peep into **all** the angles and activities, **the** daily comedies **and** tragedies, of **American life**.

Glancing at **the headlines** is, of course, the simplest way to read the **American newspapers**. After looking at **the headlines**, however, it is

well also to read one or two paragraphs at the beginning of a news item to *get* the gist of the subject matter, because in the journalistic style of writing, the main idea is always summarized at the beginning of an article. If the subject matter is of interest, one can read further for the details, which increase as the article goes on. The principle of journalistic writing is to enable the reader to grasp the essential theme from the leading paragraphs and to stop at any paragraph without losing the main idea. The method of detailed reading used by many foreign students will not be feasible here because it would take a whole day to read any big city newspaper.

Except in wartime or in time of political crisis, however, one may not be able to get the main subject of the day by just looking at the headlines, because the coloring of the news by the editors is not always based objectively on the importance of the event headlined. Moreover, many happenings which are too common in America to justify prominent headings may be of interest to us. For example, under a small heading in an inconspicuous corner of some inside page, one may learn that a man is suing the municipal government because he broke his *leg* as the result of a hole in the street that was not fenced off with warning signals.

Next to the news come editorials and feature columns. From these one can learn what are regarded by Americans as the most important problems, what are the highly debated issues of the day, and the opinions and background of such issues. Here one can read vivid stories *giving* the "inside dope" on politics and social life. For instance, if the head of a certain department in the government quits, editorials and columns will expose the background of his downfall, the other personalities connected with the case, his political achievements or corruptions—supporting or objecting to his resignation, according to the editorial policy of the paper. If some powerful capital or labor bloc applies pressure on congressional members to pass certain selfish legislation, the sharp pen of the editorial writers and columnists will come into full play. Thus in editorials and columns we find the most righteous or the most nonsensical opinions; the most moving and the most humorous facts; the most startling or frightening inside stories. In reading this material we find an outstanding example of America's free speech.

Newspaper columns and features have absorbed many of America's greatest geniuses. Some of the most highly paid professional men are found among the columnists. Those who read only headlines and neglect the editorials and feature columns will be unable to detect readily America's timely issues, and will also miss a most lively drama of modern life. In editorials and columns dance the million lights and shadows of American civilization.

Besides news, editorials, and feature columns, we find in the American newspaper so-called departmental news, which consists chiefly of the

financial section, the athletic page, and sections on recreation and society. The society page is devoted to the social life and marriages of the upper circles of the local community. Newspapers in large cities will have columns on health, fashion, beauty aids, nutrition, daily home menus, science, gardening, interior decoration, music, drama, movies, dogs and cats, photography, marital advice, postage stamps, bridge, short stories, book reviews, hunting and fishing, and, of course, the inevitable comic strips. Book reviews and criticisms of music, drama, and the movie contribute greatly to the uplifting of American cultural tastes. From such interesting columns as those giving advice on love and marriage one can learn the intimate psychology of American daily life. Cartoons and comic strips acquaint us with the American sense of humor and entertainment. These frequently contain a great many colloquial expressions which we can ask American friends to explain to us. Once understood, not even a strange foreigner can put them down. The Sunday editions of American newspapers are even richer in content. The Sunday *New York Times* weighs more than one pound, and its elaborate contents make it the most comprehensive newspaper in the world. It will be more than sufficient to occupy one's entire Sunday. Even in a small town it is possible to get the *New York Times* from newsstands, in drug stores, and elsewhere. New-comers, unfamiliar with the English language, may read one newspaper exclusively at first and then read other papers, once the style and arrangement of the American newspaper becomes familiar.

How can a small-town newspaper, with a limited circulation, employ able writers who contribute articles in many different fields with such proficiency? How can their columns be written so well and their news be so up to date and so discerning? This is because of the development of large-scale news agencies and syndicates. The big three—the Associated Press, the United Press, and the International News Service—send reporters to every corner of the world. Any important happening in the remotest spot will be immediately recorded and sent through tens of thousands of miles of leased wire to thousands of news tickers in numerous editorial rooms, and will soon find itself on modern presses grinding away at mad speed. Every leading news agency has from hundreds to thousands of member papers, each of which shares in a small part of the vast expense of the news gathering. There are 350 syndicates in this country working on similar principles. Each syndicate has a large number of member newspapers. The syndicate hires famous talent, at great expense, to write columns and features on various subjects. These talented writers use interesting and readable language to introduce to the common people new ideas, new works of art, new methods and inventions, and scientific discoveries. Thus a newspaper pays very little for articles written by men of great talent, the rate of payment varying according to the circulation. Some famous columnists and comic artists reach as many as 20,000,000 readers

through the machine of the syndicate. That is why, when we travel from city to city, we see similar headlines of national and international news, the same columnists, comic strips, and feature columns. We find very rich contents even in the small-town newspapers. This fact contributes greatly to the uniformity of American attitudes and tastes, and the enrichment of American cultural life.

MAGAZINES AND POPULAR BOOKS

Like the newspaper, the magazine supplies the daily mental nutrition for the American people and is a window through which one can peep into America's inner life. Almost every American family reads at least one magazine regularly; families of the middle and upper classes frequently read from three to five magazines. In 1943, as many as 6,354 periodicals were published in the United States. These can be divided roughly into general and specialized magazines. The general ones, which are read by the common people, enjoy a huge circulation. There are at present twenty magazines having a subscription list of more than a million. On newsstands, on street corners, in stations, and in drug stores, one sees magazine covers of dozens of colors and designs. These may be magazines of a general character or those on such a variety of subjects as amusements, movies, aviation, mechanics or science, beauty treatments, physical culture, interior decoration, home economics, humor, detective stories, love stories, and countless others. This great diversity and huge circulation of magazines is indeed a key to the rich common knowledge and progressive attitude of the American people. In a general magazine one finds interestingly written light articles on politics and economic problems, short stories, and humor. Magazines of this nature which have large circulation pay from hundreds to thousands of dollars for an article, and they have absorbed much of America's best talent. Those of a local nature, such as the *New Yorker* and *Cue*, have useful information on recreation and public activities. In recent years, a new type of weekly publication has come into being. These periodicals summarize important information from books, periodicals and newspapers throughout the country, write them up in a neat and interesting fashion, sometimes including historical backgrounds. Even those who read the newspapers regularly can get additional facts and impressions from these new periodicals. Outstanding examples are *Time* magazine, with a circulation of more than a million, and *Newsweek*, whose circulation exceeds half a million. These offer an important means of securing an understanding of America. The contents of *Time* magazine, for example, include such subjects as wartime America, world battlefields, foreign news, drama, music, medicine, art, radio, science, religion, the Army and Navy, the press, personalities, education, commerce and finance, obituaries, sports, moving pictures, and book reviews.

Besides these general magazines, thousands of periodicals on sci-



ence, trades, and other occupational interests are put out by numerous professional organizations. They record the new developments in various fields of industry and technology, group *activities* and personal news, and frequently reviews of technical books. These specialized magazines are of great assistance in enabling Americans to keep up with the new developments in different fields and with news of group and personal activities in their own profession. In fact, if we wish to keep in touch with developments and current activities in our own line, reading these specialized magazines is a necessity.

The extensive reading habits of Americans include not only newspapers and magazines but also books. In recent years the annual sale of books has amounted to around 225,000,000 copies; in other words, an average of about two books to every American. They do not read merely novels; from sixty to seventy per cent of the books published in the United States in 1942-1943 were non-fiction. Non-fiction, however, is written in a light style which people enjoy reading. The subject matter varies greatly, covering politics, economics, philosophy, and history. Books on self-improvement have a very large sale. Popular as well as classical volumes are printed in pocket size editions. These are sold in large quantities at low price to people who would not otherwise be able to afford them. In addition to buying books, Americans borrow 500,000,000 volumes from the libraries every year.

The American habit of reading is still increasing. The rapid growth of book clubs in recent decades is an interesting phenomenon. These are really organizations for selling books. They vary considerably but, generally, a club requires every member to purchase at least four books a year; in doing so, members receive discounts or book dividends. Clubs frequently engage famous writers to select books, and those selected are generally best sellers. Popular books are frequently serialized by syndicates for use in newspapers and are very often adapted to the movies. A poverty-stricken writer sometimes finds he has acquired a fortune in this way. Large book clubs usually advertise in the big newspapers and magazines for members.

Books are introduced in the book reviews in newspapers and magazines. A considerable proportion of Americans have a habit of reading book reviews regularly. This is an economical way of keeping in close touch with the publication world, not merely learning what new books are on the market but also the main theme of each of the new books. The reading habit shows that the American is no longer an uncultured being, with money but without a soul. If we wish to look into the soul of the Americans, we shall have to squeeze out some time to read one or two best sellers.

RADIO

The 59,000,000 radio sets (averaging two for each family) and the 909 public and private broadcasting stations have become the most intimate

company of Americans. Like magic, the radio waves have penetrated deep into the American to direct his thoughts, his cultural interests, and life pattern. Its influence equals, or even surpasses, that of the press and motion picture. Broadcasting programs encompass the entire American life. The "voice of America" is no longer a metaphor but a fact in radio. Squeezing out some time every day to listen to the radio is an important way to get an understanding of American life as well as a very effective means of learning English. Radios were scarce in wartime, but in peacetime one can buy a fairly good small set for \$\$.00 or \$10.00, and a second-hand set for as little as

We frequently regard the radio set as a mere music box, a twentieth-century toy for Americans. It is true that forty to sixty per cent of broadcast time is devoted to music—especially jazz and swing music, which seems to intoxicate the Americans—but excellent classical programs and many important concerts and operas are also broadcast. In addition to music, there are untold varieties of radio programs, which are listed regularly in the daily newspapers. It is important to read over the programs in the papers because it helps us to plan our time to hear special programs or speeches by eminent personalities.

Drama occupies a prominent place in radio second only to music. Dramatic programs include modern and ancient tragedies, but most of them are devoted to American daily life in society or in the home. Radio dramas depicting home life are very realistic. Through the invisible soul, we see vividly the structure of the American family, the personalities of its members, the perplexities of the adults and the troubles of the children, and the interplay of all the human emotions. They portray the average American so realistically that in listening to such programs we almost feel as though we are listening to the heartbeats of some of our own American friends. When announcing the drama programs, the newspapers frequently *give* only the names of the main characters.

Jokes are inevitable in the day's broadcasting program. Deep in the hearts of Americans are humorists like Jack Benny, Fred Allen, Bob Hope, Gracie Allen, George Burns, Edgar Bergen and his dummy, Charlie McCarthy. Programs of this type may help us to understand the American sense of humor. A new type of radio program with a semi-educational value that has recently become popular is the quiz program. Members in the audience are called to the microphone to be battered by puzzling questions, such as dates of historical events, names of world personalities, or matters of common knowledge. Those who can answer will be rewarded; those who fail sometimes receive queer forms of punishment. Broadcasting stations also collect child prodigies and conduct a program which they call the "Quiz Kids." These prodigies frequently solve very difficult problems in mathematics and answer complex questions, entirely without previous

preparation. These programs will give us an understanding of the Americans' love of the unusual and their increasing thirst for knowl-

News reports are, of course, an important item. One is bound to get these reports, lasting from five to fifteen minutes, every hour on the radio. News comes through faster over the radio than from the press since the radio can flash any important news immediately from the news tickers, while the newspaper must edit and print it. One disadvantage of radio news is that it lacks the details offered by the newspapers. On the far-flung battlefields of the world, the great networks have reporters on the spot to broadcast while important battles are going on. At times the radio blares out voices from London, Paris, Rome, the Pacific fronts, and Washington in close succession, making one feel that he is all over the world in a matter of seconds. Then there are news analyses, which are very similar to the editorials and columns in the newspapers. Famous news analysts are Raymond Swing, George Fielding Eliot, H. V. Kaltenborn, Quincy Howe, Samuel Grafton, and William Shirer. The influence of the radio analysts is said to be surpassing that of the newspapers.

The American love of a good argument has resulted in the popular programs of debates and discussion groups. These programs consist of discussions of national and international questions by opposing members of Congress, political leaders, scholars, and well-known personalities. The speakers fight it out before the microphone so that people will have an opportunity to listen to the opinions of both sides. Some of these programs are full of dramatic interest. "The Town Meeting of the Air," "The University of Chicago Round Table," "The People's Platform," and "The American Forum of the Air" are outstanding examples.

Public speeches by leaders in politics, business, and the cultural world are also important. Such speeches frequently attract a huge number of listeners. President Roosevelt's address immediately after Pearl Harbor drew an audience of 62,000,000. The Federal Communications Commission has ruled that equality in time and cost must be enjoyed by opposing political parties whenever a station sponsors political speeches. At election time, the radio is a new source of excitement. Listening to the skill of the candidates in delivering public addresses and their freedom in expressing their opinions, makes one feel that America is a nation of good debaters. It is an experience which one should not miss while studying in the United States.

In addition to these main programs, there are numerous miscellaneous ones. A radio voice will start singing or telling moral lessons at five or six o'clock in the morning to wake you up; it will bring you the day's weather forecast, report to you the standard time every few minutes, and even count the strokes for your morning exercise. During the day there will be reports of the prices of groceries, suggestions

for the day's menu, and step-by-step lessons in cooking for the housewife. At night your radio will lull your children to sleep with bedtime stories. The reflective evening will find the radio sending out advice on personal questions in the form of "good will hours." In these programs you hear fights between husband and wife, dissatisfied youngsters wanting to leave home, and other tragedies or near-tragedies, with a voice of exhortation presiding over them. Again, this is something one should not miss in a sojourn here.

MOTION PICTURES

American motion pictures are familiar friends. We had seen them long before coming to this country. In meeting them again here, it will be of interest to inquire into their importance in American life and the recent trends in their development. In normal times, this country produces more than 500 long pictures and more than 700 short films every year. This means that an average of three to four new pictures are put out every day. Before the war a large company sometimes had more than ten pictures in production at the same time. Some 200,000 people are employed in the motion picture industry, including production and distribution. More than 20,000 motion picture theaters have been built in numerous places, great cities and humble towns, throughout the entire United States. They have a combined seating capacity exceeding 10,000,000. In other words, almost one-twelfth of the total population of the United States can disappear in motion picture theaters at the same time.

