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TRAINING FOR FOREIGN SERVICE

COMPILED BY
GLEN LEVIN SWIGGETT
SPECIALIST IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

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FOREWORD.

The articles contained in this bulletin on foreign-service training were assembled nearly three years ago. They were contributed by specialists, and deal with subjects which should be included in a fully developed major on foreign-service training for Government, business, social welfare, etc. These articles include, in addition to brief bibliographies of textbooks serviceable for use in college and of other books that may be helpful to general readers, the writers' opinions in regard to the subject matter, the limitation and manner and presentation of this subject matter, its coordination with similar related subjects and amount of time that should be given to it in college and the semester or semesters with college year when it can be best offered. This bulletin is to serve two purposes; it should assist colleges to plan an adequate course of instruction on training for foreign service, and should enable university men now in the field of business to plan for a systematic reading course (Cf. Reading course in foreign trade, Reading course No. 17, Home Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, prepared by Glen Levin Swiggett). Much is naturally left unsaid in this bulletin, but what is said is for the most part brief, vital, and to the point.

Unavoidable delays have prevented the earlier publication of this bulletin. The publication of these articles now, however, is timely. The statistics reported to this bureau for use by the Committee of Fifteen on Educational Preparation for Foreign Service, appointed by the United States Commissioner of Education, have registered since 1916 a steady growth in our higher institutions on the subject of educational preparation for foreign service, for commerce in particular. In October, 1921, the bureau reported courses of study in preparation for foreign service in 70 colleges and universities. Of the 70 higher institutions in which this special training was offered at that time, the 10 highest reported each more than 100 students taking foreign trade, a total enrollment for the 10 institutions of 2,255 students. In Commercial Education Circular No. 7, Bureau of Education, is printed a list of the 70 institutions offering some kind of training for foreign service.

The technique of foreign trade, skill in the actual transaction involved in merchandising, shipping, and financing should be strengthened by an understanding of the principles of commerce, of transportation, and banking; of motives that determine human conduct in social relationships; of Governmental regulations and policies. Courses on practical exporting, therefore, should be supplemented with ample opportunity for the study of the modern languages, the social and commercial sciences, etc.

The variety and character of instruction now being offered as preparation for foreign trade in our larger universities warrant the publication of a bulletin of this character. It is the belief of the compiler that these articles will stimulate still further the marked educational response to the demands of business for a trained and informed personnel in the conduct of our foreign service of Government, business, etc. And this variety and higher type of instruction

for foreign-service training now offered in our colleges and universities is noted with increasing satisfaction by the Advisory Council and Committee of Fifteen on Educational Preparation for Foreign Service, in consideration of the many angles of approach to world trade, and the high level of intelligence, of vision and character, of skill and information essential to its prosecution by an individual corporation or nation.

GLEN LEVIN SWIGGETT,
Chairman, Committee of Fifteen on Educational Preparation for Foreign Service.

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TRAINING FOR FOREIGN SERVICE.

PART I. ECONOMICS.

COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATION FOR FOREIGN TRADE.

By C. S. Duncan,

Assistant Professor of Commercial Organization in the School of Commerce and Administration, University of Chicago.

Introductory.—Foreign trade is domestic trade carried beyond the national boundaries. In all fundamental respects the principles are the same for both; in many incidental features they differ materially. In foreign trade as in domestic trade there are goods on their way to market; in both instances trade is carried on for profit, business is on a pecuniary basis; in both there are producers, consumers, and middlemen; in both there are markets for buyers and sellers, market prices, trade news, advertising, exchanges, transportation, warehouses, financial organization, and all other business paraphernalia. These things may sometimes appear in foreign trade disguised by different names, but in all essential respects they are the same.

The differences, however, are important. Many businesses have made the mistake of treating the foreign market as they treat the home market. In doing so they have overlooked the differences that often count for so much in trade. One of the most obvious distinctions lies in the language used; any extensive foreign trade will necessitate the use of a foreign tongue. While business between countries runs on a monetary standard, the units differ in name and value. There is the question of tariff; of a foreign jurisdiction. There is the matter of business habits and customs, of illiteracy, of purchasing power; there are new and important factors in the trade organization, such as the commission house, the forwarding agent, or the comprador of China.

It seems logical, therefore, that domestic and foreign trade should be closely related in every curriculum. And since the two subjects go hand in hand so great a part of the way, the latter might well follow the former, as rounding out the trade analysis. The student will grasp far more readily the principles of foreign trade if he understands thoroughly the principles of domestic trade. The mechanism of foreign exchange will not seem so strange after the mechanism for domestic financing is mastered. There is, nevertheless, enough material that is distinct in the organization for transacting foreign business to constitute a special study.

Content of courses in commercial organization for foreign trade.—There are three parts to every kind of trade analysis: (1) A study of the commodity or commodities; (2) a study of the market; and (3) a study of the trade organization for carrying the goods to market.

It must follow, therefore, that an intelligent understanding of the trade organization presupposes a knowledge of the goods and the market. Commercial organization, after all, is not a fixed, unchangeable thing; it is a way of doing things by men who desire to attain a result most expeditiously and economically for themselves. However bound by tradition and custom, this economic mechanism is affected constantly by the thinking and the strategy of countless alert and eager minds that are seeking better ways of doing things.

1. *Surplus for export.*—The first problem that presents itself, then, is the kind of commodities that are available for export. The character and quantity of these goods will depend upon natural resources and manufacturing capacity of the country and upon the general policy of the country as to whether it is willing to send out raw materials or is engaged in developing its fabricating facilities. An understanding of this subject demands a knowledge of commercial geography first of all. If such knowledge can be presumed, then the groundwork is already laid for the course. It will be wise, in any case, to take up this subject even if only in review.

2. *Markets.*—If there are goods available for export, the problem immediately arises of finding a market for them. This is the next subject for study in a course on commercial organization for foreign trade. An analysis of foreign markets will involve an examination of character of the people, their standards of living, their trade habits and customs, their purchasing power, what they produce for their own consumption, what they need from abroad. All sources of information on these subjects should be canvassed. The needs of these peoples for our surplus goods, both existing and prospective, will be surveyed. There will be the question, also, of competing and supplementary goods. There is the difficult matter of adapting our goods and our productive capacity to foreign demands. A market is after all only a chance to sell, if possible at a profit; it is a demand for goods backed up by purchasing power, i. e., effective demand. This is what the merchant and manufacturer, both foreign and domestic, are seeking.

3. *Trade organization.*—What kind of organization has arisen to carry these available goods to the foreign market? The analysis of this organization should constitute the backbone of the course. For convenience of discussion this study will fall naturally into two parts: One of these will be the organization within the United States and on the sea for handling goods destined for a foreign market, the other will be the organization in the foreign country for receiving and distributing these goods.

(*a*) Methods of contact: An early step for the merchant or manufacturer in marketing is the getting into contact with the prospective buyer: This is just as true of foreign trade as of domestic trade. There are many ways of doing this, some far more effective than others. One may try to make contact with his market through the mail, either by catalogue, by advertisements, or by sales letters, etc. If the business justifies the expense, either singly or through a combined sales organization under the provisions of the Webb bill, a salesman may be sent. Contact may be had through exhibitions or other means of showing samples. A descriptive analysis should be made of all methods of contact.

(*b*) The commission house: The foremost figure in the commercial organization for foreign trade in the past has been the commission house. What economic services this middleman performs, whether his power increases or diminishes, what his elements of strength and what his weakness, are necessary subjects of study.

(*c*) The forwarding agent: There is, too, the work of the forwarding agent. He may be merely a collector of goods from many small sources into carload lots in order to obtain lower rates. These goods may pass into the hands of a commission house at the port. Or the forwarding agent may do more than take from the manufacturer the worry and bother of making out documents, securing shipping space, and collecting against documents. He may become the foreign department of the exporter, acting in his name and identifying

himself in all respects with the interest of his principal. This specialized middleman should be studied in all the different attitudes that he assumes.