In 1942, 90,000,000 visits were made each week to picture shows in the United States. Though one person may have made more than one visit a week, this figure gives an idea of the huge number of people attracted to the motion pictures, and of the extensive influence the movies wield over American life. One may say that the movie theater is the Mecca of modern Americans. Whether it is in a palace-like building in a luxurious city or in a barn-like structure in a nondescript town, the silver screen is the focus of the hearts of Americans. The fashions, behavior, phrases, and entire pattern of living shown on the screen, set an example and standard for the people, especially the younger generation. When the same pictures are being shown all over the country, the same standards of glamour and glory are being brought to the entire nation. One might almost say that Hollywood is the factory of many of the modes of American living.

Since motion pictures have such intensive influence and such extensive distribution, it is natural that their contents bear a close relation to the matter of young people's character, education, cultural tastes, and even the general social atmosphere. Scenes of love and crime give rise to serious discussions among educators and those concerned with social welfare. Recently a notable tendency in the American motion picture has been to elevate cultural tastes and increase cm-

phasis on social problems and realistic life. Many masterpieces of literature have been made into motion pictures. A novel will appear on the screen soon after it becomes a best seller. Even many non-fiction books, such as *Mission to Moscow*, have been turned into movies for more popular consumption. Topflight writers have been attracted to the field to write scenarios and dialogues, and some of the best talent have entered the field to compose music, take up directing and other branches of work that go into the making of a good picture. Such first-class pictures serve to provoke thinking—whether they depict social realism, analyze life, or reflect current politics. The motion picture columns in magazines and newspapers will help us select good pictures to see, thus avoiding waste of time on poor ones.

Another recent development in the motion picture industry is the gradual perfection of technique in animated pictures. Since the production of "Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs," animated pictures have developed far beyond the "Mickey Mouse" type of subject matter. They have entered the fertile field of science, education, and the highly imaginative expression of art. "Victory through Air Power" in the scientific field, and "Fantasia" in the artistic field have proved that animation in pictures has become a new medium of expression for man's thought and imagination. It is exceedingly worth while to watch its development, which may unfold revolutionary changes in the technique of art, education, and publicity.

Chapter Thirteen

UNDERSTANDING AMERICA BY OBSERVATION

We certainly envy celebrities who come to the United States with an official title of "observer" or on a mission of investigation. However, if what we envy is not their *glittering title* but their opportunity to actually observe and study America, we should realize that each foreign student here has a similar opportunity. Of course, this opportunity for a student is somewhat limited by lack of time and of freedom for traveling. But if we approach the subject methodically—and, in fact, methodical observation might well be part of our work as students in this country—we can derive a great deal of benefit from it. Broadly speaking, participating in American life, reading American literature, and listening to the American radio, are all a part of this observation. This chapter, however, is confined to observing American organizations and institutions, and includes suggestions as to the questions we may wish to ask when visiting various types of organizations. We approach the subject from the point of view of an intelligent citizen interested in securing general information, not from that of a technical student in a particular field.

OPPORTUNITY AND PROCEDURE

Experience has shown that most organizations and institutions in the United States welcome visits by foreign students. Since the outbreak of World War II, American leaders have awakened to the importance of international cooperation in the future, and American business men are casting their eyes on the postwar world markets. So they welcome us now more than ever before. It is comparatively simple to visit an organization or institution. One may write the organization directly or ask the foreign student counsellor, a professor, or some college official to make the request. The latter is specially effective in dealing with large business or governmental organizations. It is better for foreign students to go in a group because an institution will be more enthusiastic about receiving a group than individual students. Unfortunately, no student groups in this country have as yet established a department for the purpose of making such arrangements. If there are only a few foreign students in your school, don't let that deter you; write the institution that you wish to visit, possibly enclosing a letter of introduction from a professor or school official to give added strength to your request.

TOWNS—STORES-FACTORIES-FARMS

It is not easy to derive any concrete advantage from visiting a new place. Those who are accustomed to large cities abroad will find New York or Chicago somewhat similar on the surface. One would observe casually that New York and Chicago have taller buildings and more automobiles on the streets. When riding through a small town in this country one sees a neat main street, several stores, a theater or two, and peaceful residential streets. Small towns are very similar wherever one goes in the United States and offhand there may seem to be little of intense interest.

But if we observe carefully, we shall see interesting things and gain a more accurate impression of America's towns and cities. When we first arrive, we shall, of course, walk around the streets, looking at the stores, theaters, schools, churches, homes, factories, government buildings, parks, and playgrounds; at the bustling crowds during the day and the bright lights after sunset. These are the outer garments of a city or town. To understand what is beneath this garment, the first thing to be done is to look through the classified telephone directory. In big cities, this is a separate volume; in smaller towns, it is a section of the regular directory.

From the telephone book we can get a rough idea of the number of grocery stores, shoe and clothing stores, restaurants, theaters, florists, pawnshops, schools, churches, lawyers, doctors, hospitals, chambers of commerce, farmers' organizations, learned societies, bands, women's associations, and numerous other local institutions. In big cities, we shall find strange specialized professions such as dog and cat hospitals, and escort services. This list of institutions in the classified telephone directory will give us a general impression of the pattern of local life. If we compare the number of these institutions with the size of the population of a town, it will give us the approximate number of people to a doctor, to a school, a theater, or a store of any particular nature. In fact, the classified directory is a necessity in enabling us to get around the city and to utilize local facilities. So the telephone directory ought to be our first object of interest. It can, however, give us only a bare outline; to learn what is inside this outline we shall have to make American friends, read the newspapers and magazines, and personally visit the institutions.

An American store may not present a very different appearance from those in our own cities, but we shall find interesting differences if we observe carefully their methods of treating customers and doing business, and inquire into the system of management, the working hours, and pay of the workers. The source of the commodities displayed in the store is frequently of interest. For instance, during the winter almost all of the fruits and vegetables in New York stores come from California, 3,000 miles away, but their price is still low enough to fit

the common man's purse. This illustrates one of the effects of America's modern system of transportation.

The chain store, a comparatively new type of commercial organization in this country, also deserves attention. Because of their efficient system of management, modern store arrangement, and the low prices of their commodities, the chain stores have proved themselves superior to ordinary stores. In fact, their advantages have resulted in a boycott movement against them in many communities.

In a highly industrialized country like America, the factory is naturally one of the places of interest to visit. Without going into its technical aspects, we may observe the efficient organization of a factory, its ingenious machinery, and its large-scale production methods. In big factories, such as those manufacturing automobiles, the assembly belt is a wonder that we cannot miss. Take, for example, the Ford plant. Here, shiploads of iron ore are poured into one end of the factory, made into steel, and molded by numerous automatic machines, into standardized parts which are placed on the constantly moving assembly belt. Workers standing on either side of the belt pick up a part, turn a screw or swing a hammer; the parts come together into a larger section of the automobile and flow into the main assembly belt. These larger parts are, in turn, assembled on the moving belt, and in no time we see automobiles flowing off from the main assembly belt.

We may also visit smaller plants, in order to observe the evolution of American industry. When visiting a factory there are many questions which we may wish to ask; for example, as to the history of its development, the amount of capital investment, the method of securing capital, the distribution of stocks, and the relationship between the stockholders and the management. We shall be interested in matters affecting the workers, such as the systems of management and work, the education and pay of the personnel, the opportunity for advancement for the average worker, and the incomes and living conditions of the workers. We shall want to inquire about kinds and sources of important raw materials, the main process of manufacturing, the volume of production, the sphere and organization of marketing, methods of transportation, the burden of taxation, and the relationship of the factory to local social and economic life.

The United States is comparatively sparsely populated. The result is that the farms are large and there is abundant opportunity to use modern farm machinery. Its agriculture is very different from that in more thickly populated countries. But the story of American agriculture is, nevertheless, valuable for us. The general tendency of agriculture here is to decrease labor and land, and increase production. The chief factors which serve to increase production are improved fertilizing methods, the development of seeds and of stock breeds to resist disease and increase production, the control of pests, and the use of modern machinery. The United States has about 1,750,000 tractors to do

various kinds of farm work from plowing, sowing, and harvesting to pumping water. Much farm machinery is highly efficient. For instance, when a harvesting machine passes over a wheat field, it cuts the wheat, threshes *it*, gathers it into sacks, and lays bundles of stalks on the furrows. Ingenious devices such as potato diggers and pea shellers also save a tremendous amount of human labor.

A century ago seventy-five per cent of America's population had to farm in order to feed the nation. Only twenty-five per cent of the present population are farmers. As a result of technological advances, they not only produce enough to feed the nation but have a surplus to sell on the international market. Many operators of commercialized farms are college graduates in agricultural sciences. When the demand for food increased tremendously during the war, American farmers and technique rose to meet the situation. Thus, agricultural production was thirteen per cent higher in 1942 than in 1941. In 1942, production was twenty-eight per cent higher than in the average year between 1935 and 1939. Such technological progress in agriculture is a valuable consideration for us when visiting farms. Another interesting feature is the efforts of the government to help the farmer to improve production and rural life. For example, the government helps farmers with long- and short-term loans, in establishing cooperative enterprises, in adopting new techniques, in determining the kinds and amounts of crops to be produced each season in order to meet market needs, in improving and conserving land, and in rural electrification. Such efforts are important contributions to the improvement of American farming techniques and farmers' livelihood. Only eleven per cent of American farms used electricity in 1935; by 1943 the percentage had increased to thirty-seven per cent. With electricity, the farmer enjoys many modern comforts in his living and his work. The electric motor has taken from him a great deal of back-breaking labor.

Most American farmers have had no higher education. How, then, do they know how to adopt new techniques and machinery, and to utilize government assistance? This is a question well worth investigation. In rural areas of the United States there are 9,000 agricultural extension workers, especially trained in agricultural science and home economics, 3,700 assistants, and 2,000 home demonstrators, in addition to a vast number of volunteer workers. All these workers help the farmers to utilize governmental assistance, direct them in adopting new techniques and improving their home life, and teach them to derive benefits from organized action. In addition, the farmers have their own organizations such as the Grange, Farm Bureau, Farmers' Union, Farmers' Cooperative Council, Livestock Marketing Association, Modern Cooperative Association, and the Milk Producers Federation. These important nation-wide organizations have contributed greatly to the improvement of agricultural methods, and to the farmers' interests and livelihood. The most important among them is the

Grange, which has local branches throughout the country and a total membership of 2,000,000. The 4-H Clubs, with a national membership of 1,600,000, are of importance for youth on the farms. Their work in improving the health, character, knowledge, and group life of the young people on American farms has been very valuable.

In visiting a farm, one should keep in mind such questions as the size of the farmer's family, the area of his farm, the variety and quantity of crops, the equipment and environment of his home life, and the problem of the children's education in a sparsely populated area. It will be of interest to learn the method by which he sells his produce, his experience in learning new techniques and buying new machinery, the ways in which he receives government assistance, the organizations to which he and his family belong, the activities in which they take part, and the benefits they derive from these activities.

INSTITUTIONS FOR MASS EDUCATION

By institutions for mass education we mean elementary and secondary schools, public libraries, and museums. Whether in a large city or a humble town, we always find the large public school building. It is frequently the most modernized building in a community. In 1900, only eleven per cent of American children from the age of 11 to 17 were attending high school full time. By 1943, they had increased to seventy-three per cent. At the present time, ninety-three per cent of all high schools in the United States are free, being supported by public taxation. In earlier periods, the aim of high school education in this country was merely to prepare youth to enter college. But now, in addition to college preparation, the high school emphasizes vocational training, citizenship, and cultural education, so that a youth without the opportunity to go on to college can possess a trade to earn an independent living and have an educational foundation for becoming a good citizen.

With this as a general background, when we visit a public school we may take note of its educational equipment, its expenditures, the age and qualifications of the teaching staff, the number of students and the approximate percentage of school-age children in the community attending school, the methods of enforcing compulsory education (some communities have truant officers to look for children not attending school), extra-curricular activities, the nature of courses, recent methods of teaching, the use of the motion picture and radio in teaching, etc. Public school courses in wartime were especially interesting. The wartime American high school turned into a factory, producing fighters for the battlefields and the home front. It offered short-term courses, day and night, on industrial trades to train workers for war industries: courses on military training, aeronautical engineering, principles of mechanics and electricity, automobile engineering, meteorology, typography, drafting, blueprint reading, radio, public health,

home nursing and nutrition. All these courses were taught by simple methods. After passing such courses, a youth could easily become an excellent member of the air force, the mechanized forces, or other types of technical combat service, or be fitted for medical service at the front or to assist in maintaining health at home, where the supply of doctors and nurses is depleted by the war.

In visiting a school we should not center our attention exclusively on teaching, but should inquire into the relationship between the school and the local community. This is especially important in small towns and rural areas, because their local inhabitants often use the school as a center of community life. Even in large cities, high schools frequently offer day and evening courses to adults on trades, English, citizenship, and other subjects. They also hold discussion groups and lectures for local people. These activities have an important influence on the development of American life. The public schools generally have Parent-Teachers' Associations, which establish close relationships between school and family education, and give the parents a voice in determining school policies.

In addition to the public schools, an interesting educational institution to visit is the new Progressive School. The progressive schools do not emphasize classroom study. They combine work and learning, teaching a student to carry on a project, such as opening a store or publishing a book, and awakening the student's interest in the many fields of knowledge necessary to carry out the project. Students are required to participate in community life by visiting factories, laboratories, housing projects, stores, farms, and local or state legislatures. The students organize model legislatures to learn the procedure of proposal, discussion, and decision by vote. Teaching materials include books, periodicals, motion pictures, radio broadcasts, and other matters of everyday life. The students are encouraged to discuss freely what they see in the moving pictures and what they hear on their radios, in order to combine learning with the problems in real life. Such progressive education is developing rapidly in the United States.

The development of the public library in America is an important contribution to modern civilization. Excluding libraries attached to colleges and technical organizations, the United States has 6,500 public libraries, with a total of 106,000,000 books. Every year 26,000,000 people borrow books from them; that is to say, one out of every four or five Americans uses the public library. The public library in the United States continues to develop. It contributes greatly to the increase of common knowledge among the people, and the lifting of the American cultural level. Wherever you go, especially in the eastern states, you will find public libraries where large numbers of people, young and old, are absorbed in books or thumbing catalogues. You will find, even in a small library, that the variety and number of books is quite considerable.

The librarian will welcome the visit of a foreign student to his or her library. In visiting a public library we may inquire about the kinds and the number of books in it, the number and age groups of those who use it, the kinds of books lent, cost of maintenance, system of management, the number, qualifications, and working conditions of the personnel, and methods used to encourage people to read the books. The last question is of considerable importance. Many public libraries cooperate closely with public schools in supplementing the school library and encouraging the students to read. Many also hold public lectures, interesting the people in using the library facilities; some make special efforts to supply discussion or study groups with reading materials. Whenever interesting new books are bought by the libraries, posters are put up to attract the attention of readers. Libraries in small towns supply books by mail to isolated farms. Circulating libraries on trucks also make a valuable contribution to the life of the rural population. The services of the 6,000 rental libraries in stores in various cities are an important supplement to mass education. When a new book has too many readers, one who does not want to wait for *it* in the public library will spend a few pennies a day to *get it* from one of these rental libraries.

Collecting curios and famous art objects used to be the privilege of kings, the nobility, and the rich. Though one or two museums had been established in a crude fashion in Europe in the eighteenth century, the founding of public museums is a story of the past three decades. In this democratic movement, many rich men in America have presented invaluable collections to the public museums. There are now 224 museums and art galleries, not including many commercialized museums, scattered throughout the country. In these public museums the common people may enjoy the treasures of various periods in history as well as the cultural artifacts from various lands. Many museums cooperate with the schools to enable students to see the concrete objects of certain periods or certain countries when they study the subjects in class. Large museums have publications and guides to explain the collections to visitors, as well as public lectures to enable the visitors to gain a better understanding of the collections.

There are many varieties of museums: historical museums, museums of natural history, geological museums, zoos, botanical gardens, aquariums, galleries of modern art, museums of industry, and other specialized museums. On historical sites there are frequently museums containing articles belonging to a certain historical episode or certain historical personalities, for example, the homes of Washington and Jefferson. Planetariums are another interesting type of museum. They can be found in both New York and Chicago. One does not need my knowledge of astronomy to appreciate the things displayed in them. One of the famous art galleries is the National Gallery of Art in Washington, D. C., which was built at a cost of \$15,000,000 for the building

alone. The Whitney Museum in New York is rich in American art. New York has many famous museums, such as the Metropolitan Museum of Art, which has invaluable treasures of all the countries of the world, and the Museum of Modern Art, a distinctly new type of institution where one can see modern paintings, famous pieces of photography, industrial models and designs, and motion pictures of special significance.

RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS AND SOCIAL SERVICE INSTITUTIONS

We who come from China are already acquainted with the activities of American missionaries abroad. The work of foreign missionaries occupies an important place in modern Chinese history and has aroused many controversial questions. When we come to the United States, we see church steeples everywhere towering above other buildings as if standing in meditation over the entire American people. We should, therefore, take the opportunity offered by our sojourn here to visit the very source of the American missionaries who go to China, and look at the organization and activities of religious bodies and the place they occupy in American life. Any minister will welcome a visit to his church by foreign students. Following is a brief introduction to a visit to American religious organizations.

America has 256 religious organizations of various kinds, with a total church membership of 67,000,000, or half of the entire population. We find an amazing variety of religious beliefs in this country, with its constitutional freedom of worship. The largest is the Protestant Church, which has 36,800,000 members and consists of many branches, such as the Methodist and Presbyterian. Next in number is the Catholic Church, with 22,900,000 members. The third largest is the Jewish faith, which has a membership of 4,600,000. Then come the lesser groups, such as the Christian Science and the Mormons. It is a very interesting fact that a country of high scientific development has this large number of religious beliefs and church members. When we visit a church we may make inquiries as to the influence of worship in present-day life, the size of membership, its increase or decrease, the age group of those who attend church regularly, and the influence of war and peace on attendance. Answers to such questions will show us the place of religion in American life, and its growth or decline.

The functions of the church in America are not confined to prayer and worship but include many activities, the most important of which is education. The American churches have established schools in the United States as well as in China, and other countries. Religious influence in American education is still very great, especially among the Catholics. In 1942, the Catholic Church had 7,647 elementary schools with 2,048,723 students, 1,522 high schools,*638 girls* colleges and academies, 131 men's colleges, and 193 theological seminaries. The

number of schools established by other churches is also large.

American churches are very active in the matter of publicity. There are no less than 1,000 newspapers and periodicals, with a circulation of about 13,000,000 published by religious organizations. In 1942, there were 656 books published on religious subjects. The best seller in the United States is still the Bible, of which 8,000,000 copies were sold in 1941. Radios throughout the country broadcast religious sermons of many faiths on Sunday. The use of man's newest invention to spread man's oldest thought is certainly one of the interesting contrasts in American civilization. Many Americans like to sit home on a comfortable sofa and listen to the radio giving out words of godly exhortation over the ether waves.

One of the most important religious activities is social service. In addition to joint activities by various faiths, each faith has numerous social service agencies of its own. The Catholic faith alone has the following institutions: 316 children's homes, 75 homes for placing foster children, 60 homes for delinquent girls and 70 for delinquent boys. In 1941, 689 Catholic hospitals had 2,300,000 patients. Protestant social service agencies in 1942 included 374 hospitals, 400 children's homes, 210 old people's homes, 230 settlement houses, 1,817 Y. M. - C. A.'s, and 550 Y. W. C. A.'s. The Jewish social service agencies in 1942 totaled 208. So when we visit American churches, besides observing what is going on inside the church, we should consider their practical work in bringing God's Kingdom to earth, their educational institutions, the number of people benefited through the social service agencies, and their methods of carrying on work and of raising funds.

In any country and under any social system, we inevitably find such unfortunate elements as the crippled, the subnormal, the mentally diseased, the orphaned, and the poverty stricken. We find, however, a difference in the way a nation or a community handles these elements, against whom fate has discriminated. In America, welfare agencies will subsidize families with too many dependents, the unemployable aged, the crippled, and other unfortunate people. Even a beggar who falls unconscious on the street will receive ambulance service. Other categories of unfortunates are cared for by specialized institutions. Religious organizations contribute to a great extent to these, but the people in general, civic organizations, and the government all play important parts. If you read the daily paper, the advertisements in buses or the reports of public organizations, you will invariably see pleas for contributions for many activities. These may include giving aid to poor families and children in winter, sending underprivileged children to fresh air camps in the summer, and help for victims of paralysis and the blind. These activities are carried on by such organizations as the Red Cross, the Salvation Army, or the Community Chest, which is for the benefit of all the welfare agencies in a community. In wartime, the number and variety of these agencies asking for con-

tributions for home and abroad are multiplied. When walking on busy streets and elsewhere in big cities, it is difficult to avoid having a contribution box stuck under your nose. Even workers, who organize strikes to get a raise of a small amount in their wages, contribute more than hundreds of thousands of dollars for welfare purposes, through their unions. The Americans who do not forget, even in their dreams, the matter of making a fortune and who hop out of bed at the crack of dawn to earn a few dollars, contribute \$100,000,000 annually to social welfare agencies throughout the country. "Pep, thrift, and service" * is the American motto. There is considerable truth to the saying that Americans have...hard, heads and soft hearts.

Since organization and science are as important as air to Americans, they put even the contributions of their soft heart through the mills of scientific organization and investigation. Thus we find well-organized, specialized social services spreading from local to national scope, and numerous institutions specifically for training social workers. The task of helping the unfortunate has become the work of scientifically trained personnel. The purpose of this scientific treatment of social problems is not only to make effective use of contributions but also to bring about a more rational solution of the problems of victims of fate or the social system. Private foundations devote a great amount of work and research to attacking the root of these problems. More important still has been the trend during the past few decades toward social legislation.

A visit to a social service agency will be valuable for us. Here we may inquire into the nature and organization of the work, the methods used to help the unfortunate, the approximate number of people benefited, and the situation of the victim after receiving help. We shall be interested in learning about the training of the institution's personnel, the amount and source of its income, the methods of raising funds, and the work on similar problems by other private or government agencies.

PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS

America is generally known as a highly individualistic nation. Everyone is meticulous about maintaining his own rights and his freedom. But in individualistic America there is, at the same time, great enthusiasm for organizing. The number of public agencies in any local community is amazing. Such an organization is usually started among the local people of a community, but if its purpose and activities meet the needs of people throughout the nation it will spread rapidly, with similar local organizations springing up everywhere. These will soon merge into city, state, and national bodies with enormous influence. This method of organization from the bottom up is symbolic of America's democracy and very suitable to the individualistic Americans. The main types of public organizations described in the following pages will serve as an introduction for our visits.

The leading organizations among business circles are the Chamber of Commerce and the Rotary Club, each with thousands of local units and hundreds of thousands of members. Businessmen's organizations of this type not only promote business interests and foster fellowship among members, but also hold discussion meetings and lectures by well-known authorities on problems of national and international interest. They publish periodicals and conduct research in their own fields, and sponsor campaigns for charities. These activities have notably lifted the moral standards and increased the understanding of social problems among business leaders. A generation ago, big businessmen in this country were interested chiefly in furthering their own selfish interests. They indulged in frightful waste in their personal life. We cannot say that American business leaders today have entirely given up their wasteful mode of living, but their deeds and words show a concern for public interest which was rare in them a generation ago. The discussions and lectures undoubtedly contributed greatly to this changed attitude.

The general tendency to organize has not, of course, passed the working class by. In 1940, there were 12,000,000 workers in this country belonging to unions. One of the main objectives of these unions is to utilize lawful collective bargaining power to improve the workingman's condition. The labor union has become an important voice in legislation. But aside from this, the union utilizes its power to improve the knowledge, health, and welfare of its workers. Workers' unions arrange discussion and study groups, and lectures; they publish newspapers and periodicals; establish schools, banks and employment bureaus for workers. They also arrange for sickness and life insurance, and provide numerous facilities for recreation. Several outstanding unions even have their own housing projects for members. The head of a labor union sometimes commands an annual salary as high as \$100,000. The American labor unions have been in the vanguard of many social, economic, and political reforms.

Women have also been very active in establishing organizations. In 1937, the American Federation of Women's Organizations had 14,500 member organizations, with a total membership exceeding 2,000,000. There are also many women's clubs and associations not included in the Federation. These organizations have exercised considerable force in raising the status of women, improving local education, public health and welfare, and in bettering their home life and housekeeping methods. Women's organizations have been very influential in the development of America's cultural life. The dinners, teas, lectures, and study groups which the present-day American woman attends have made her distinctly different from her counterpart of a generation ago, in her knowledge of social and political problems, family welfare, and in her entire outlook on life.

The laudable habit of organizing among its men and women has been

the foundation of America's progress in peacetime. In time of war, these countless organizations turned into nerve centers for national mobilization and unity. Thus, only a year after the United States entered the war, a gigantic organization of more than 5,000,000 people had been built up to undertake the vast task of civilian defense. Civilian defense work was based chiefly upon the people's organizations, with all members serving on a voluntary basis. After brief training, they engaged in various types of civilian defense, serving as airplane spotters, air raid wardens, emergency drivers or messengers, auxiliary firemen, rescue squads, nurses* aides, and auxiliary police. They were organized into bomb squads, squads for clearing, for road repair and decontamination, and those in charge of emergency food and living quarters. Each type of work had from tens of thousands to over a million volunteer workers, systematically organized for emergency work at any time. Public organizations were also very effective in mobilizing men and women to work in war factories, to maintain public health, to increase the food supply by planting victory gardens; in urging the people to save their money to buy bonds and thus curb inflation. Without the numerous public organizations in peacetime as a foundation, the individualistic Americans would never have been able to mobilize so effectively.

GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS

Here, the first thing to be observed is the American election. During our sojourn in the United States, even if we do not encounter the "big show" of a presidential election, we shall probably see one or two of the side shows of local elections. Our professors, the college authorities, or members of public organizations such as the Rotary Club will help us to understand the American election by explanation and by personal visits. We may inquire into such matters as the organization and activities of political groups, the qualifications of the voter, legislative procedure, the methods of electing candidates for positions of various types, the party conventions, the organization of the poll, the actual procedure of voting, and the methods used by parties to secure votes. The lively show of a political campaign may be followed in the newspapers, magazines, over the radio, and at meetings sponsored by political parties. We should look for the main issues raised by various parties as well as their platforms, the methods of criticizing the party in power, the limitations on campaigning methods, and the ways of getting votes. Cartoons in the press will frequently show the fundamental attitude of Americans toward elections. A little explanation by American friends will enable us to see interesting political facts in such cartoons.

It is important to visit the legislature in a city, a state, or in Congress. There we shall see members debate an issue freely from many conflicting angles. But the process of American legislation is not

limited to such debates and voting on the floor, as we shall see in our visit. An important piece of legislation is generally first brewed among members of the legislature and among the people. During this brewing stage, public opinion on the issue is fully aired in the press and on the radio, as well as on the floor of the legislature. Then the divergent opinions gradually crystallize into concrete proposals which are handed to committees (Legislatures of smaller towns often do not have committees but take up the proposal directly on the floor.) In the committees, the divergent proposals are gradually eliminated through compromises and a single proposal is evolved. The committee frequently holds public hearings at this stage, inviting representatives of organizations and outstanding personalities to testify and *give* their opinions. Individuals and organizations also write or wire their congressmen at this time urging their rejection or support of the proposal. If the proposal is passed in the committee, *it* will be placed on the floor of the legislature for open debate and final decision by vote. If it is passed on the floor and signed by the President or head of a local government, the proposal, crystallized from public opinion, will become law. Before visiting a legislature we must study the newspapers and periodicals, and ask American friends about the issue pending on the floor, its background, the divergent opinions expressed in the press and radio, the activities in its favor by public organizations, and the work of the committee. In this way we shall be able to see the process by which the opinion of the people finally becomes law.

When visiting a court, one may inquire about its organization, the method of electing or appointing judges of various types, and the terms and powers of the judges. We shall want to learn the system of selecting jury members, the workings of the jury system, the rights of the defendant and the privilege of the poor to enjoy free counsel. It is especially valuable to visit cases in which a private individual sues the government, since this type of case tells the story of the law's independence of governmental power in the American political system.