(*d*) The export department: As foreign business increases in volume, it may become advisable to organize a special foreign department in the business. Methods of organization, training, and equipment for the management of a foreign department are subjects for investigation. Many large businesses in the United States have aggressive and effective foreign trade departments that have been able to meet successfully their most powerful, adroit, and skilled competitors.

(*e*) Foreign sales organization: Under the Webb Act that became a law in April, 1918, it is possible for American manufacturers to combine in organizing a sales department to handle their export business. The new development in foreign policy in the United States may have far-reaching consequences. It deserves careful examination.

(*f*) Transportation: There is also the subject of transportation to be taken up. A course in foreign trade should include a detailed study of shipping documents. The ocean bill of lading, the insurance certificate, the consular invoice, and any other special papers that shippers are required to make out should be actually handled by the students until they are familiar with them. The measurement of shipping space and the buying and selling of space are also pertinent subjects.

(*g*) Foreign distributing organization: The student should be taught something of the commercial organization in the foreign country. The indent merchant, the comprador, the foreign jobber, the foreign retail merchant, whoever is influential in guiding the course of commodities into and out of foreign lands, is a character in the story of foreign trade.

4. *Foreign exchange.*—The best place to take up the subject of foreign exchange is in connection with a study of foreign trade organization. In this way it is possible to show the service performed by the bills of exchange. These should be studied with all the documents attached until they are no longer a mystery. Then the question of exchange rates may be taken up.

5. *Merchant marine.*—It is unavoidable to meet with the problem of a merchant marine in making a survey of foreign trade. In these latter days this is so interesting a subject that there is no difficulty in giving it a place in the course.

6. *Tariff.*—The foreign trade policy is inevitably affected by the tariff policy. This question arises in the foreign trade course, not as a political problem, but as a commercial problem, and should be discussed from that angle. A new point of view may be had by looking at tariff walls throughout the world, and by observing how the flow of trade is stopped or diverted by this means.

7. *Marine insurance.*—Some place should be given in the course in foreign trade to the subject of marine insurance. This survey ought to cover both the perils of the sea and the war-risk insurance. There is also the question of the Government's share in the risk as compared with that of private companies. The cryptic technical terms, such as "general average," "free from particular average," etc., should be explained.

8. *The future of foreign trade for United States.*—The study of foreign trade problems ought to lead to some conclusions as to the future foreign trade of the United States. It might be well to include a detailed study of certain possible markets. This line of investigation may be followed as far as it seems practicable. In any case, the study will enable one to view more intelligently the proper development of foreign trade, the best markets to approach, the best methods to use in reaching a market, the best adjustment of supply to demand. One will also inevitably learn how to find out what he wants to know.

The next best thing to knowing facts is to know where to find them. Some such course as has been indicated here will enable the investigator to work more intelligently on his foreign trade problem.

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INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL GEOGRAPHY.

By J. Russell Smith,
Professor of Economic Geography, Columbia University.

The place of geography in higher education is one of the miracles of the human mind. Our higher education is nearly always planned without any provision for knowledge of the earth in which we are to pass our mortal days.

Land is land, water is water, and with those two sweeping facts as the approximate total of world information, men have for centuries thrown themselves away for the want of a little geographic knowledge. Colonists, traders, missionaries, guided by ignorant faith, have planted themselves on inhospitable shores, where the colonies have shriveled, the traders have failed, and the missionaries have died—all for the want of the simple knowledge that should now be given in any high school or college course in geography.

Geography as a part of education has suffered greatly because of the fact that it led to no definite career. The chemist can get a job as a chemist, so chemistry gets quickly into our curriculum. The geographer, on the other hand, can rarely get a position as a geographer, despite the vital importance of this science as a part of the preparation for business, finance in the broader sense, citizenship, and foreign trade.

The business man, the financier, the trader, and the citizen need to be acquainted with the homeland and other lands as places in which man may live and make a living. This is a personally utilitarian value.

Geography has unappreciated cultural and social value as a part of general education. It is doubtful if any study rivals geography in its ability to serve as a foundation to so many other studies. History used to be the recorded antics of a few men. Now it is being interpreted more and more as movements, which are often little more than the attempts of men to adjust themselves to the factors of their geographic environment. Political economy and finance deal largely with industries and their developments, which in turn depend upon the resources and geographic conditions of certain parts of the earth's surface. It is high time we reached the end of the epoch when men will have to find out all these things for themselves, although carefully taught about the campaigns of Caesar, the development of medieval cities, the details of military history, or the platforms of parties as they tried to master some economic problem that had a geographic origin not mentioned in the chronicle.

We have now entered the era of world trade, and therefore necessarily of world thinking. It is difficult to think about things of which we know nothing. It is necessary for us to know something about the world in which we live,

as a place in which to make a living. Why is one place good and another place bad? Where are the good places and where are the bad places? What are our relations to these different parts of the earth?

It is difficult to think of a kind of educated man who does not need large blocks of knowledge in this field. Certainly the lawyer, the financier, the factory manager, the importer, the exporter, the legislator, the farmer needs it. Even the divinity student needs it, if the missionaries of the church hope to make themselves effective in foreign lands, or even in other parts of their own country.

Good courses in economic geography should, from this time forward, become a part of the education of the man of general culture, as well as of special training. They should be alongside of history, literature, and foreign language, as well as accounting, transportation, business law, and the older sciences.

Arrangement of geography courses in a college curriculum.—A student needs two kinds of geography—first, general geography, and second, regional geography.

1. *General geography.*—Here he gets the tools of geographic understanding, just as the student of mathematics gets the tools of mathematical understanding, namely the power to add and subtract, multiply and divide. The man to whom the world shall be anything but a mysterious exterior, needs to know many things about climate, soil, land surface, that are applicable wherever these things appear. This is sometimes called systematic geography. There are two ways in which it may be taught. One, the simpler and the drier, is to give these tools of geography in an introductory course dealing with heat and cold, wind and rain, hill and plain, mountain, forest, soil, desert, swamp, etc.

2. *Regional geography.*—Courses dealing with particular parts of the world naturally follow this introduction. They may be divided somewhat as follows: United States and Canada, Latin America, Europe and Asia, Africa and Australia.

Any two of the last four may easily be taken simultaneously, thus snugly fitting into a four-year course.

Another way, possibly more interesting, probably more difficult, of teaching the same material, is to intersperse the general geography with a regional study, as for example, the course on the United States and Canada, which may be made introductory by including nearly all of the climatic and general geographic knowledge necessary for the understanding of this region and other regions.

Bibliography, general.—After a student has had one or more courses in commercial and industrial geography, he will receive great benefit and showers of material if he will clip the commerce reports, from the Department of Commerce, Washington, and three or four such magazines as the Review of Reviews, World's Work, and Country Gentleman. If he develops specialties, they can be followed in Poole's Index to Periodic Literature, which covers the general field, and in the magazine, Industrial Management, which covers the more technical fields, but has a large amount of material of value to any student of geography.

The whole field of geographic literature is ably covered in the Geographic Review, published monthly by the American Geographical Society of New York. No person really interested in the subject should miss this journal.

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——— Industrial and commercial geography. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1913. 914 p. This book is perhaps more philosophic than Chisholm, but contains fewer facts. It has chapters covering the leading industries, foreign trade, its routes and organization. These books are of college and university grade.
Newspaper almanacs, such as World Almanac, contain good collections of statistics at much less cost than the above.
Statesman's Year Book. New York, Macmillan Co. For ready reference; for knowledge of population, area, trade statistics, and governments of all parts of the world, this book has few rivals for convenience.
Yearbook of the United States Department of Agriculture. Free through your Member of Congress. Valuable collection of statistics of agricultural production in all countries.

BUSINESS ARITHMETIC.

By G. H. VAN TUYL,

Instructor in Business Mathematics, Extension Teaching, Columbia University.