The city or town in which our college is located will probably have a municipal government, and we should take this opportunity to visit the executive branch of the local government to learn of the general system of its organization. We may visit the public educational institutions, the fire house, the public works department, the facilities for public recreation, the welfare bureau, and public housing projects. We shall be interested in the various activities of the police department, in the public health work, the water works and methods of fixing water rates, and in the facilities and management of public recreation. We may investigate the municipal hospitals to see the results of their work; the system of civil service examinations, and inquire about the privileges and pay of public servants.

One of the most valuable of the public works projects for the foreign student to visit is the Tennessee Valley Authority. *News Notes* pub-

lished by the United States Department of State, July 1, 1944, contained the following interesting statement regarding the T. V. A. by Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt: "I am hoping that in China the Tennessee Valley Authority, which for us is a very interesting experiment, may prove a useful study. The outstanding fact about the Tennessee Valley Authority is that a region has been developed not for any particular interest but for the good of the people of the region. For instance, the river is not wholly controlled for power nor for navigation nor for flood control, but all these objectives have been properly considered as a part of a great plan. New industries are appearing along the river because it is open for transportation and there is power for distribution at low cost in the area.

"One of the big plants producing phosphate has made a contribution by improving the land on which the people live, but at the same time reforestation has not been neglected. Soil erosion has been controlled, schools have been built, recreation for the people in the form of parks and playgrounds has been included as part of the well-rounded development. In fact, this is the total development for the good of the whole region and it seems to me that in all parts of the world this may be a pattern of value."

Chapter Fourteen

ETIQUETTE AND CUSTOMS

This chapter has very special reference to Chinese as foreign students, but includes material which is of value to foreign students in general.

"Inquire about the customs when you enter a country, and inquire about what is forbidden by law when you come into a new land." This old adage of Confucius is appropriate for Chinese or other foreign students studying in the United States since it points out for us the most important way of adjusting ourselves to the American way of life. Although there are many books on etiquette in English, the best way in which to learn American customs is by observation. This chapter gives only a few crucial points.

American teachers and friends are generous in their praise of the good manners and good behavior of Chinese students. In our ordinary social intercourse with Americans, however, we should take into consideration their innate informality, their dislike of excessive politeness and formality. Americans will start to "kid" each other on very short acquaintance. Although we cannot call our professors by their first names indiscriminately, we can do so with friends, new and old. Modesty is a Chinese virtue, but excessive modesty will not be understood by Americans. For example, if someone compliments you, do not utter a series of "no's" as this might lead an American to think you did not appreciate his good intention in complimenting you; just say, "Thank you," or "I am glad you like it."

Americans love humor, as do the Chinese, and it will help in social gatherings to tell a few Chinese jokes and stories. After telling a joke, however, do not laugh before others do as the American sense of humor may differ from ours. We must learn the American sense of humor as a result of our social experiences and from cartoons because humor is effective in starting a friendship.

In democratic America, the spirit of equality prevails in all human relationships, especially in college life. We may be polite, but not excessively humble, in our contact with people of higher rank, such as teachers and officials. Our friends, rich or poor, we must treat as equals. There is no necessity of apologizing for things Chinese. As labor holds a respected place in this country, we must be courteous to servants and store clerks. This is especially true in a college environment where students often earn part of their expenses by working in restaurants, private homes, boarding houses, and stores. When re-

questing something from a servant or store clerk it is customary to say "please," and when the service is rendered, to say "thank you."

In general, Americans are very businesslike in money matters. One seldom sees people in this country fighting to pay the bill in a restaurant. 'Dutch treat'—meaning that each person pays for his own meal—is usual among friends or between a teacher and students, unless it is understood that it is an invitation. This custom, which might cause one to lose face elsewhere, is common in the United States. An American friend once said to me, "Neither of us is well-to-do. I like to go out with you very much, but if you or I insist on paying the bill all the time, we cannot afford to go out together very often. On the other hand, if each of us pays separately, we can go out together more often." When going with a woman, however, it is customary for the man to pay the bill.

Americans who live by speed and efficiency, are very meticulous about time, and expect one to be prompt and punctual in a business or social engagement. Keeping others waiting is considered impolite. If for some reason you cannot be on time, you may telephone or write so that others will not have to waste time waiting for you. In a business appointment, come to the point quickly and leave as soon as the discussion is over. In social calls on persons with whom you are not well acquainted, do not remain more than half an hour, unless the host has plenty of time and insists that you stay longer.

Answer all invitations promptly by letter or phone, especially when they contain the request "R.S.V.P." When an invitation is given verbally, one must accept or decline immediately by saying, "I shall be delighted to come," or "I am sorry I have another engagement at that time, but I appreciate your kind invitation." Do not say merely, "Thank you," and leave your host uncertain as to whether you will come or not. At a tea party one introduces oneself to the guests as there are generally no formal introductions. Do not smoke when no one else in the room is doing so—at least not before asking permission. Put your cigarette ashes into an ash tray so that it will not be necessary for them to be swept up. Other matters of cleanliness must also be observed. Always carry a clean handkerchief and when using it, avoid making any obtrusive noise.

Type your business letters whenever possible. In the case of personal correspondence, letters written by hand are an expression of friendship. If you have so many friends that it is impossible to correspond with them, a card at Christmas or New Year's will serve to renew the friendship.

In the matter of table etiquette, you may follow your hostess or your neighbor, or inquire of your neighbor. If the other guests bow their heads to pray, do likewise. If there is a whole battery of knives and forks at your place at the table, use the outside ones first and work inward toward the plate. The shorter knife is for butter, the longer for

meat. **The** teaspoon or ordinary sized spoon is for tea or coffee; the larger one for soup. Short forks are for salad or dessert. When tumblers have long stems, take them up by the body, not by the stem. Use your hands to eat olives, celery, nuts, etc. Help the lady at your right to *get* seated by pulling the chair out for her to *get* in, and then pushing *it* in slightly as she sits down.

It is customary to take off your hat upon entering a home, a public or private building, an elevator in a residence, a theater, or restaurant. When the American flag is being carried by or raised, remove your hat as an expression of respect for a friendly nation, and to avoid being stared at by others around you.

When meeting a friend or being introduced to someone, *it* is not always necessary to shake hands; sometimes a slight bow will suffice unless the other person extends his hand. When a lady is introduced to a man, he does not shake hands with her; she extends her hand*. If the lady does not do so, just say, "how do you do," with a smile. It is unnecessary for a lady to rise when being introduced. When walking on the street with a girl, a man walks on the outside, near the street (to protect her from danger). The girl walks in the center when walking with two men, but the man walks on the outside when with two girls. A man does not take a girl's arm except when crossing the street. When entering a room, he opens the door and holds it for the girl to go in first. In the early days of America, women were treated with high esteem because they were few in comparison with the male population in the frontier community. The respect for women in medieval Europe, and the outstanding activities of women in the cultural field in this country during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries are factors contributing to women's present privileged position in American social life. We should observe the general practice of giving women special consideration in social life.

Most American girls will talk to Chinese men students at social gatherings but do not wish to have dates; with them. This is due to the general social attitude toward colored races, although as individuals they may not discriminate against us. There are some American girls, however, who defy the conventions in this regard. This is especially true in a college having very few Chinese students and where our character and academic records are outstanding. It appears that non-college girls are more willing than college girls to have dates with us.

Before asking an American girl for a date, observe her willingness to associate with Chinese students, in order to avoid humiliation. When making a date, ask the girl over the telephone or personally if she is free to go out, at the same time telling her the type of entertainment, so she can decide whether she would like to accept. If she accepts she will want to be told the nature of the occasion in order to know how to dress. **After** making the engagement, be **at** the appointed place **promptly**. **When attending a formal dance with a girl, secure a cab or**

automobile so she will not soil her evening dress by walking on the street. It is customary to send her flowers for such an occasion. After arriving at the party, introduce her to the hostess, dance the first and the last dance with her, and see that she gets refreshments when they are served. When asking a girl to dance, one may say, "May I have the pleasure of this dance?" When you compliment a girl on her beauty, she will appreciate your using some Chinese expressions and explaining them to her. Do not, however, overdo it. Never joke about a girl's being too plump or too thin, or possessing any unattractive feature. When taking a girl to a show, go in first to give the ticket to the usher, then let her precede you to choose the seat, and help her to remove her wrap.

Your behavior is exceedingly important when going out with an American girl, as you may be the first Chinese with whom she has ever had a date, and on your shoulders may rest her lifelong impression of the Chinese race as a whole. You will win respect and friendship when you use Chinese virtues rather than imitating cheap motion picture technique.

The Canadian Mission Press in Chengtu, Szechuan, published a useful booklet, *Western Manners*, by Earl and Katharine Willmott, which contains the following important points:

When invited to a meal, arrive promptly—about five minutes before the time set.

If you are invited to stay overnight in a friend's house where there is no servant and the work is done by your hostess, you should offer to help with the housework, such as washing the dishes. Participate in the work and play of the family. Distribute your conversation among the various members of the family, and say a few appreciative words about the food or the home. Always write a note of thanks to your hostess when you get home.

Do not make a noise when drinking your soup; in fact, it is poor manners to make any kind of noise when eating. Cover your mouth with a napkin if you have to cough or choke. Food is served at your left side so that you can take it conveniently with your right hand. When it is served at your right, it is meant for your neighbor. A small portion of bread is broken from the piece, buttered separately and eaten; the whole piece is not buttered at once. When food is passed to a man, it is polite for him to offer it first to the lady next to him or ask if he may serve her. She will return it to him, and then it is passed by her again to the next gentleman. Do not use a tooth pick or clean your teeth in any way until you are alone.

When visiting a sick person, obey the doctor's orders as to visiting hours and do not excite him with emotional scenes. Do not talk about his illness, as this is not good for a patient. Talk about cheerful interesting things.

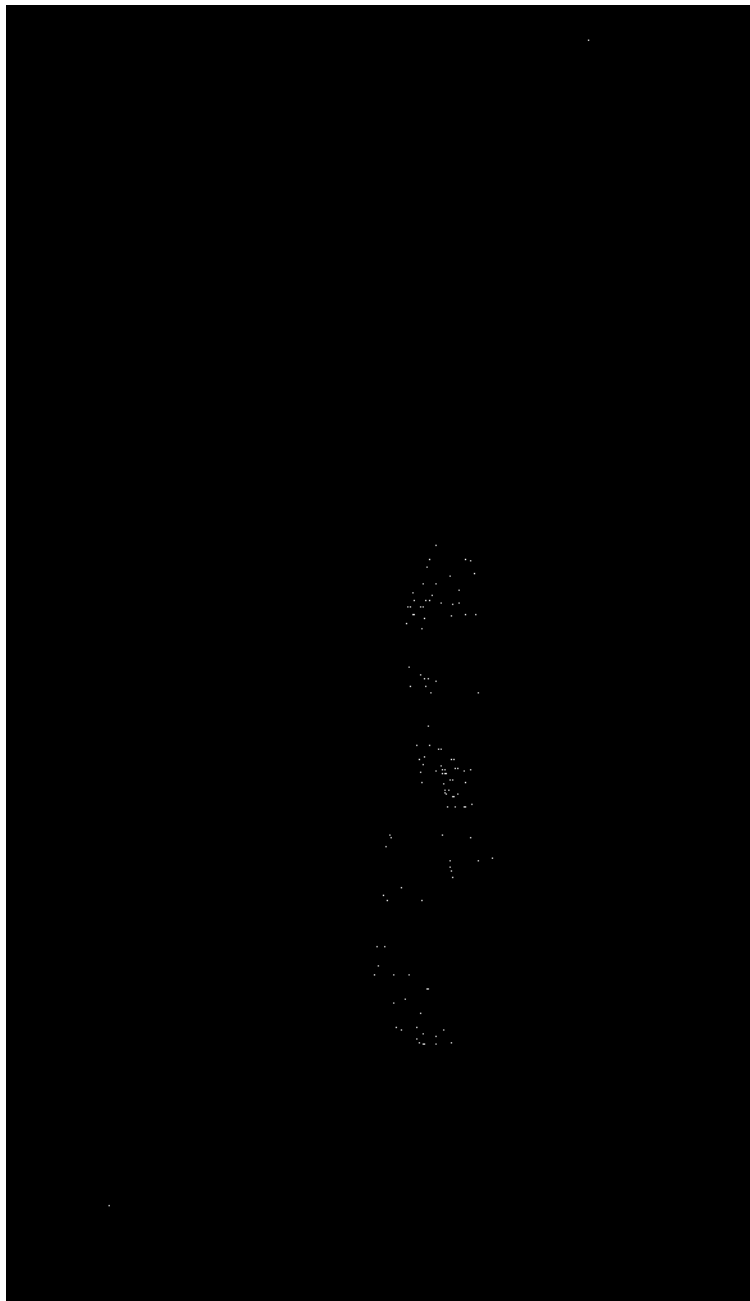
Avoid talking in theaters, concerts, and in church.

In a small group of American friends, it is not polite for two people to speak in Chinese or any unfamiliar language that the others do not understand.

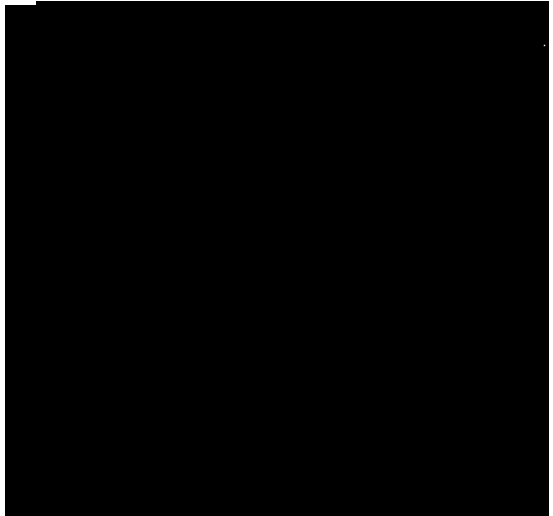
In conversation, do not be inquisitive about the private affairs of others. It is considered rude to read other people's letters or papers or what others are writing.

Avoid scratching the head or any part of the body when you are with others.

It is customary to say "pardon me" or "excuse me" in the following circumstances: if you accidentally touch or brush against someone; if you must pass in front of someone; if it is necessary to interrupt a conversation, or if you disturb someone at work or playing a game. In reply, one should just say, "certainly," or simply smile.



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Above—Western Sheep Herder

Lck—Mountains Near Washington University

Chapter Fifteen

RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

Most Chinese students have experienced racial discrimination when looking for a room in an American city or town. Although a sign clearly reads "Rooms to Let, "the landlady, when seeing our yellow skins, will frequently say "Sorry, they are all rented.*" Sometimes a frank landlady will tell us that she does not rent to Orientals. Students who choose to live in a dormitory may escape this' particular mortification, but on many social occasions they cannot escape discrimination. If you remain in this country for some time, you will learn that racial prejudice is not directed exclusively against any one race but is general. Jews have the same difficulty in renting a room or residence. There is a difference, however, since the Europeans may soon be assimilated into America's social structure, while the color of our skin makes assimilation more difficult.

In the course of every nation's development there are sins as well as glories, and racial prejudice seems to be a sin of the American nation, which has developed at such record speed. It is evident from history that a long time is required to harmonize the interests and patterns of living of various races within a nation. America's history is short, and not even the speed-minded Americans can hurdle the barrier of Time. In a century and a half she has grown from a small country of 3,000,000 people to a large nation of 135,000,000. During this "Brief period numerous races flooded into the country. America started early to face her racial problem. The country fought a bloody civil war, lasting four long years, to solve a racial problem; American leaders today are still campaigning for the harmony and unity of all races.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST THE CHINESE

When Chinese first arrived on the West Coast in the mid-nineteenth century, they were welcomed. Soon, however, economic friction and frontier conditions brought discrimination. When a depression followed the Civil War, the workers on the west coast blamed the unemployment upon the immigration of Chinese, and an anti-Chinese movement resulted in the first Exclusion law of 1882. After its passage by Congress, a period of violence against the Chinese began. For example, Chinese workers in a coal mine in Rock Spring, Wyoming, refused to join the white workers in a strike. A mob, armed with

rifles, went to the Chinese section of the community, fired into the flimsy houses, and drove Chinese men, women, and children into the hills. Although federal troops scattered the mob and jailed the leaders, the judges released them. Under the Constitution, the federal government could do little to mitigate the situation. However, President Cleveland made a strong statement against such violence and against the whole anti-Chinese movement in the West, and Congress paid indemnity for the dead and wounded.

After the turn of the century, anti-Chinese pressure had forced all Chinese workers out of the mines, railways, and other jobs directly competing with white labor. As a result, Chinese workers, who lacked skill in modern occupations and the opportunity to learn them, established themselves in restaurants, laundries, and domestic service. During this period many anti-Chinese leaders continued to point to the cheap wages for which the Chinese were willing to work and their inability to become assimilated. Now, however, discrimination is no longer due to economic causes, but to the lowly occupations in which most Chinese in this country are engaged; to China's weakness in the family of nations, and her cultural differences. Even students cannot entirely escape this discrimination. But as Chinese students have a higher cultural level and have no economic interest in American communities, their position is far better than that of Chinese laborers and small businessmen.

DEGREES OF DISCRIMINATION

The degree of discrimination against Chinese is not uniform throughout the country; there are marked local differences. The West coast is the headquarters of discrimination. There has never been any violence against the Chinese in the Midwest; in the South, where Chinese are engaged mostly in restaurants and the grocery trade and few, if any, run laundries, they enjoy fair treatment. In Utah and Nebraska and the vicinity there is practically no discrimination. There are local differences within each region. In cities like New York and Chicago where large numbers of Chinese congregate into "Chinatowns," discrimination is stronger than in small towns, where it is sometimes nonexistent. In colleges, as previously stated, it is generally proportionate to the number of Chinese students enrolled.

Discrimination also varies with individuals. In general, we may divide Americans into three types. The first, or die-hards, consider the Chinese an inferior race, whose ability is limited to doing laundry, cooking, and domestic work, who will work for wages however low, and who live poverty-stricken, unsanitary, and unprogressive lives. Politically, the die-hards are determined objectors to any improvement in the legal status of the Chinese. Socially they disdain association with Chinese. Fortunately, they are in the minority and are mostly older people who belong to the passing generation.

Americans of the second type are more numerous. They are infected by the attitude of social discrimination but harbor no hatred for the Chinese. Many have heard, from the die-hards, falsehoods and fantastic stories about the Chinese, which they do not entirely believe, in spite of the fact that they have had no opportunity for personal contact with them. They are very curious and like to talk to Chinese whenever possible, and may ask many strange questions concerning our life and ways.

To the third type belong the well educated or those who have had contacts with Chinese. They know our shortcomings but they realize our virtues, and admire our ancient and great civilization. They have high hopes for the future of China and are strongly opposed to the general attitude of prejudice. These American friends of China like to talk to Chinese, especially Chinese students, and will ask us about conditions in our homeland. In the war they were the main force in winning sympathy for China, in sending help, and in abolishing laws inimical to the Chinese.

Acts of discrimination frequently occur among Americans of the second type not because of any personal feeling against us but because of the general atmosphere. For instance, if you ask a landlady why she refuses to rent rooms to Chinese students, you will frequently receive the answer, "We should like to rent rooms to you, but if we did so American tenants would move out, leaving our rooms vacant."

If the first experience of a landlady in renting rooms to a Chinese student proves successful, she will welcome others. Chinese students living in American homes are usually careful about their behavior and try to do the right thing. Moreover, they usually pay their rent promptly when it is due. All these things make them welcome as tenants. But if the first experience proves a failure because the Chinese tenant is a black sheep, it will result in discrimination against others.

WAYS OF MITIGATING RACIAL PREJUDICE

Prejudice against the Chinese race has become a social attitude and cannot be abolished overnight. We must, however, make a beginning. The first step in this direction for a Chinese student is to avoid congregating in a few large centers and associating exclusively with students from his own country, and to make contacts with Americans whenever possible. We must be considerate with others in whatever we say and do, and must observe American customs, including cleanliness. Fruit skins and other food to be thrown away should be put into the garbage can, not left in the wastepaper basket to attract flies. Do not cook in your room if it is not permitted, and in an apartment avoid cooking Chinese food with too strong odors, which would annoy other tenants and might even result in your lease being cancelled. Loud talking, and noisy mahjong and card parties should be avoided in order to let your neighbors sleep or study in peace.

The most effective way of mitigating racial prejudice against us is by informing Americans about China and Chinese culture. Although we hope, of course, that American educational leaders will rise to take their share in this education, nevertheless the best teachers are Chinese Students in American colleges. There could be no better classroom than the environment in which we live; there could be no better teaching material than our own personal experiences in China and our attitude and behavior here. If we do not assume this responsibility we shall miss an opportunity of dispelling American prejudice against us. In fact, we should take up this responsibility in the spirit of missionaries.

Psychologically, racial prejudice often becomes a vicious circle. Hate breeds hate until mutual hatred becomes deeply rooted. But if one of the parties takes a magnanimous attitude and gives the other fellow a chance to understand him, the vicious circle may start to break. We naturally hope that Americans will take this attitude but we must not wait passively for them to do so; we must take the initiative. Whenever an opportunity presents itself, talk to Americans about China. Make as many American friends as possible and attend as many social and public gatherings as time permits. Once the ice is broken and the isolation overcome, prejudice will start to decrease.

In fact, our own brothers who sacrificed themselves in the long war against Japan have already broken the ice and have gained for us a great opportunity to begin solving the problem of racial prejudice. Liberal American leaders have succeeded in abolishing the anti-Chinese legislation that has accumulated during the past sixty years. In the debates on this legislation, the liberal members of Congress strongly emphasized that such unfair laws not only prevented friendly relations between China and the United States but represent a black spot on America's own record. President Franklin Roosevelt, in his letter calling upon Congress to abolish the Exclusion law, stated boldly that this country must correct her acts of inequity of the past six decades. American attitudes as well as American laws have moved in a favorable direction. At the public hearings in Congress when the repeal of the Exclusion Act was pending, although some labor leaders and organizations objected to admitting Chinese to this country on a quota basis, the objections of a few die-hards could not drown out the popular voice of the majority of the American people demanding equal treatment for the Chinese.

Here is an example. In the early part of 1944, the labor union of a famous electrical factory held a meeting in which a heated debate took place. Someone got up and said to his opponents, "What do you think we are, a bunch of Chinese dopes?" A barrage of boos immediately arose from the floor. Another worker got up and said, "Chinese are not dopes. They have fought for seven long years with almost nothing to fight with and continue the struggle through untold hard-

ships. I wish the Americans were dopey like the Chinese. You have greatly insulted one of our allies without any cause." His words caused cheers and applause, and the meeting fell into disorder. Finally, the chairman had to make the first speaker apologize for his remark about the Chinese before order was restored. It was noticeable that there was not one Chinese present at that meeting. This could not have happened before the war.

Wherever we go today, Americans ask about the war in China and express admiration for our stamina. The voice demanding help for China was heard throughout the length and breadth of the land. How much these expressions of good will actually contributed to our war against aggression is a question we shall leave aside in this book, but at least they show a change in the general American attitude toward the Chinese as a race. Our responsibility is to grasp this opportunity and to try to accelerate the movement.

The anti-Chinese law has been wiped off the federal law book; the task that lies before us is to wipe the traditional discrimination from the American mind, since it is now entirely a problem of social attitude. Although we shall not find this discrimination everywhere in America and in all Americans, we shall have ample opportunity to take up this task. The complete abolition of discrimination may have to await the time when the occupational status of the Chinese residents here is improved, and when the national level of China's education, science, and standard of living is raised. This day will come sooner if Chinese students studying in the United States will utilize their opportunity to get acquainted with Americans and *give* them accurate information regarding China.

Chapter Sixteen

ESTIMATE OF EXPENSES

HOW MUCH DOES IT COST TO STUDY IN AMERICA?

The answer to this question depends upon the school a student selects and the type of course he takes. The Union Central Life Insurance Company, in 1940, published a little pamphlet on college education in the United States, in which the average annual expenses for 288 colleges were listed. They are as follows:

Number	of	colleges	Cost per year
99			\$400- \$600
87			\$601- \$800
64			\$801-\$1,000
16			\$1,001-\$1,200
22			\$1,201-\$1,500

Thus, the majority of American colleges cost approximately \$400-\$800 a year. These figures do not include vacation or summer school expenses, nor do they cover travel expenses from a student's homeland to the United States. Moreover, they represent the prewar cost. For accurate figures one must secure the catalogue of the college he will attend, which will *give* the cost of tuition, fees, and living expenses.

In general, colleges on both the East and West coasts are more costly; they are less expensive in the Middle West and South, and most reasonable in the Southwest. In colleges on the coasts, a student frequently needs around \$1,500 a year, but there are many good colleges in the central and southern parts of the country where one can live on \$800-\$900. For example, only about \$900 a year is needed at Utah State Agricultural College, which has outstanding courses in irrigation and ranch management; \$900-\$1,000 at the University of Colorado, which is well known for its work in civil, electrical, and mechanical engineering; \$1,000 at George Peabody College for Teachers, which is eminent in the field of education and the social sciences. In addition to regional differences, college expenses for a girl are higher than for a man.

The main items of cost are tuition and living expenses. In general, tuition is higher in a private institution than in a state or other public college or university. The above mentioned pamphlet lists tuition charges as follows:

Number of colleges	Annual tuition
5	Under \$50
22	\$57-\$100
103	\$101-\$200
94	\$201-\$300
39	\$301-\$400
18	\$401-\$900

Thus the most common tuition charge is \$100-\$300 a year. These figures are for liberal arts and engineering courses; for such courses as medicine they are somewhat higher.

The biggest item in living expenses is room and board, which are listed in the pamphlet as follows:

Number of colleges	Monthly cost of room and board
16	Under \$20
98	\$21-\$30
104	\$31-\$40
45	\$41-\$50
20	\$51-\$60
4	\$61-\$80

Since this country's entrance into the war, the cost of living has risen considerably. The cost of living index shows an increase of twenty-seven per cent in December 1944 over the average for 1940. This index was based on the living costs of an average workingman's family. For students the cost of living may have increased even more and this increase must be considered when making financial estimates.

One must also add to the cost of study for one year in the United States, some \$50 for books and papers, \$5.00 a month for laundry, and a sum for social and miscellaneous expenses, the amount of which depends entirely on the individual. The cost of clothes is high for the first year. At the present time, an overcoat or suit costs about \$30-\$40; a pair of shoes, \$4.00-\$6.00; a hat, \$3.00-\$5.00; a haircut from 50 cents to \$1.00; a movie 50 cents to \$1.00. These are general minimum estimates which vary from place to place, with clothing more expensive in the West than in the East. In addition to funds for tuition, fees, room and board, one must have at least \$200 to meet miscellaneous expenses as well as the cost of living during vacations. To be safe, one should have some \$1200-\$1500 for the first year. An effective way of* reducing expenses is to live in a cooperative house. (See Chapter X.)

SCHOLARSHIPS AND FELLOWSHIPS

Students of high academic achievement who are handicapped by financial difficulties may try to obtain a scholarship to study in the United States. A liign school graduate is eligible for some scholar-

ships, but opportunities are more plentiful for college graduates. One may apply before leaving his homeland or may first study here for a year, during which he can look around for desirable scholarship opportunities.

The value of scholarships varies according to the type. The most valuable ones, such as the Rockefeller Foundation fellowships, include traveling expenses between a student's homeland and the United States, tuition, and living expenses. Some pay only tuition and living expenses; others include tuition, room and board. Scholarships covering tuition alone are the most plentiful and easiest to obtain.

Many United States colleges and foundations offer scholarships to foreign students. The catalogue of each college lists all the scholarships, fellowships and other financial aids to foreign students of limited resources and the necessary qualifications. In addition to securing college catalogues, one may inquire of such organizations as the Institute of International Education, the United States Office of Education, the Division of Cultural Cooperation of the Department of State, and the China Institute. These agencies have in their files, lists of various types of scholarships, the qualifications and other relevant information. Some of these organizations handle the granting of fellowships. Printed matter on available scholarships includes the following pamphlets: *Fellowship and Scholarships Open to Foreign Students for Study in the United States*, twenty-five cents, published by the Institute of International Education; *Fellowships Available at Institutions of Higher Learning*, issued by the United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Fellowships and Aids for Advanced Work*, issued by the Institute of Women's Professional Relations, Research Headquarters, Connecticut College, New London, Connecticut. These pamphlets contain detailed information on scholarships, fellowships, and stipends available at colleges, universities, and research organizations.