Probably not less than 95 per cent of all mathematical operations, either in domestic or foreign trade, come under the general head of arithmetic rather than that of any other branch of mathematics. Accuracy and facility of arithmetical computation are, therefore, of prime importance to one engaged in any commercial enterprise. Not only should one be accurate and facile in handling arithmetical operations but he should have a thorough knowledge of the subject matter of arithmetic, so that, in the interpretation of problems, he may not only interpret correctly but he may not, at the same time, misapply the principles of arithmetic to the solution in hand.

Emphasis should, therefore, be first placed upon accuracy of calculation, and, second, upon facility of calculation.

These two topics may be considered together because each reacts upon the other, and increase in skill in either adds ability in the other.

How shall one become accurate and facile in making computations? There are one subjective and two objective phases in the process. The subjective phase has to do with the power of concentration. No one may hope to succeed in work of this kind who can not bring his complete and full attention to bear upon the work.

The objective phases have to do with repetition, or drill, and the application of simple, practical short methods of calculation. Other things being equal, the fewer figures one is required to make in a given calculation, the fewer will be the errors, and consequently the greater degree of accuracy. The detection and elimination of errors frequently take more time than was required for the original calculation.

Accuracy and facility of calculation are of little value in and of themselves if their possessor has not also the ability to interpret problems as they arise and apply thereto correct arithmetical principles. Hence one should be ready and accurate in interpretation of problems. Correct interpretation depends upon a wide general knowledge of business customs, together with an exact and definite knowledge of the principles of arithmetic and of mathematics. A general knowledge of commercial law, accounting, and economics is most important. A thorough knowledge of algebra is valuable.

A course of study should include thorough drill in the fundamental operations involving integers and common and decimal fractions. The efficiency of the calculator may be greatly increased by the application of the many short methods of handling these operations.

A study of the relation of numbers, or, as it is frequently expressed, of aliquot parts, should be made. The study of aliquot parts should in no wise be limited to those parts whose base is 100 (that is, 100 cents to the dollar, or to 100 per cent). The study should include aliquots of many numbers. The

principle of aliquots may be advantageously applied to many numbers, and to many operations in multiplication and division. Simple interest calculations are best made by use of this principle.

Percentage must be mastered.

From percentage on through its applications the course should include those topics having to do directly with foreign commercial enterprise. Among the most important are the following:

Metric system of weights and measures and their English equivalents.

Foreign exchange, covering a knowledge of the coinage laws of the countries one deals with. Rates of exchange and method of handling same. Gold imports and exports. Effect of time on rates of exchange. Use of conversion, and interest and bill stamp tables.

Customs regulations of the United States and of countries dealt with. Methods of reckoning duties.

Equation of accounts.

Cash balance, by the United States, English, and French methods.

Compound interest, and applications to investments, present values, annuities, sinking funds, etc.

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COMMERCIAL PRODUCTS.

By C. W. WASSAM,
Assistant Professor of Commerce, University of Iowa.

A course which has received little attention on the part of the universities and colleges of the country, but one which should certainly now occupy a prominent place in our teaching of foreign trade is commercial products. Practically all of the textbooks upon the subject of commercial geography give some place to a special study of the product, but not as much as the importance of the subject warrants.

There are several very definite advantages in making the *product* the basis of your study, instead of the country or the region. In the first place, you get a world view of the subject, and it is much easier to secure a proper concept of the product when you are thinking of it in every country and the conditions necessary for its growth or manufacture, instead of making the country or the State, or the region, the basis, and thinking only of the product as secondary.

It is rather difficult to remember that in a certain part of the study of a certain country there was something important stated about a certain product, but if you make the product the basis of your study then all places having similar conditions will be able to produce the same things.

Another very important reason for making the product the basis of the study is that, with increased commerce of the future and the gradual breaking down of trade barriers, the student should be led to see that the country best adapted for the production of a given product should produce that thing. It

is no longer an important question that the United States produces wheat, but what is the place of the United States in the world's production of wheat and in just what way can our production be changed to fit into the commerce of the world.

The study of forestry in the United States has become important in recent years, and the conservation of our forest supply is extremely necessary; but a more important question for the student of commerce is to have a world vision of forestry, and to know what Canada, Russia, Sweden, and other countries could do to meet any deficiency that we may have in our country in the future.

There is also a pedagogical reason for a course in commercial products. It is much easier to keep the attention of the student centered upon some concrete product and from this bring in other important factors than it is to have a country or a region for your basis of study. In the country or region your concept is so large and so complicated that it is difficult for the ordinary student to grasp it and to understand all the important relations. Take the question of climate as an illustration. If you simply teach climate as a part of the general knowledge that one should have of a country, as is often done, the student does not become very much interested, but if you are studying the question of sugar and the student is looking for a suitable climate for the production of sugar cane, you immediately have a concrete motive for knowing about the climate of that certain country. An excellent method used to show the relation between climate and the product is to have the student take an outline map of the world and shade all the countries that have a similar climate, then with another map shade the countries that produce a certain product and the similarity will be apparent at a glance.

At the University of Iowa the writer has found the commercial museum a great help in teaching commercial products. An attempt has been made to collect in the museum samples of the different products in all the different stages of their manufacture or growth. By this concrete method of instruction the students get a very definite idea of the particular product which is being studied. With this definite idea in mind it is easy to bring into the study many other important facts, such as transportation, marketing, conditions necessary for growth or manufacture, and other similar facts.

Some of the more important points which should be considered in the study of an articles of commerce are: History of the product; conditions necessary for growth or manufacture, like climate, soil, raw materials, labor supply, capital, etc.; total world's production, and production by separate states or countries; importance in comparison with similar articles; international trade; methods used in marketing; by-products; and future of the industry.

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BUSINESS ENGLISH.

By GEORGE BURTON HOTCHKISS.
Professor of Business English in New York University.

Only recently has the subject of business English begun to be recognized as a proper part of school and university training for foreign trade and other fields of business. It is making headway rapidly, however, because the usual course in English composition has not paid much attention to letters, reports, and the other kinds of messages commonly used in business. Some special study of these forms, with practice in their use, is obviously desirable during the period of educational preparation, and the business man rightly expects it of those who enter his employ.

Although the subject of business English is too new to be standardized, there is at least an agreement that its requirements differ from those of literary English composition sufficiently to warrant a separate place in the curriculum. There is also a general agreement as to the fundamental differences and the method of treatment needed.

Business English is distinctly a utilitarian art, practiced for profit. Its ideals are the strictly business ideals of efficiency—maximum results at minimum expenditure. Unfortunately, this has too often meant simply an attempt to reduce production costs. There is a growing tendency now to consider the letter as a producer rather than a product, and to give more attention to the task of increasing its resultfulness. Resultfulness, too, is being regarded not merely as direct response, but the more indefinite but invaluable *good will* of the reader. Business English is more than businesslike English; it is business-building English.

On this simple conception, simpler perhaps in theory than in practice, the whole structure of business English is built. The study itself properly includes three main divisions—principles, technique, and methods.

The first and most essential principle is that business English is less a matter of good expression than of good impression; hence should be written from the reader's viewpoint. Economy of his time and energy is necessary. This involves proper adaptation of the substance and style of the message to the reader's viewpoint, character, and mood. This requirement, to be sure, is not peculiar to business English, but in business English the requirement is more important and more apparent than elsewhere. It assumes special importance in correspondence with foreign firms, whose ideas and ideals sometimes differ radically from those of American business men.

The second main division—technique—includes a careful examination of all structural details, including paragraphs, sentences, and words. These are matters requiring constant revision, even with those whose early training has been thorough. They should be studied as means to an end, rather than as rules to be followed. Business English has also certain differences in requirements, notably in such matters as length of paragraphs and sentences, and in vocabulary.

In the third division—methods—the student really enters the study of business transactions. Business English is literally one-half business. There is nothing more fruitless than to write for the sake of writing. Training in business English, therefore, must give some understanding of the ordinary business situations that require letters, and some knowledge of the suitable method of procedure. Right substance is in business English a preliminary to good style. It has been found in teaching the subject that if the student secures a fair knowledge of the methods that are best adapted to the accomplishment of his purpose, and has the right viewpoint toward his reader, development of good style comes naturally and easily.