The first step in applying for a scholarship or fellowship is to secure a blank form from the institution offering it. In addition to the blank, other documents are necessary. Although requirements differ, the following are generally required: (1) two recent photographs; (2) two copies of the story of the applicant's life, written by him in English, giving his education, positions held, interests, the object in applying, and his plans after completion of study; (3) at least three letters of recommendation proving the student's academic ability from the professor, dean, or president of the institution in which he studied last; (4) transcripts of courses and grades. Closing dates for filing applications are usually the first of February or the first of March.

LOANS

Many American students are enabled to go through college by securing a loan of some kind. For example, at Brown University, which is well known for its work in higher mathematics and mathematics as

applied to engineering, forty per cent of the students receive some sort of loan or scholarship from the University. Many foreign graduates of Brown University have received such assistance. The most common form of loan is the deferment of tuition until one has graduated. After graduation, the loan is paid back with a low rate of interest. Although many schools have emergency loan funds, the amount one may borrow is very small and it must be repaid within a short time. Loans for living expenses are not common and are usually granted by independent foundations which are administered by the school. These are generally limited to \$100-\$300 a year, sufficient to defray less than a quarter of the college expenses. A foreign student must study here for a certain period before applying for such loans.

SELF-HELP

Who's Who in America contains the names of many prominent personalities who have worked their way through college. Many leaders in politics, industry, and education have done this by waiting on tables, washing dishes, scrubbing floors, managing dormitories, selling goods in stores, operating small businesses near the school, or by engaging in other humble occupations. As previously stated, the opportunity for a foreign student to work his way through college is limited by the Immigration law, but if he is determined to get a college education he can earn part of his expenses with his own hands. Every college has an employment office. Organizations on the campus interested in the welfare of foreign students, such as the International Center and the office of the foreign student counsellor, will assist in this matter, as will American friends, if you let them know you are in need.

In addition to the type of work which American students can do, a foreign student may utilize his cultural background and special abilities. In the case of Chinese students, for example, since the outbreak of the Pacific War, many United States colleges have established courses in Chinese language and culture. Chinese students of ability may find opportunities to teach or serve as assistants in such courses. Those who are good in Mandarin may find an opportunity to teach it by advertising on the bulletin board, in the college paper, or by registering with the college employment bureau. Many Americans now wish to learn Chinese and tutoring may bring as much as \$2.00 an hour. Opportunities for tutoring in the Chinese language are, of course, more numerous in institutions having Chinese classes. Students whose English is fluent may earn some money by lecturing on Chinese problems. Inquire at the college lecture bureau or of your professors for opportunities to lecture. Every big city has commercial lecture bureaus. These are listed in the classified telephone directories, and publications dealing with public lectures may be found in the libraries. A student may write to these bureaus, sending his

curriculum vitae and one or two letters of recommendation from professors. If one is accepted as a lecturer by a commercial bureau, a contract is signed. Commercial lectures bring from \$10 to \$100 for each lecture. Chinese students whose knowledge of English is good, may write or translate articles on China for publication in American newspapers and magazines. Remuneration for articles is frequently considerable. Those with artistic ability may paint Chinese pictures or greeting cards for sale at stores or to individuals.

SUMMER WORK

Working during the semester frequently hinders a student's academic work; working during vacation, however, will not do so and will have the advantage of increasing his contact with American life and improving his English. Summer work will be valuable in many ways and need not be confined to a student's college town. The nature of the work will be much the same as that of an ordinary American worker, and may be either skilled or unskilled. The latter includes such services as work in restaurants, selling goods in stores, and helping on farms. Many owners of Chinese restaurants, for instance, are glad to help Chinese students by hiring them as waiters, where their weekly pay including tips will amount to \$20-\$60. Farm work pays less but enables one to become acquainted with American farm life and practical farm technics. Moreover, meals on a farm are bountiful, and physical work in the fresh air and sunshine is potent in improving one's health. Working in a factory affords a student the opportunity to participate in, as well as observe, the system of industrial management and living conditions of American laborers. Skilled work may be obtained by students in such technical fields as engineering and agriculture. The summer camp offers one of the most common opportunities for summer work. In these camps, which are found in the woods or other scenic spots throughout the country, the American youth and children improve their health by outdoor life and sports. The work of a summer camp counsellor includes looking after the children, supervising various activities, teaching handicrafts, athletics, etc. Inquiries about such opportunities may be made of our own professors, foreign student counsellors, friends, and local organizations such as the Rotary Club. One may also secure information about them from newspaper advertisements and from such books as *Summer Camps*, published by Porter Sargent Company. The Institute of International Education has recently received a number of requests for foreign students to work in summer camps.

HEALTH AND ACCIDENT INSURANCE

It becomes a great financial burden if one suddenly becomes seriously ill or meets with an accident while studying in the United States. Therefore it is very wise to take out health and accident insurance.

The Institute of International Education has undertaken the task of making available health and accident insurance to foreign students at a reasonable cost. It offers two policies, one which costs \$12.50 for the academic year, with an additional charge of \$2.00 a month for vacations, and a second which costs \$15.50 for the calendar year. It is particularly important for students who wish to work during the summer to secure such insurance. According to the Grange, farmers hesitate to hire a foreign student who is not insured since, under American law, the employer is liable if a worker is injured while in his employ. Students who are interested in health and accident insurance may write directly to the Institute of International Education or to the China Institute for details about either policy.

Chapter Seventeen

RECREATION AND TRAVEL

RECREATION

America offers many forms of recreation such as theaters, art galleries, museums, zoological and botanical gardens, concerts, parks, sports, and various kinds of exhibits. The most popular recreation among Americans is, of course, sports. There are many recreational opportunities on the campus. Those who are interested in boating and fishing will have little difficulty in finding lakes and streams in the *vicinity* of the college. It costs only from 25¢ to \$1.00 an hour, or \$3.00 to \$5.00 a day or even less, to rent a rowboat. To fish in lakes and streams, one may have to secure a license, for which a small charge is made for the year. Salt water fishing is usually free. Every college will have woods and hills near by for hiking and picnicking, where facilities for simple cooking will usually be found. If there are no facilities, one can easily pile up a few rocks for a stove and pick up some branches for fuel.

To us who come from a crowded land, the richness of America's natural recreational facilities is an outstanding feature. If you go to a near-by gasoline station and *get* a free map of the college environs you will see numerous county and state parks dotting the map. Such parks are mostly woods, streams, and lakes in their natural state, with little alteration by man's hand, save for a few picnic stoves, tables, benches, and administrative buildings. These natural parks differ greatly from the highly artificial ones in the cities. They are frequently located at some distance from the city. Those who have cars can, of course, reach them conveniently; others may take a bus or other public conveyance or may even imitate the Americans by hitchhiking—a common practice with American students. If you stand on the side of the highway and raise your thumb in the direction you wish to go, you will find that cars will frequently stop to pick you up. The driver may not take you to your destination, but he will leave you as near as possible and you can "thumb" another ride. Many American students cross the entire Continent just by hitchhiking, without spending a penny for transportation. A foreign student should not encounter difficulty in hitchhiking, especially if he has a college emblem on his baggage. However, some communities prohibit hitchhiking and will display warning signs against it. Moreover, precaution should be taken

against being robbed by the driver, which has happened to hitchhikers, though in rare cases.

A foreign student trainee in a factory may seem to have less opportunity to make friends and take part in recreational activities than a student in college, but a trainee's opportunity for recreation is richer than a college student's if he cares to take advantage of it. One may avoid loneliness by close association with workers and personnel in the plant. Labor unions usually have extensive recreational programs for workers, in which a foreign trainee can easily participate. A labor union, especially a well-organized one, will have groups organized for athletics, week-end hiking and picnicking, dances, discussions, and lectures. American workers have great respect for a foreign trainee with a good educational background. The language and behavior of American workers when participating in group activities is usually rough. This, however, is meant to express good fellowship and should be taken in good spirit.

TRAVEL

The best form of recreation during one's vacations and holidays is traveling. Only through travel can one gain a broad and representative impression of the United States. Hardships in traveling in America are a thing of the past; modern facilities of transportation have made it a great pleasure. Furthermore, the modern conveniences in travel have become an important factor in the closely coordinated economic organization of the United States. One night of comfortable sleep on a Pullman will carry one from New York to Chicago, a thousand miles away, leaving one with plenty of energy for business the next day. Travel organizations, such as the Travelers' Aid Society and travel bureaus, have greatly simplified the matter of making reservations, buying tickets, handling baggage, and securing hotel rooms. Thus, travel in the United States is as easy as well as a valuable experience.

The places to which we travel depend upon our own interests. If we go only for recreation, we shall find hints in several publications. Among the books on the scenic beauties of the United States is *United States Highway Number One*, which describes the famous sites and scenic spots along that highway. Some years ago, the PWA edited a series of interesting and valuable books on the historical sites of various states. Such material may be obtained from the college library. The Chamber of Commerce in a tourist center usually publishes small pamphlets attractively illustrated, telling us about points of interest, as well as traveling and living expenses in the center. Free maps which are obtainable at gasoline and railway stations are another source of useful information, such as points of interest in the vicinity. Travel bureaus will, of course, give us free literature and information about places to visit as well as expenses involved and the travel and hotel facilities available. Tourist centers also advertise in the newspapers.

as New England and Florida, and the national park areas in the Rockies there are many scenic spots. Among these is Mackinac Island in northern Michigan. In order to preserve the old historic atmosphere, no automobiles are allowed on the island, only horse-drawn vehicles and bicycles, and many houses still use kerosene lamps. The largest number of national parks are in the Rocky Mountain area. These parks frequently cover many square miles; each is, in fact, a scenic area. Sometimes national parks and monuments are located in places having strange geological phenomena, such as the geysers of Yellowstone Park, and the Petrified Forest and the Painted Desert in the Southwest. In the Southwest, we also find many Indian reservations in which the virgin forests and the landscape remain practically untouched by white man's civilization, with the possible exception of highways and a few buildings. There we can *get* a glimpse of something resembling an American frontier community.

We shall also find good recreational and social activities in the summer camps for adults. These camps are usually located in scenic spots. Some are commercial; others are run by such organizations as the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., churches, and labor unions. Camps sponsored by public organizations cost less than commercial ones. Moreover, they are especially rich in social activities, and practically free from racial prejudice. Advertisements of camps will be found in newspapers and magazines. Thousands of American men and women from all walks of life spend from one week to two months in these summer camps every year.

Whether we live near the college campus or not, we shall have to pay living expenses during vacations. Therefore, our financial problem is chiefly that of traveling expenses. Unless a student has a car and sufficient money, he will have to find means to reduce the cost of travel. If a group can be gathered together, we can hire a bus to take us to our destination, thus reducing the cost by sharing it. Students who go home at the end of the semester by automobile, frequently advertise on the bulletin board or in the college paper for passengers to share the expense of the gasoline. This is an inexpensive means of travel and although *it* may not carry us to our destination, *it* may take us near *it*. Newspapers frequently contain advertisements of automobile owners who desire passengers to share the cost of gasoline in going from one place to another. Hitchhikers can, of course, travel with little expense. We may earn some of our travel expenses by working part of the summer. Those with many American friends will probably find free places to stay in various towns. Others may consult the travel bureaus or the Travelers' Aid Society in the railway stations for prices and addresses of hotels.

Appendix

BOOKS ON AMERICAN LIFE AND HISTORY

{A few selected titles for a general introduction to various aspects of the life and history of the American people.}

ALLEN, F. L.

Only Yesterday: an Informal History of the Nineteen-Twenties, New York, Harper & Bros., 1943.

BAILEY, THOMAS A.

A Diplomatic History of the American People, New York, Crofts, 1940.

BEARD, CHARLES AND MARY

The Rise of American Civilisation, New York, Macmillan Company, 1933, 2 vols.

BRYCE, JAMES

The American Commonwealth, rev. ed., New York, Macmillan Company, 1922-23, 2 vols.

CAHILL, HOLGER, AND A. H. BARR, JR.

Art in America, New York, Halcyon House, 1939.

COUNTS, GEORGE S.

American Road to Culture, New York, John Day Co., 1930.

CURTI, MERLE

The Growth of American Thought, New York, Harper & Bros., 1943-

EATON, A. H.

Immigrant Gifts to American Life, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1932.

EMBREE, E. R.

Brown America: The Story of a New Race, New York, Viking Press, 1931.

FAULKNER, H. U.

Economic History of the United States, New York, Macmillan Company, 1928.

GOLDEN, C. S., AND H. J. RUTTENBERG

The Dynamics of Industrial Democracy, New York, Harper & Bros., 1942.

HANSEN, MARCUS L.

Immigrant in American History, Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1940.

HOFFMAN, M. D.

Life in America, New York, Harper & Bros., 1941.

KNIGHT, E. W.

Education in the United States, Boston, Ginn & Co., 2nd rev. ed., "1941".

LATANE, J. H.

A History of American Foreign Policy, New York, Doubleday, Page & Co., 1927.

LINDLEY, E. K.

Half-Way with Roosevelt, New York, Viking Press, 1936.

LYND, R. S.

Middletown: a Study in Contemporary American Culture, New York, Harcourt Brace & Co., 1929.

MEAD, MARGARET

And Keep Your Powder Dry, New York, W. Morrow & Co., 1942.

MERRIAM, C. E., AND H. F. GOSNELL

The American Party System, New York, Macmillan Company, 1929.

MORGAN, J. E.

The American Citizen's Handbook, Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1941.

MORRISON, S. E., AND H. S. COMMAGER

Growth of the American Republic, New York, Oxford University Press, 1942.

MUELDER, H. R., AND D. M. DELO

Years of This Land, New York, D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942.

NEVINS, ALLAN, AND H. S. COMMAGER

The Pocket History of the United States, New York, Pocket Books, Inc., 1942.

OFFICE OF WAR INFORMATION

A Handbook of the United States of America, Washington, D. C., 1943.

ROOSEVELT, ELEANOR, AND F. C. MACGREGOR

This Is America, New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1942.

ROURKE, C. M.

American Humor: A Study of the National Character, New York, Harcourt Brace & Co., 1931.

SCHLESINGER, ARTHUR M.

Political and Social Growth of the United States, 1852-1933, New York, Macmillan Company, 1934.

SIEGFRIED, ANDRE

America Comes of Age, New York, Harcourt Brace & Co., 1927.