A large amount of practice is absolutely essential in a business English course. Such practice should be in the form of solving business problems rather than merely writing letters. The problem states a typical situation which must be handled in such a way as to win the favorable response of the reader and at the same time maintain or restore his good will. There is some advantage in requiring that a part of this practice work be done in the classroom within a limited time. In actual business, writing must often be done under pressure, and it has proved helpful to apply that pressure during the period of training.

The degree of success in training students in business English depends not a little upon the kind of criticism given by the instructor. This should not overemphasize details of form to the neglect of the more vital considerations of substance, attitude, and tone. Wherever possible, criticism should be constructive and accompanied by specific examples that show the student how a much better impression could have been secured by different handling. The oral practice of dictating letters aloud is valuable, not only for the confidence it gives, but also for the opportunity it affords to develop speaking ability.

There are certain handicaps to the teaching of business English. In the first place, most of the instructors at the present time have to be taken from the ranks of the academically trained. Their traditions have usually not been the traditions of the business man, either in aims and methods, or in standards. Before they can teach effectively, it is necessary for them to discover how business men actually use English. Nor can they rest content with that. The average business letter is not more than 50 per cent efficient, and the teacher can not safely take at random letters even from good business houses as fairly representative of the ideals to be sought. He must analyze, weigh, and compare letters, and also get figures about results. In point of fact, business men themselves have been eagerly searching for ways to improve the quality of their letters and those of their employees. Thousands of them are to-day studying business English through the use of textbooks and extension and correspondence courses.

At the present time the list of textbooks available in the field is somewhat limited, and the majority of these were written primarily for high school rather than university and college purposes. Some of them, however, are equally suitable for the higher schools, and the list will no doubt be rapidly extended.

Another handicap is the difficulty of putting in the hands of students an adequate body of specimens of good letters and reports. Specimen books of exposition, narration, and the like are of well-recognized value in the teaching of college composition. Specimen books in business English will no doubt make their appearance in the near future and prove of equal assistance.

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ADVERTISING AND SALESMANSHIP.

Outline of Practice Work in Technique of Business Courses at Columbia University.

By GUY RICHARD HUBBART,

Lecturer on Advertising, Columbia University.

Courses in advertising and salesmanship have been established at Columbia University for several years. They are given in the school of business and the division of extension teaching.

Aim and purpose.—From the start the primary aim has been to give students a firm grounding in the fundamentals of advertising and selling, and practice

in the application of principles to definite sales and advertising problems. A secondary aim has been to give students an accurate viewpoint regarding the use and value of advertising and selling as factors in the distribution of goods.

In accordance with the above aims a method of instruction has been developed which takes into account the special needs of three types of students: Those with no acquaintance with business, the purely academic student; those who have had experience in other than the advertising or sales department of a business house; those who are employed as juniors in the advertising or sales departments.

Scope and method.—Instruction includes the study of merchandising, to give the student a definite understanding of goods; advertising, to enable him to tell the story of the goods he has to distribute; salesmanship, to ground him in the value of selling principles and methods; sales management, to give him a firm grasp of the methods of organizing and managing forces of salesmen. Instruction in advertising covers all phases of national, trade, technical, and specialty advertising; instruction in salesmanship covers all phases of retail, wholesale, and specialty selling. A third of the time involved in instruction is devoted to the presentation of sound theory; a third is devoted to the study of principles and their direct application to specified problems in selling and advertising; a third is devoted to actual practice, in so far as this is possible in an academic environment, and to special lectures on certain broad phases of business practice.

Special value of training.—Business men are awakening to the pressing need of better selling, more efficient personal effort on the part of individual members of the sales force, because efficient selling means more productive selling at the same or less cost.

Increased efficiency must have its basis in elementary training which embodies the spirit as much as the principle of modern business practice. It is here that academic training can best benefit the future employer of young women and men, especially if the instruction and training are given by men of broad practical experience who are in business and who are not out of touch with youth.

It costs the average business house as much to train a man for a position requiring creative and constructive ability as the first year's salary is worth; and that means preliminary training, the training requisite for holding a position merely, to say nothing of measuring up to its requirements.

University courses in business really fit men for the beginning of their future growth and usefulness in business activities. The training is of much greater value than an equal number of years of apprenticeship minus the academic training, except, of course, in purely mechanical pursuits. The theory, once held by a certain type of employer, that four years of practical work is better for a salesman than an equal amount of special training under capable instructors is frayed out. This because practical training alone gives only practice, while practice plus broadened outlook and accurate viewpoint, such as only specialized training gives, is what makes the young worker in business efficient in the real sense.

This point of view is kept constantly in the foreground in the instruction given at Columbia University in the courses in merchandising, advertising, salesmanship, and sales management.

Textbooks are used sparingly, but reference works by the leading business writers are used to supplement lectures and practice work.

A national need.—Educators would do well to encourage the popular presentation of accredited courses in business practice through the pages of newspapers, much in the same way that courses in domestic science, physical culture, and comic features are exploited. This would do much to impress the average business man with the value of special training, and it would put before the future

applicant for business positions the need for thorough training as a preparation for practical work. Ten years ago such a thing would have been impracticable, due to the lack of sound methods of instruction. To-day it is as feasible as it is practical, in view of the fact that universities, colleges, and even business institutions of a progressive type have developed capable men and evolved methods of unquestioned merit.

ECONOMIC HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

By E. L. Bogart,
Professor of Economics, University of Illinois.

The subject "Economic history of the United States" is prescribed for those students who take the course in foreign commerce at the University of Illinois. This indicates in part the importance which is here attributed to this subject. Personally, I regard such a subject as fundamental in preparation for general business or more specifically for foreign trade and foreign service of the Government. The necessary background of fact and of historical development in the growth of the Nation's industries, commerce, agriculture, and other fields of enterprise are here secured. Especially valuable in such a training is the gaining of proper sense of historical perspective, which enables the student to discriminate between events of ephemeral and those of permanent importance, to place things in their proper relations to each other, and to discern the direction of present-day movements. An analysis of trade conditions would gain immensely in value if it were based upon a thorough knowledge of the past; indeed, if the writer lacked this knowledge he might easily draw erroneous inferences and make an incorrect analysis. For the American student of foreign commerce not merely is an acquaintance with the history of commerce in the narrow sense desirable, but also a thorough comprehension of the growth and development of our agriculture, mining, forestry, and fisheries, of our manufactures, tariff legislation, transportation, and banking, and of the organization of capital and labor. The economic history of the United States is not an isolated phenomenon, but throws valuable light upon the march of events in countries, like those in South America, which are now passing through similar stages of industrial development.

In the University of Illinois the course in economic history of the United States is given in the second semester of the freshman year. It is preceded by a course on economic resources and is followed in the sophomore year by the usual course in principles of economics. It does not seem desirable to let first-year students take the last-named subject, but those who register for the business or commercial curricula are eager to have some economics from the beginning. In the course in economic history we feel that they secure a desirable combination of fact and theory, of induction and deduction. The historical background which they obtain is of great service to them in their further study of economic principles and problems. One semester only is given to this course, but they are subsequently given opportunities to elect further courses in the economic history of England and of modern Europe, as well as a more advanced course in that of the United States.

The manner of presentation is oral quizzes based upon a textbook and a book of collateral readings. Lectures have been given up in order to permit all the time to be used for class discussion. The course is by no means regarded as merely informational, but rather as affording training in accurate presentation of facts, in correct inductive reasoning, and in causal relationships. Written exercises are used in various ways. The writer has even posted a list of historical novels dealing with different phases of our economic development in order to vivify the subject matter but the reading of these is entirely optional.

While the subject is taught by members of the department of economics and is treated as an economic discipline, every effort is made to relate it to the other courses in the curriculum so as to prevent duplication, and also to the other social sciences, especially the regular courses in American history. For many of the other economic courses economic history is regarded as an introduction. The historical framework is here provided into which later other courses may be fitted which shall elaborate some special subject. The course in economic history seems the one best adapted to serve as the general introduction which shall link together the rest of the work of the student in the college of commerce and business administration.