STONO, PHIL

County Fair, New York, Stackpole Sons, 1938.

STRUNSKY, SIMEON

The Living Tradition, New York, Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1939.

SWEET, W. W.

The Story of Religions in America, New York, Harper & Bros., 1931.

WHIGHAM, H. J.

The New Deal—English and American, New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1936.

TABLE OF ACCREDITED INSTITUTIONS

The following table is not a complete list of colleges, universities, and professional schools in the United States, nor does *it* show all the subjects in which instruction is given at the various institutions. State teachers colleges and normal schools are not included since their chief aim is the training of American teachers. The institutions listed are only those which have been accredited or approved by certain authoritative agencies. For example, the colleges and universities (all of which include the college of liberal arts or the college of arts and sciences) are those on the lists of the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools. The asterisk (*) denotes approval by the Association of American Universities, a smaller and more selective group than the regional associations. Wherever there is an accrediting association for a profession, schools accredited by that association have been included. Subjects taught in professional schools are included in the curricula of many colleges and universities, but this table indicates only the schools offering work leading to a degree in the specific subject.

The graduate schools indicated in the first column of the table offer opportunity for work leading to the master's or doctor's degree in arts and sciences. The smaller schools offer work leading only to the master's degree. In some cases the doctor's degree is obtainable only in a limited number of subjects but most of the large universities offer work leading to the doctorate in twenty or more fields of knowledge.

The letters after the name of an institution, M, W, Co, or Cord, indicate, respectively, men, women, coeducational (both men and women), or coordinate (separate colleges for men and women). They refer to the undergraduate student body.

ALABAMA

- Alabama College, Montevallo (W).....
- Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn (Co).
- Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham (Co).
- Howard College, Birmingham (Co).....
- Huntingdon College, Montgomery (W).....
- Spring Hill College, Spring Hill (M).....
- Talladega College, Talladega (Negro-Co).....
- Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee (Negro-Co).....
- University of Alabama, University (Co)

ARIZONA

- University of Arizona, Tucson (Co)

ARKANSAS

- Arkansas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Monticello (Co).
- Arkansas State College, State College (Co).....
- Hendrix College, Conway (Co).....
- Ouachita College, Arkadelphia (Co).....
- University of Arkansas, Fayetteville (Co).....

CALIFORNIA

- Berkeley Baptist Divinity School, Berkeley (Co).....
- California Institute of Technology, Pasadena (M).....

† Offering bachelor's degree with Physical Education as Major.

Qaremcmt Colleges, Clarcmont (Co)
 College of the Holy Names, Oakland CW)
 •College of the Pacific, Stockton (Co)
 •Dominican College of San Rafael, San Rafael (W).....
 •Fresno State College, Fresno (Co)
 George Pepperdine College, Los Angeles (Co)
 Immaculate Heart College, Los Angeles (W)
 Loyola University, Los Angeles (M).....
 •Mills College, Oakland (W)
 Mt. St. Mary's College, Los Angeles (W).....
 •Occidental College, Los Angeles (Co)
 Pacific School of Religion, Berkeley (Co).....
 Pacific Union College, Angwin (Co).....
 •Pomona College, Clarcmont (Co)
 St. Mary's College, St. Mary's Collcee (M)
 San Diego State College, San Diego (Co)
 San Francisco College for Women, San Francisco (W)..
 San Francisco Stare College, San Francisco (Co).....
 San Francisco Theological Seminary, San Anselmo (Co).
 •San Jose State College, San Jose (Co)
 •Scripps College, Clarcmont (W)
 •Stanford University, Stanford University (Co)
 •University of California, Berkeley (Co)
 University of California, Los Angeles (Co).....
 University of California, San Francisco
 •University of Redlands, Redlands (Co)
 University of San Francisco, San Francisco (M).....

Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, Tallahassee (Negro-Co).....
 Florida Southern College, Lakeland (Co).....
 •Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee (W).....
 John B. Stetson University, Deland (Co).....
 Rollins College, Winter Park (Co).....
 •University of Florida, Gainesville (M)_____X
 University of Miami, Coral Gables (Co).....X

•Agnes Scott College, Decatur (W).....
 Atlanta University School of Social Work, Atlanta (Negro-Co).
 Atlanta University, Atlanta (Negro-Co).....
 Clark College, Atlanta (Negro-Co)..
 •Emory University, Emory University (M) .
 •Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta (M).....
 Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville (W).....
 Georgia State Womans College, Valdosta (W).....
 Mercer University, Macon (Co).....
 Morehouse College, Atlanta (Negro-M).....
 Morris Brown College, Atlanta (Negro-Co).....
 •Shorter College, Rome (W).....
 Spelman College, Atlanta (Negro-W).....
 •University of Georgia, Athens (Co).....
 University of Georgia School of Medicine, Augustus (Co).
 Wesleyan College, Macon (W).....

	Graduate Departments
•University of Illinois, Urbana (Co)	X
•Wheaton College, Wheaton (Co)	
INDIANA	
•Ball State Teachers College, Muncie (Co)	
Butler University, Indianapolis (Co)	
•Earlham College, Earlham (Co)	
Evansville College, Evansville (Co)	**
•Franklin College, Franklin (Co)	
Goshen College, Goshen (Co)	
•Indiana University, Bloomington (Co)	X
Manchester College, North Manchester (Co)	
*Purdue University, Lafayette (Co)	X
	X
St. Mary** College Notre Dame (W)	
St. Mary-of-the-Woods College St. Mary-of-the-Woods (W)	X
IOWA	
Central College Pella (Co)	
Qarke College Dubuque (W)	

*Centre College of Kentucky, Danville (Cord)
 Georgetown College, Georgetown (Co)
 Kentucky State College, Frankfort, (Negro-Co)
 Louisville Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Louisville (M)
 Nazareth College, Louisville (W)
 Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Louisville (M)
 Transylvania College, Lexington (Co)
 Union College, Barbourville (Co)
 "University of Kentucky, Lexington (Co)
 "University of Louisville, Louisville (Co)

LOUISIANA

Centenary College, Shreveport (Co)
 Dillard University, New Orleans (Negro-Co)
 H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College, New Orleans (W) (see Tulane University of Louisiana)
 Louisiana College, Pineville (Co)
 Louisiana Polytechnic Institute, Ruston (Co)
 •Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge (Co)
 Loyola University, New Orleans (Co)
 Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette (Co)
 Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Scotlandville (Negro-Co)
 *Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans (Co)
 Xavier University, New Orleans (Negro-Co)

MAIKB

Bangor Theological Seminary, Bangor (Co)

- Simmons College, Boston (W).....
- Smith College, Northampton (W).....
- Springfield College, Springfield (M).....
- Tufts College, Medford (Cord).....
- Wellesley College, Wellesley (W).....
- Wheaton College, Norton (W).....
- Williams College, Williamstown (M).....
- Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Worcester (M).....

MICHIGAN

- Albion College, Albion (Co).....
- Alma College, Alma (Co).....
- Calvin College, Grand Rapids (Co).....
- Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien Springs (Co).....
- Hillsdale College, Hillsdale (Co).....
- Hope College, Holland (Co).....
- Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo (Co).....
- Marygrove College, Detroit (W).....
- Michigan State College, East Lansing (Co).....
- Nazareth College, Nazareth (WY).....
- Siena Heights College, Adrian (W).....
- University of Detroit, Detroit (Co).....
- University of Michigan, Ann Arbor (Co).....
- Wayne University, Detroit (Co).....
- Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo (Co).
- Western Theological Seminary, Holland (M).....

- University of Kansas City, Kansas City (Co)
- University of Missouri, Columbia (Co)
- Washington University, St. Louis (Co)
- Webster College, Webster Groves (W)
- Westminster College, Fulton (M)
- William Jewell College, Liberty (Co)

MONTANA

- Billings Polytechnic Institute, Billings (Co)
- Carroll College, Helena (M) ,
- Montana State College, Bozeman (Co)
- Montana State University, Missoula (Co)

NEBRASKA

- Creighton University, Omaha (Co)
- Doane College, Crete (Co)
- Duchesne College, Omaha (W)
- Hastings College, Hastings (Co)
- Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha (Co)
- Nebraska Wesleyan University, Lincoln (Co)
- Union College, Lincoln (Co)
- University of Nebraska, Lincoln (Co)

NEVADA

- University of Nevada, Reno (Co)

- College of St. Rose, Albany (W)
- *Colleges of the Seneca: Hobart and William Smitjb Colleges, Geneva (M-W)
- Columbia University, New York (Co)
- Barnard College, New York (W)
- Teachers College, New York (Co)
- Cornell University, Ithaca (Co)
- D'Youville College, Buffalo (W)
- Elmira College, Elmira (W)
- *Fordham University, New York (M)
- General Theological Seminary, New York (M)
- Good Counsel College, White Plains (W)
- Hamilton College, Clinton (M)
- Hobart College (sec Colleges of the Seneca)
- Hofstra College, Hempstead (Co)
- Houghton College, Houghton (Co)
- Hunter College of the City of New York, New York (W)
- Jewish Institute of Religion, New York (M)
- Jewish Theological Seminary of America, New York (M)
- Kcuka College, Keuka Park (W)
- Manhattan College, New York (M)
- Manhattanville College of the Sacred Heart, New York (W)
- Marymount College, Tarrytown (W)
- Nazareth College, Rochester (W)
- New York State College for Teachers, Albany (Co)
- New York University, New York (Co)
- Niagara University, Niagara (Co)
- Notre Dame College of Staten Island, Grymes Hill (W)

- Salem College, Winston-Salem (W)
- St. Augustine's College, Raleigh (Negro-Co)
- Shaw University, Raleigh (Negro-Co)
- State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh (Co)
- *University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill (Co)
- *Wake Forest College, Wake Forest (Co)
- *Woman's College of the University of North Carolina, Greensboro (W)

NORTH DAKOTA

- Jamestown College, Jamestown (Co)
- North Dakota Agricultural College, State College (Co)
- University of North Dakota, University (Co)

OHIO

- *Antioch College, Yellow Springs (Co)
- Ashland College, Ashland (Co)
- Baldwin-Wallace College, Berea (Co)
- Bonebrake Theological Seminary, Dayton (Co)
- Bowling Green State University, Bowling Green (Co)
- *Capital University, Columbus (Co)
- *Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland (M)
- College of Mount St. Joseph, Mount St. Joseph (W)
- *College of Wooster, Wooster (Co)
- *Dcnison University, Granville (Co)
- Fenn College, Cleveland (Co)
- Findlay College, Findlay (Co)

•Heidelberg College, Tiffin (Co).....	
*Hiram College, Hiram (Co).....	
John Carroll University, Cleveland (M).....	
Kent State University, Kent (Co).....	
•Kenyon College, Gambier (M).....	
•Lake Erie College, Painesville (W).....	
•Marietta College, Marietta (Co).....	
Mary Manse College, Toledo (W).....	
•Miami University, Oxford (Co).....	
•Mount Union College, Alliance (Co).....	
•Muskingum College, New Concord (Co).....	
Notre Dame College, South Euclid (W).....	
•Oberlin College, Oberlin (Co).....	
•Ohio State University, Columbus (Co).....	..X
•Ohio University, Athens (Co).....	..X
•Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware (Co).....	
•Otterbein College, Westerville (Co).....	
St. Mary of the Springs College, Columbus (W).....	
•University of Akron, Akron (Co).....	..X
•University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, (Co).....	..X
University of Dayton, Dayton (Co).....	..X
•University of Toledo, Toledo (Co).....	..X
Ursuline College, Cleveland (W).....	
•Western College, Oxford (W).....	
•Western Reserve University, Cleveland (Co).....	
Wilberforce University, Wilberforce (Negro-Co).....	
Wilmington College, Wilmington (Co).....	
•Wittenberg College, Springfield (Co).....	
Xavier University, Cincinnati (M).....	

OKLAHOMA

•Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater (Co).....	
•Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha (W).....	
Phillips University, Enid (Co).....	
•University of Oklahoma, Norman (Co).....	..X
•University of Tulsa, Tulsa (Co).....	..X

OREGON

- Lewis and Clark College, Portland (Co)
- Linfield College, McMinnville (Co)
- Marylhurst College, Marylhurst (W)
- Mount Angel College and Seminary, *St. Benedict* (Cord)
- Oregon State College, Corvallis (Co)
- Pacific University, Forest Grove (Co)
- Reed College, Portland (Co)
- University of Oregon, Eugene (Co)
- University of Portland, Portland (Cord)
- Williamette University, Salem (Co)

PENNSYLVANIA

- Albright College, Reading (Co)
- Allegheny College, Meadville (Co)
- Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr (W)
- Bucknell University, Lewisburg (Co)
- Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh (Co)
- Cedar Crest College, Allentown (W)
- Chestnut Hill College, Chestnut Hill (W)
- College Misericordia, Dallas (W)
- Crozer Theological Seminary, Chester (Co)
- Dickinson College, Carlisle (Co)
- Divinity School of the Protestant Episcopal Church, Philadelphia (M and W)
- Drexel Institute, Philadelphia (Co)
- Duquesne University, Pittsburgh (Co)
- Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster (M)

- Western Theological Seminary, Pittsburgh (M)
- Westminster College, New Wilmington (Co)
- Wilson College, Chambersburg (W)

RHODE ISLAND

- Brown University, Providence (Cord)
- Pembroke College, Providence (W)
- Providence College, Providence (M)
- *Rhode Island State College, Kingston (Co)

SOUTH CAROLINA

- Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson (M)
- Coker College, Hartsville (W)
- College of Charleston, Charleston (M)
- Columbia College, Columbia (W)
- Converse College, Spartanburg (W)
- Erskine College, Due West (Co)
- Furman University, Greenville (Cord)
- Limestone College, Gaffney (W)
- Newberry College, Newberry (Co)
- State Colored Normal, Industrial, Agricultural and Mechanical College of South Carolina,
Orangeburg (Negro-Co)
- The Citadel, Charleston (M)
- University of South Carolina, Columbia (Co)
- Wofford College, Spartanburg (M)

- Southwestern Baptist Theological Seminary, Fort Worth (Co)
- Southwestern University, Georgetown (Co)
- Texas Christian University, Fort Worth (Co)
- Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville (Co)
- *Texas State College for Women, Denton (W)
- Texas Technological College, Lubbock (Co)
- Tillotson College, Austin (Negro-Co)
- University of Texas, Austin (Co)
- Wiley College, Marshall (Negro-Co)