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TRYON, ROLLA M. HOUSEHOLD MANUFACTURES IN THE UNITED STATES, 1640–1860: A Study in Industrial History. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. xii, 413.

By the publication of this volume Prof. Tryon has filled a gap in the industrial history of the United States and especially in the history of manufactures. The field which he essays to cover had hitherto been neglected, the

writers on manufactures usually interpreting that word in the popular rather than in the etymological meaning. The phrase "household manufactures" in Prof. Tryon's book is defined to include only those articles made in the home or on the plantation by members of the family or plantation from raw material produced largely on the farm where the manufacturing was done. It does not include articles produced under the handicraft, shop, mill, or factory systems, each of which marks a subsequent stage in the development of manufactures in the United States.

As to the importance of this subject during the period covered there can be no question. The following quotation does not overstate its claims for consideration:

> It is certainly no exaggeration to say that civilization could not have been maintained in sections of the New England and Middle States during the colonial period, and on the frontier everywhere for several years after the appearance of the first settlement, without the system of household manufactures.

The task of collecting and winnowing the material, and of assembling and interpreting it, has been well done by the author. A clear picture is given of the characteristics of household manufactures, their place in the domestic economy, and their value in supplying the needs of the people. During the colonial period they were pursued from necessity and were local in scope. After 1765 they were definitely and purposely developed as a method of resistance to England's colonial policy. This development continued throughout the Revolution, suffered a sharp decline after the declaration of peace, but was revived again about 1790, and continued until our industrial independence was assured and the household manufactures were supplanted by the factory system.

The study is a careful, able, and scholarly piece of work, which supplements admirably the recent "History of Manufactures," by Victor S. Clark. The further work to be done in this field must now consist of more intensive studies of particular industries, of which there exist already a few excellent ones, or of particular localities and periods.

Valuable historical and statistical material can also be found in the Census Reports, especially those for 1860, 1880, and 1900, and in the Reports of the Departments of Agriculture, of Commerce, and of Labor. The occasional reports of various temporary commissions should also be consulted for special data, as those of the Industrial, Monetary, Immigration, Federal Trade, and similar commissions.

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

By GEORGE B. ROORBACH,

Professor of Foreign Trade, School of Business Administration, Harvard University.

One of the fundamental studies to be undertaken in connection with the subject of foreign trade is included in economic geography. To plan for the development of trade in any part of the world requires an intimate knowledge of the land and people with which trade is to be carried on. This study will include a consideration of the position of the countries in respect to other lands and to trade routes; the physical features, climate, and natural resources as they determine or influence the industries, life, and trade of the people; a description and explanation of the present economic conditions as determined by the facts of geography, history, and peoples; and an attempt to interpret the possible future development of the country and its trade as indicated by

an examination of the underlying physical, racial, and economic conditions of the present.

At the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, of the University of Pennsylvania, the work in economic or commercial geography has been planned as follows: During the freshman year, all students are required to take a course in "Economic resources." This considers during the first semester the fundamental natural economic resources, their importance, uses, location, and the question of their conservation as it is related to the industrial community. During the second semester, type regions are studied as examples of the way the fundamental physical factors of location, climate, surface features, and resources affect the economic development of different parts of the world. Such widely divergent regions as England, Spain, China, Columbia, and California are studied in a general way.[1]

In the sophomore year, the student may elect either a three-hour per week course in "Manufacturing industries of the United States," which is a detailed study of the United States from the industrial point of view, or a three-hour course on "Industrial districts of the United States," which makes him familiar with the various sections of our own country. During the sophomore year, also, the student may begin the actual detailed study of foreign countries, and continue this study, if he so desires, during the last two years of his college course.

There are three such courses offered, each requiring two hours per week for the entire year. These courses are: 1. "The economic and political geography of Europe and Africa;" 2. "The economic and political geography of Asia (including Australia);" 3. "The resources and industries of South and Central America." The general method of presentation is the same in all three, except that more attention is given to political affairs in Europe and Asia than in the South American course. In each case, the general facts concerning physical features, climate and resources of the respective continents are outlined in relation to their effects upon industries, commerce, and peoples. Then, in more detail, each of the political divisions is studied. Emphasis is, of course, put upon present, and the probable future, commercial relations of the countries studied with the United States. The imparting of information concerning foreign countries is not the chief aim, although this is important. The attempt is made to give such an interpretation of the country that the student will have an understanding knowledge of the land and its people in order that he can form his own judgments concerning its economic and commercial possibilities and needs. Be his interests in the country, commercial, financial, industrial or political, the student will then at least have a background that should help him in the formation of sound decisions and the planning of wise policies when the occasion arises.

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[1] This statement was prepared at the time the writer was assistant professor of geography at the University of Pennsylvania.

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FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC MARKETS AND TRADE.

By EDWARD D. JONES,

Professor of Business Administration, University of Michigan.

Our problem at the University of Michigan, in giving specialized economics courses, is to adapt them to the requirements of undergraduate students. Our

students are taking a regular college course, and are electing programs of courses in economics as a semiprofessional element which must be adjusted to the other requirements of a general college course. Our work is given in the college of literature, science and the arts, and not in a separate school or department of commerce and business administration. This limits us materially in the development of the technical aspects of subjects connected with special occupations. In a course on foreign trade conducted last semester, probably not one of the 55 students would ever have any direct and immediate connection with foreign trade. Our inland location, and our non-professional character, indicate a different conception of a course from that which would be appropriate for a commercial school in a seaboard city.

Nevertheless, since this course was offered for the first time, and since so much has been said in the discussions of the national foreign trade conventions about courses of study with teeth in them, it was decided to devote one-half of the time to technical questions, and one-half to general foreign trade policies.

There were presented, therefore, in the first half of the semester, such subjects as the present situation of American manufacturing industry with reference to outlets, the probable advantage of American industry in international competition, the method of making a systematic analysis of a foreign market, advertising in foreign trade, the training and handling of foreign salesmen, the use and protection of trade-marks, the organization of a foreign sales department, the arguments pro and contra with reference to allowing combinations in foreign trade, the technique of a sale (including terms, weights and measures, moneys, guarantees, etc.), transportation and shipping (including a description of all the documents required), credit and finance (bank credits, book accounts, drafts, etc.). To this was attached a discussion of branch banks as competitive agencies. This section of the subject was closed up by studying the effect of foreign investments, the various forms of Government aid available to the American exporter, the various types of tariff in existence, and the general character of the network of commercial treaties in existence. The functions performed by the various classes of agencies were also considered; such as manufacturers' export agents, export commission merchants, etc., available to aid the American manufacturer. All of these matters were handled very briefly. Use was made of Mr. E. W. Zimmerman's Foreign Trade and Shipping, supplementing it liberally with B. O. Hough's Practical Exporting, readings selected from the Proceedings of the National Foreign Trade Convention and the Exporter's Encyclopedia. A few problems in this part of the semester were also used. When we finished we had merely glanced at the economics of ocean freight rates, had done nothing with foreign exchange, and were convinced that four or five times as much effort would be required to get the technique so that it would be of any material and lasting advantage to a young man who might be going into a foreign sales department. Such a thorough and adequate course, as intimated at the beginning is not thought to be justified in a Middle-West State university at present.

We then turned to the study of the general economic conditions of the chief supplying and receiving countries in international trade, and to foreign economic policies. This study we amplified by dividing the world into a few economic types, and considering the problems which arise from the increasing impingement of type upon type. We studied the problems of the British Empire, of Germany, of the new countries (Australasia, Argentina, etc.); of the Far East (China and Japan), of the Levant, and of the Tropics. For this work we were compelled to resort to readings chosen from many sources, for illustration; Bryce, Relation of Advanced and Backward Races; Ross, Foundations of Soci-

ology; Shadwell, Industrial Efficiency; Dawson, Modern Industrial Germany; Smith, Chinese Characteristics; Bell and Woodhead, The China Yearbook; Kidd, The Control of the Tropics, etc.