UTAH

- *Brigham Young University, Provo (Co)
- College of St. Mary-of-the-Wasatch, Salt Lake City (W)
- University of Utah, Salt Lake City (Co)
- *Utah State Agricultural College, Logan (Co)

VERMONT

- Bennington College, Bennington (W)
- Middlebury College, Middlebury (Cord)
- Norwich University, Northfield (M)
- St. Michael's College, Winooski (M)
- University of Vermont, Burlington (Co)

VIRGINIA

- Bridgewater College, Bridgewater (Co)
- College of William and Mary, Williamsburg (Co)
- Emory and Henry College, Emory (Co)

AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES

The work of all agricultural colleges is broadly organized and includes the fundamental branches of agriculture. Agronomy and the production of crops are taught in all schools and the following subjects are almost generally offered: animal husbandry, dairy husbandry, poultry husbandry, botany, agricultural economics and farm management, agricultural education, entomology, horticulture, genetics (plant and animal breeding), soils, plant nutrition, and pathology. Other branches of agriculture not so generally offered are listed in the following table:

AGRICULTURE

Culai

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn			
Arizona, University of, Tucson			
Arkansas, University of, Fayetteville			
California, University of, Berkeley			
Colorado A. & M. College, Fort Collins			
Connecticut, University of, Storrs			
Delaware, University of, Newark			
Florida, University of, Gainesville			
Georgia, University of, Athens			
Idaho, University of, Moscow			xt
Illinois, University of, Urbana			
Indiana—Purdue University, Lafayette			
Iowa State College, Ames			
Kansas State College, Manhattan			
Kentucky, University of, Lexington			
Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge			
Maine, University of, Orono			
Maryland, University of, College Park			
Massachusetts State College, Amherst			
Michigan State College, East Lansing			X
Minnesota, University of, Minneapolis			xt
Missouri, University of, Columbia			
Nebraska, University of, Lincoln			X
Nevada, University of, Reno			
New Hampshire, University of, Durham			XJ
New Jersey—Rutgers University, New Brunswick			
New Mexico State College, State College			X
<u>New York—Cornell University, Ithaca</u>	XX	x x x x	•X

* Beginning in 1947.

† Has a "sugar school" with four-year curriculum dealing with basic studies preparatory to service either in the field work or in factories of the sugar beet industry.

‡ Pre-veterinary only.

Agricultural Colleges (Continued)

AGRICULTURE

H

North Carolina State College, Raleigh
North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo
Ohio State University, Columbus
Oklahoma Agricultural College, Stillwater
Oregon State College, Corvallis
Pennsylvania State College, State College
Rhode Island State College, Kingston
South Carolina—Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson
South Dakota State College, Brookings
Tennessee, University of, Knoxville
Texas Agricultural College, College Station
Utah State Agricultural College, Logan
Vermont, University of, Burlington
Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg
Washington State College, Pullman
West Virginia University, Morgantown
Wisconsin, University of, Madison
<u>Wyoming, University of, Laramie</u>

% Pre-veterinary only.

TABLE SHOWING INSTITUTIONS WHERE COURSES IN VARIOUS
BRANCHES OF ENGINEERING ARE GIVEN

m

ENGINEERING

Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn.
University of Alabama, University.

ARIZONA

University of Arizona, Tucson.

ARKANSAS

University of Arkansas, Fayetteville.

CALIFORNIA

California Institute of Technology, Pasadena...
Stanford University, Stanford.
University of California, Berkeley.
University of Santa Clara, Santa Clara.
University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

COLORADO

Colorado School of Mines, Golden...
Colorado State College, Fort Collins.
University of Colorado, Boulder.
University of Denver, Denver.

CONNECTICUT

United States Coast Guard Academy, New London.
University of Connecticut, Storrs.
Yale University, New Haven.

DELAWARE

University of Delaware, Newark.

DISTRICT Or COLUMBIA

Catholic University of America, Washington.
George Washington University, Washington.,

FLORIDA

University of Florida, Gainesville.

GEORGIA

Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta.

IDAHO

University of Idaho, Moscow.

* Includes aeronautical option.

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TabU Showing Institutions where Courses in Various Branches of Engineering are Given (Continued*)

ENGINEERING

ILLINOIS

Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago.
 University of Illinois, Urbana
 Northwestern University, Evanston

INDIANA

Purdue University, Lafayette
 Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute.
 University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame.

IOWA

Iowa State College, Ames
 State University of Iowa, Iowa City.

KANSAS

Kansas State College, Manhattan.
 University of Kansas, Lawrence..

KENTUCKY

University of Kentucky, Lexington.,
 University of Louisville, Louisville.

Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge.
 Tulane University, New Orleans

MAINE

University of Maine, Orono...

MARYLAND

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore..
 University of Maryland, College Park.

MASSACHUSETTS

Harvard University, Cambridge
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge.
 Northeastern University, Boston
 Tufts College, Medford.
 Worcester Polytechnic Institute, Worcester.

MICHIGAN

Michigan College of Mining and Technology,
 Houghton
 Michigan State College, East Lansing
 University of Detroit, Detroit
 University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Wayne University, Detroit.

t Also Railway Civil, Electrical and Mechanical.

TabU Shewing Institutions where Courses in Various Branches of Engineering are Given (Continual)

ENGINEERING

MINNESOTA

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

MISSISSIPPI

Mississippi State College, State College.

MISSOURI

Missouri School of Mines, Rolla...

University of Missouri, Columbia.

Washington University, St. Louis.

MONTANA

Montana School of Mines, Butte..

Montana State College, Bozeman.

NEBRASKA

University of Nebraska, Lincoln..

NEVADA

University of Nevada, Reno___

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Dartmouth College, Hanover.....

University of New Hampshire, Durham.

NEW JERSEY

Newark College of Engineering, Newark..

Princeton University, Princeton.....

Rutgers University, New Brunswick.....

Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken.

NEW MEXICO

New Mexico College of A. & M. Arts, State College]

New Mexico School of Mines, Socorro.....

University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.....

NEW YORK

Clarkson College of Technology, Potsdam.....

College of the City of New York, New York.....

Columbia University, New York.....

Cooper Union, New York.....

Cornell University, Ithaca.....

Manhattan College, New York.....

New York State College of Ceramics (at Alfred University), Alfred.....

New York University, New York.....

Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn, Brooklyn.....

Table Showing Institutions uibm Gurus in Varuts Branches of Engineering are Given (Continued)

ENGINEERING

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NEW YORK, CONTINUED

- Pratt Institute, Brooklyn.
- Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy.....
- Syracuse University, Syracuse.....
- Union College, Schenectady.....
- University of Rochester, Rochester.....
- Webb Institute of Naval Architecture, New York.

NORTH CAROLINA

- Duke University, Durham.....
- North Carolina State College, Raleigh.....

NORTH DAKOTA

- North Dakota Agricultural College, Fargo.
- University of North Dakota, Grand Forks..

- Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland.
- Ohio State University, Columbus.....
- University of Akron, Akron.....
- University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati.....
- University of Toledo, Toledo.....

OKLAHOMA

- Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater.
- University of Oklahoma, Norman.....
- University of Tulsa, Tulsa.....

OREGON

- Oregon State College, Corvallis.

PENNSYLVANIA

- Bucknell University, Lewisburg.....
- Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh.
- Drexel Institute of Technology, Philadelphia.
- Lafayette College, Easton.....
- Lehigh University, Bethlehem.....
- Pennsylvania State College, State College....
- Swarthmore College, Swarthmore.....
- University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia....
- University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh.....
- Villanova College, Villanova.....

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RHODE ISLAND

- Brown University, Providence.....
- Rhode Island State College, Kingston.

Tails Showing Institutions where Courses in Various Branches of Engineering art Given (Continued)

ENGINEERING

M

SOUTH CAROLINA

Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson..
 The Gtadel, Charleston
 University of South Carolina, Columbia.

SOUTH DAKOTA

South Dakota State College, Brookings
 South Dakota State School of Mines, Rapid City.

University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
 Vanderbilt University, Nashville...

A. & M. College of Texas, College Station.
 Rice Institute, Houston.
 Southern Methodist University, Dallas.
 Texas Technological College, Lubbock.
 University of Texas, Austin

UTAH

University of Utah, Salt Lake City.....
 Utah State Agricultural College, Logan.

VERMONT

Norwich University, Northfield.....
 University of Vermont, Burlington.....

VIRGINIA

University of Virginia, Charlottesville....
 Virginia Military Institute, Lexington....
 Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg.

WASHINGTON

State College of Washington, Pullman.
 University of Washington, Seattle.....

WEST VIRGINIA

West Virginia University, Morgantown.

WISCONSIN

Marquette University, Milwaukee.
 University of Wisconsin, Madison.

WTOMINO

University of Wyoming, Laramie.

ACADEMIC TERMS IN COMMON USE

- Alumna**—Woman graduate of a school, college, or other institution of learning
- Alumnus**—Man graduate of a school, college, or other institution of learning
- Commencement**—Celebration when degrees or diplomas are publicly awarded
- Course**—Series of lectures or recitations
- Credit**—Points or hours of study that a student has to his credit toward a degree
- Curriculum**—A course of study, as in a college
- Cut**—Unexcused absence from class
- Dean**—Administrative officer of a college or university, one of whose functions is the supervision of the relations of the individual student
- Department**—Division of the college or university devoted to one field of study
- Dissertation**—Presentation of a subject, oral or written, usually applied to the final requirement for the doctor's degree
- Extension courses**—Courses offered to persons not able to become regular students
- Extramural courses**—Instruction given in suburban districts by the teaching staff of a college or university, duplicating the regular instruction
- Faculty**—Members of the teaching staff
- Fellowship**—An award, either in cash or kind, to provide assistance in meeting college or university expenses, usually applied to graduate work
- To "flunk"**—To fail in an examination
- Freshman**—Student in his first year in college
- Graduate**—Student who holds his bachelor's degree and who is working toward his master's or doctor's degree
- High school**—Secondary school, preparing for entrance to college
- Honors courses**—Individual program of study (without required attendance at classes) which a student is permitted to pursue in the last two years of college if the record of his first two years justifies it
- Junior**—Student in his third year in college
- Major**—The subject in which a student specializes
- Mid-terms**—Examinations given in the middle of the academic year, or mid-semester
- Minor**—The subject in which a student specializes to a lesser degree than in the major
- Point**—A method of counting a particular course toward a degree; for example, two or three points (or hours) per semester or term, representing the number of hours of class-work in a given subject each week
- Professional school**—School for the study of a profession; may be part of a university system, or independent
- Quiz**—Usually short written or oral examination during the semester, more informal than the regular examination
- Scholarship**—AD award similar to a fellowship although generally used in connection with undergraduates
- Semester**—A college half-year
- Senior**—Student in his fourth (last) year in college
- Sophomore**—Student in his second year in college
- Special or unclassified student**—One who is qualified to pursue work in a chosen field but is not a candidate for a degree
- Test**—Same as a quiz
- Thesis**—Essay or treatise on a particular subject; a dissertation for an advanced degree
- Tuition**—Charge made or money paid for instruction
- Unit**—A year's study in any subject in a secondary school

MAP OF THE UNITED STATES

DISTANCES IN MILES BETWEEN CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES BY LAND

Cities and States	New York	New Orleans	San Francisco
	Miles	Miles	Miles
Birmingham, Alabama	990	355	2,520
Tucson, Arizona	2,601	1,503	983
Little Rock, Arkansas	1,290	456	2,237
San Francisco, California	3,182	2,482	
Los Angeles, California	2,718	2,004	470
Denver, Colorado	1,926	1,357	1,376
New Haven, Connecticut	72	1,417	3,263
Newark, Delaware	128	1,254	3,137
Washington, District of Columbia	228	1,144	3,069
Miami, Florida	1,621	966	3,448
Atlanta, Georgia	876	496	2,810
Moscow, Idaho	2,733	2,760	1,194
Chicago, Illinois	912	920	2,279
Indianapolis, Indiana	825	862	2,380
Iowa City, Iowa	1,149	998	2,052
Lawrence, Kansas	1,382	1,020	1,946
Lexington, Kentucky	781	664	2,567
New Orleans, Louisiana	1,345		2,482
Portland, Maine	350	1,686	3,410
Baltimore, Maryland	188	1,184	3,081
Boston, Massachusetts	235	1,607	3,313
Ann Arbor, Michigan	729	1,064	2,515
Minneapolis, Minnesota	1,332	1,285	2,101
Jackson, Mississippi	1,369	184	2,651
St. Louis, Missouri	1,065	699	2,199
Missoula, Montana	2,569	2,269	1,138
Lincoln, Nebraska	1,463	2,089	1,928
Reno, Nevada	2,939	2,725	243
Hanover, New Hampshire	320	1,692	3,336
Princeton, New Jersey	48	1,324	3,143
Albuquerque, New Mexico	2,298	1,264	1,199
New York, New York		1,372	3,191
Chapel Hill, North Carolina	581	992	3,236
Fargo, North Dakota	1,573	1,526	2,060
Columbus, Ohio	637	945	2,593
Norman, Oklahoma	1,626	770	2,012
Portland, Oregon	3,204	2,746	722
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	91	1,281	3,100
Providence, Rhode Island	184	1,530	3,300
Charleston, South Carolina	739	776	3,119
Vermillion, South Dakota	1,457	1,208	1,856
Knoxville, Tennessee	738	609	2,876
Austin, Texas	1,979	528	1,993
Brownsville, Texas	2,238	735	2,256
San Antonio, Texas	1,974	573	1,901
Salt Lake City, Utah	2,442	1,928	823
Burlington, Vermont	301	1,673	3,248
Charlottesville, Virginia	343	1,029	2,855
Seattle, Washington	3,151	2,931	957
Morgantown, West Virginia	489	1,097	2,792
Madison, Wisconsin	1,041	1,041	2,361
Laramie, Wyoming	1,680	1,524	1,213

NOTE: The cost of traveling by railroad from New York, New Orleans, or San Francisco to any of the cities named can be estimated roughly by multiplying the distance given in miles by three cents. For a more accurate calculation of railroad fares, use the rate-per-mile figures given on page 41. These rates do not include Pullman (sleeping car) charges or cost of meals en route.