In this section of the course use was made of a great many problems. A small working collection of perhaps 25 volumes was put in the department library, including such works as Fullerton, Problems of Power; Naumann, Central Europe; Hauser, Germany's Commercial Grip on the World; Hornbeck, Contemporary Politics in the Far East; Coolidge, The United States as a World Power; Seymour, The Diplomatic Background of the War; and Calderon, Latin America. This literature the class worked with, in response to definite problems set them. This is illustrated by a problem chosen at random; giving the problem and the answer briefed out, as prepared in notes for the quiz section:

SAMPLE PROBLEM WORK.

Problem: How did the diplomats attempt to solve the problem of Morocco by the Algeciras act? What brought about their failure?

Reference: Walter Lippman, "The States of Diplomacy," Ch. X, Algeciras: A Landmark, pp. 145–149. Univ. of Mich. Library call number 351 L77.

Answer (briefed):

Convention at Madrid, 1880.
- All agreed to integrity of Morocco.
- Equal trade privileges for all nations.
- Plan did not work out.
- Emperor William's visit to Tangiers.

Convention at Algeciras. 1905. The act.
- Police under Sultan.
  - French and Spanish officers (46–60) to aid him for 5 years.
  - Inspector-general to be a Swiss, 5 years. Report to Morocco.
  - File copies of reports with powers concerned.
- Morocco State Bank.
  - Spanish money to be legal tender.
  - French corporation law applied.
  - Censors appointed by German Imperial Bank, Bank of England, Bank of Spain, Bank of France.
  - Matter of taxes, acquisition of property, customs duties, navigation laws, public works, etc., settled between the Moorish Government and the diplomats.
  - Fraud and smuggling controlled by customs valuation commission.
  - Public contracts to be by bid, without respect to nationality.
  - This an attempt to form a sort of international control; a "Dependency of a World State."

Causes of Failure.
- Intrigues.
- National rivalries.
- Bargains.
- Plan "calls for a loyalty larger than the patriotism to which men are accustomed."
- Historical precedent. "When we think how difficult a task it was to bring about Italian, German, and American union, we need not be surprised that the experiment with a world state to control Morocco should have ended in disastrous failure."

Four or five such problems were given out at a time, each one to a small section of the class, so that books would be available. The class appeared to enjoy this study very much, regretting the time which had been spent on technique. The readings and the problems were held together by lectures, which aimed to give in outline the industrial characteristics of the sections of the world being studied.

FOREIGN MARKETS AND TRADE PROBLEMS.

By PAUL T. CHERINGTON,

Secretary National Association Wool Manufacturers, Boston, Mass.

Manufactures have figured conspicuously in the export trade of the United States since about the year 1895. Before that time a large number of manufacturers were doing a thriving export business, and several American merchant houses were selling in foreign countries large quantities of American manufactured products. The statistical measure of the value of American exports indicates, however, that about that time the increase in the exports of refined petroleum, bar copper, steel, agricultural implements, and a few other lines of manufactures, marked the beginning of what was really a new stage in American export history—a stage in which manufactured products became conspicuous in our exports as compared with agricultural products.

It is well to keep in mind the fact that our exports of manufactures, large as they became, did not materially surpass in value our exports of raw cotton alone for more than 10 years after this increase in the exports of manufactures actually began.

Vigorous and in the main well-conducted agitations in favor of increasing the exports of manufactured products have been conducted in this country for about 20 years. Notwithstanding all of these agitations, however, the percentage of the total number of manufacturing concerns in the country which are intelligently conducting a successful and profitable export business is still small. It seems to be a fact that even now, notwithstanding all the interest of foreign affairs which may be expected to follow the war, the number of concerns which will be willing to pay the price for an intelligent development of export business will be small compared with the total number of concerns doing business in this country which might be said to be in a position to actually undertake some kind of foreign business.

This prediction is not based on any assumption of lack of astuteness on the part of American manufacturers. On the contrary, it is based upon the assumption that most of them have well-developed skill in recognizing places in which they can best sell their goods and the methods which they can most profitably employ. Most American manufacturers are not prepared for conducting foreign business, and they have the good sense to know it. Those who are prepared either temperamentally or by training, or who are willing to invest the necessary time and effort in securing preparation, probably will represent a very small percentage of the total number of American manufacturers for years to come.

Perhaps the most characteristic feature of the American business man is the consistency with which, at least in his commercial operations at home, he may be counted on to take a wise and profitable course without being able to tell accurately why he did it. As long as he had the largest free-trade area in the world in which to operate, and as long as this area was expanding in its purchasing capacity every year fast enough to take care of the most vigorous new competition, this dependency on "native wit" was satisfactory. There has been a growing conviction, however, during the past few years that these conditions were in process of change and that this intuitive ability was going to require supplementing with an increasing amount of inquiry into the underlying reasons for economic phenomena. The rapid rise of training for business of college grade and of the professional school type is perhaps the best evidence of the spreading acceptance of this idea.

What has been true of domestic business in regard to this change in the attitude toward educational preparation is at least equally true in foreign business.

In the case of foreign business, however, the educational facilities are hampered by the greater complexity of the problems offered, by the more profound lack of elementary instructions in the underlying principles, and by the spread of a number of misconceptions. All of these make the problems of education in foreign trade more serious than they otherwise would be.

The question is often raised why the American manufacturer who displays such a high degree of ability in developing his domestic business has made such a pitiable record in many instances when he has undertaken to do foreign trading. The fact that such cases have occurred is beyond dispute. There is, nevertheless, a distinct increase year by year in the number of concerns which are approaching export trade in the spirit which assures success. They have no illusions, and they are filled with neither the spirit of the pioneer nor that of the commercial missionary. They are attacking export business with the same good sense they have used in attacking corresponding problems in domestic business. The point I want to make clear in connection with all of this is that certain American manufacturers and merchant houses "discovered the world" several years ago and those who have attacked the task of developing an export business in the same spirit in which they would have attacked it at home have made remarkable successes. At the same time the great company of concerns which have attacked the problem in a false spirit of adventure and with their minds obscured by complex misconceptions have uniformly met with a greater or smaller degree of failure.

No matter what postwar arrangement is entered into for the supervision of control over international commerce, it is reasonable to assume that competition for trade will be of the very keenest sort. Notwithstanding international agreements, it is safe to assume that the element of scramble will be very large and that national lines will be emphasized more than ever even under the old conditions. One of the rudest shocks experienced by most American exporting manufacturers was the discovery that there was no such thing on the planet as an "unoccupied market" which was worth having. Americans who had built up their business in this country under the sharpest kind of competition between American producers, and who were in many cases operating behind a tariff barrier, thought they knew something about competition. Their ideas, however, had to be revised when they undertook to sell goods in competition not only against foreign manufacturers but also against American manufacturers and merchants. They came to realize then that the sort of competition which they encounter in any one of these "unoccupied markets" is of the sort they could expect to encounter in this country if the volume of trade here were substantially diminished and the tariff barrier removed.

With this conception of what a "market" is and of the conditions of rivalry which may be expected to develop, it becomes clear that American manufacturers and merchants can no longer depend safely on the "depressed brain market" of other countries for their supply of young men to conduct their export business. Those markets for brains no longer are depressed by an oversupply of suitable men nor by the lack of opportunity for these men to serve their own fellow country. Moreover, it is evident that the American young men who must now be depended on to develop American export business must have not merely the right spirit and the right natural equipment, but they must have a type of training not hitherto generally available in this country.

Care should be taken not to leap at once to the idea that the type of training called for in the preparation of these young men should necessarily be the same type which has been employed successfully in training young men of other countries. The indications are that young men for export business in this country will have to be partly a product of the educational system and

partly a product of the merchandising mechanism which has been developed in this country and which has many points of too great value to be sacrificed.

The educational system of the country is going to find itself taxed to the utmost to develop a satisfactory system of training in international ideas and sales technique in economics and in the other underlying principles which will give to young men a conception of international commerce which, while strictly in accord with the facts, will at the same time be grounded on sound underlying principles.

Sales methods and traditions which have been developed in this country constitute perhaps the most valuable single resource with which the United States can hope to meet competition in foreign markets. In many respects the technique of salesmanship has been developed in this country more satisfactorily than it has anywhere else. The best elements of this development must be preserved and incorporated in any attempt to spread American commerce. In this work the educational system will require the close cooperation of business men.

The great task before the United States in the preparation for the expansion of foreign business is not the imitation of the methods of other countries but the adaptation of American methods to foreign conditions.

In summary it may be said that the problems before the United States in developing foreign business and particularly export trade involve a wide variety of apparently divergent undertakings, all of which must be made to work together toward the accomplishment of a single end. Perhaps chief among all of these is the preservation of American skill in selling technique, and its adaptation to new conditions. It will be a serious mistake, however, to treat this independently of the great host of other problems which must be worked out together. The development of an adequate financial system, the development of an adequate mechanism for delivery of merchandise and communication, the working out of a consistent national commercial policy and the training of men for foreign trade as a serious and exacting business, are simply a few of the problems which the fostering of American export business involves.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY COURSES ON FOREIGN TRADE.[1]

The following paragraphs describe the courses at Harvard University on foreign trade and foreign trade methods:

The war has had two marked effects on American foreign trade. The first is the serious alteration of its volume and character, growing out of the disturbance of economic conditions here and in Europe. It is probable that the export trade in American manufactures will assume a permanently increased importance.

A second effect of the war upon American foreign trade is the curtailment of the supply of young Englishmen and Germans who formerly were available on favorable terms as recruits in the service of American concerns engaged in either importing or exporting.

These conditions have turned the attention of American houses in the foreign trade to the question of securing young Americans for this work. The foreign trade field therefore is more attractive as an opening for the American college man than it ever was before.

Our foreign trade involves many difficult problems, the solution of which requires familiarity with business conditions in foreign countries as well as

[1] This statement was prepared at the time the writer was a member of the faculty of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration.

in our own and with international trading methods. In the import trade, direct foreign purchasing by manufacturers, import houses, and department stores, for example, calls for a wide knowledge of the sources whence the goods are to be obtained, of the agencies by which the trade is carried on, and of other features of the commercial mechanism. This is distinctly more urgent than was the case when the trade was handled more largely by commission houses.

Some American manufacturers and some American merchant houses already had made remarkable records of success even before the war conditions developed. But as a whole, American manufacturers and merchants have not put forth the serious and consistent efforts necessary for building up an export trade in manufactured goods. It is becoming increasingly clear, however, that foreign markets for manufactured products can not be secured by following the policies of the exporters of raw materials. Manufactured wares must not only be offered for sale; they must be pushed and pushed intelligently with due reference to distributing methods and the marketing conditions. Merchandising methods are, in some lines, quite different in the United States and foreign countries.

Both import and export trades are studied in these courses. But the greater emphasis is laid on means of placing goods in foreign markets, the competition which is likely to be encountered, the probable demand for various products, and how these products are actually to be distributed to the foreign consumers. Opportunities for capital investment in foreign countries are also considered. The courses are informative in that they describe the geographical, social, and industrial conditions which form the essential background of international commerce. They are analytical in their search for the reasons why particular methods are used and why special developments are taking place in special trades.

The analogies and contrasts with the merchandising methods in the domestic trade of the United States make such study profitable even to students who do not plan to enter the import or export trade.

FOREIGN TRADE METHODS.

The central question in this course is: How is American foreign trade carried on? In import trade, for instance, the ground covered includes such matters as the selection of sources, establishment of connections, internal organization, and the development of markets; and in the export trade, the selection of markets, the selection of exporting methods, the determination of export price policies, relations with commission houses and agents, and problems of order execution, such as packing, shipping, insurance, forwarding, exchange, credits, and collections.

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THE CHEMISTRY OF COMMERCE.

By J. H. JAMES,

Professor of Chemistry, Carnegie Institute of Technology.

1. THE FIELD.

To the chemist, in the last analysis, the expression "chemistry of commerce" means exactly the same as industrial chemistry. Everything that is manufactured, into which chemistry enters at all, would be included under the term chemistry of commerce, since, of course, all manufactured goods enter into the commercial life of the nation and of the world. Chemistry has to do with a great range of articles of manufacture which are not ordinarily regarded as chemical. One would, for example, hardly place rubber manufacture in the group of chemical industries, but to-day rubber manufacture is absolutely dependent on the chemist. In fact there are more industries not commonly called chemical than there are that produce for the markets of the world the products ordinarily called chemical, such as acids, alkalies, salts, explosives, dyestuffs, synthetic drugs, photographic chemicals, etc. The group of industries not ordinarily called chemical yet in which chemistry is essential would include as the more important members pulp and paper manufacture, rubber manufacture, paint manufacture, pottery manufacture, the dyeing and bleaching industries, the manufacture of food products, soap manufacture, the fermentation industries, the petroleum industries, coal and fuel gases, artificial silk manufacture, artificial leather manufacture, artificial plastics, casein products, the manufacture of primary batteries, storage batteries, the electroplating industries, etc.

All our manufactures involving chemical operations have reached their present stage of development through one of two channels. In the older group, including glass, ceramics, paints and varnishes, soaps, leather, the fermentation industries, rubber, and some heavy chemicals, the manufacturing practice was built up from practical observations entirely, with no knowledge or thought as to the fundamental chemical principles underlying the whole, such procedure being commonly known in engineering circles as "the rule of thumb." Having attained a certain proficiency in these lines by empirical methods alone, these manufacturers have naturally been rather conservative in their adoption of improved methods and processes, until forced to do so by the success of competitors who evidence more progressiveness in calling in the aid of scientifically trained men. The other group of manufacturers includes all those that have been the direct product of scientific research; the so-called coal-tar colors, synthetic essential oils, synthetic drugs, synthetic food products, all electrochemical and electrothermal products, such as calcium carbide, carborundum, artificial graphite, electrolytic alkali and chlorine, electrolytic chlorates, etc. Each of these industries, instead of evolving by methods of blind experimentation along rule-of-thumb lines, were in almost every case worked out with scientific thoroughness by men of fine technical training who utilized their knowledge of chemical science and engineering to bring the process to a point where the industrial exploitation was a success because the chemical principles underlying the operations were thoroughly understood.

The almost fabulous success of these newer chemical processes has had the effect of stirring to greater activity those manufacturers of the older group noted above, and the improvements effected by the employment of trained scientific men in these lines have in many cases been quite as remarkable as the development of the newer processes themselves.

2. FUTURE DEVELOPMENT IN INDUSTRIAL CHEMISTRY.

It is interesting to note the relative advancement of the various sciences at various times. It is well known that there were more epoch-making discoveries in physics in the nineteenth century than in chemistry. However, the science of physics was further advanced at the beginning of that century than chemistry, which had, as a matter of fact, really just attained standing as a science a few years previously by the work of Lavoisier and others. Before that period, included in the closing years of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, chemistry was hampered by the vagaries of the phlogistonists, and earlier still obscured by the mysticism and fraud of the alchemists; so that the real development of chemical science took place in the last century. What 100 years in development in chemical science has done for modern civilization is evident to the most casual observer.

During this time the scientific study of the behavior of matter has laid well the foundations for future progress. With the momentum thus acquired, we have really only begun in the development of chemical science and the chemical industries. When it is considered that it is impossible now for an educated chemist, working all the time, to even read the results of all the chemical research that is being carried out, some idea can be gained of the enormous additions that are being made to chemical knowledge and the impetus that industrial chemistry is sure to receive from such work.

A few of the lines of industrial chemical development may be indicated in the following processes, each of which is either under way beyond the experimental stage or in the experimental stage with correct theoretical grounds for certain success:

The manufacture of all nitrates from nitrogen of the air.
The recovery of potash from feldspar.
The manufacture of new products from denatured alcohol.
The manufacture of acetylene from new sources.
The utilization of natural gas as a source of new chemical products.
The use of electric current in preparation of inorganic as well as organic compounds.
The utilization of the hydrocarbons of petroleum as sources of new products valuable commercially.
The production of substances of great industrial value from cellulose.
The synthesis of india rubber on an industrial scale.
The production of compounds of industrial value from coal without destructive distillation.
The manufacture of a substitute for linseed oil in the paint industry.
The preparation of artificial products to replace varnish gums, the supply of which is decreasing rapidly.
The discovery of an efficient preservative coating for iron and steel structures.

3. CONTENT OF A COURSE IN THE CHEMISTRY OF COMMERCE.

It is evident from the foregoing that our subject covers a very broad field. However, here we have a good example of one of the benefits of scientific development; a student well grounded in the fundamentals of chemical science can in a short time master the manufacturing details of any process which involves chemical reactions. Chemistry as a science is now so well worked out that it has become the handmaid of manufactures.

To properly train a student then for modern commercial life, a certain amount of chemistry should certainly be included in his training. While the chemist would say, "let him take a course in chemistry," it is evident on second thought that the commercial student must devote a considerable part of his time to subjects needed for the business side of his future work.

First of all, a good course in general chemistry should be given. This may correspond closely to that given in any of our technical schools in the freshman year. The lectures and quizzes should amount to approximately three hours per week for a year, while the laboratory work to accompany this should be about three hours per week for a like period.

At this point, educators will differ. The writer has through 15 years of teaching experience consistently held to the idea that the student who does not intend to follow chemistry as a profession, but needs chemical knowledge as a part of his preparation for the business end of manufacturing and trade, should not be required to take up any analytical chemistry whatever. Admitting that qualitative analysis, for example, gives a fine training in manipulation and fixes firmly in the student's mind certain chemical principles yet for the student under discussion it is hardly a profitable subject for him to spend time on.

It would appear that the freshman course above should be followed by a course in organic chemistry. This should be scheduled for two lectures per week for a half year, with three hours per week laboratory work for the same time. While such a course is very much abbreviated, and would not do at all for a chemist's training, it will give the commercial student a sufficient amount of knowledge concerning this very important field to take up the next course.

The final course in the chemical group that the writer would propose for commercial students is that of industrial chemistry. In this course not only should the chemical principles involved in each process studied be emphasized, but the source, cost, and purity of each substance entering into the operation should be brought out in each case. This course should occupy two or three hours per week for a year. The writer has found that a good plan is to teach industrial chemistry by the seminar system; each student is assigned certain processes, such as sulphuric acid manufacture, the manufacture of by-product coke, the manufacture of glass, etc. One hour, and sometimes more, is given to the discussion of one topic, the student himself being the lecturer for that day. He must come to the classroom prepared with charts, lantern slides, and sketches to illustrate his topic. In this way, what might otherwise be a rather dreary routine of lectures or recitations becomes one of the most interesting parts of the student's school work.

The writer realizes that the foregoing grouping does not include as much as could be profitably used by the student in his later career, but in this as in all other course arrangements educators are and probably shall always be compelled to compromise between what he would like to do and what circumstances compel him to do.

As to the correlated subjects that should accompany the foregoing group—mathematics through analytical geometry, general physics, preferably the physics given to engineers in our technical schools.

The time of the chemical subjects listed above should be approximately as follows: General chemistry, freshman year; organic chemistry, either sophomore or junior year; industrial chemistry, either junior or senior year (after organic chemistry is completed).

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TROPICAL RESOURCES AND HYGIENE.

By DAMASO RIVAS,
Professor of Parasitology, University of Pennsylvania.

While in general it may be said that the wealth of a country is judged by the natural resources it possesses, in a more concrete sense the development of such resources has in reality a more direct bearing upon that index. The vast resources of the Tropics, for instance, are almost inexhaustible, and yet it is common knowledge that they have remained for generations practically unused and only recently have been but merely touched, this being due in part to the prevalence of diseases which make those regions almost uninhabitable.

In the discussion of this subject a brief outline will be given first concerning the resources of the Tropics, and secondly the sanitation of those regions with special reference to the intimate relationship which the one bears to the other.

It is beyond the scope of this article to deal in any great detail with the resources of the Tropics. A general and brief résumé, however, drawn from the references given at the end will answer the purpose. For the same reason the discussion will be limited to the resources of tropical America, with which the writer is better acquainted, although what applies to tropical America may be said to apply more or less to other tropical countries.

TROPICAL RESOURCES.

In tropical America are found almost all the minerals, from coal and iron to silver, gold, and precious stones, and also the diamond. The world largely depends upon South America for the supply of bismuth. Bolivia produced about 500 tons annually, with the mines of Brazil still unexploited. Chile produced over 40,000 tons of copper in 1914, and Peru over 33,000 in the same year.

Brazil possesses the largest known iron ore territory in the world, with a reserve of 7,000,000,000 tons, and Chile has an annual output of almost 2,000,000 tons. The same country produced about 2,500,000 tons of niter.

Brazil produced about $450,000 of gold and silver in 1914, Colombia over $7,000,000, and Mexico over $18,000,000 in the same year, which is not in proportion to their large resources.

The almost inexhaustible oil resources of Mexico may be appreciated by the rapid development which this industry has reached in a few years: From 220,000 barrels of oil produced in 1904, the production was over 8,000,000 in 1910, and over 21,000,000 in 1914, with a total output of 90,000,000 barrels from 1904 to 1914. As to other countries, Peru produced 47,000 barrels in 1896; it reached 500,000 in 1906 and over 1,000,000 barrels in 1914, with a total output of 14,000,000 from 1896 to 1914.

Oil is produced in most tropical American countries, and in this connection mention may be made of the enormous resource of asphalt of Venezuela, which is still to be developed.

Some idea as to the agricultural resources, one of the most important sources of wealth of tropical America, may be obtained from the following figures: In 1913 Brazil produced 30,000,000 head of cattle, 7,000,000 horses, 3,000,000 mules and donkeys, 10,000,000 goats, 10,000,000 sheep, and 18,000,000 hogs, with a total of about 80,000,000 head for the year or four head per capita. This branch of agriculture is also developed in other Latin-American countries.

The vast production of coffee by Brazil and tropical America is well known, as upon this the coffee supply of the world largely depends; and the same is true of rubber, etc.

The forest resources of tropical America, and the potential wealth of these countries, may be illustrated by the number of square miles of forest in South America: Argentina has 231,000; Brazil, 1,500,000; Bolivia, 284,000; Chile, 59,000; Colombia, 240,000; Ecuador, 145,000; Guiana, 64,000; Paraguay, 84,000; Peru, 175,000; and Venezuela, 180,000; which makes a total of about 3,000,000 square miles of forest divided as follows: Tropical hardwood, of which cedar is the most important, 1,613,000; Parana pine, 300,000; subtropical hardwood, 259,000; greenheart mora forest, 241,000; mahogany, 84,000; Chilean pine, 96,000; and quebracho, 404,000.

Very little is known concerning the commercial value of these vast forests, but the presence of utilizable woods in tropical forests, in addition to the rare woods, such as mahogany, dyewoods, etc., and the present scarcity of lumber make it very probable that the world may be obliged to depend largely upon the tropical forest for the common timber supply.

The above brief outline of the natural resources of the Tropics, the greater part of which still remains undeveloped, clearly shows the potentiality of wealth of these countries. Taking Brazil, for instance, with an area of 8,524,770 square kilometers, a little more than the area of the United States of America excluding Alaska, it has a population of only one-fifth of that country, or about 20,000,000 inhabitants. This naturally leaves vast areas of undeveloped land the price of which a few years ago varied from 25 cents to $2 per acre, and the same is true of other tropical countries.

TROPICAL HYGIENE.

Various have been the views advanced from time to time as to the cause of neglect by which for generations the resources of tropical America have remained undeveloped. But why make theoretical speculations when a more simple and logical one is evident, namely unhealthfulness.

That healthfulness is the most potent factor in determining the development of a country or a continent, and that upon it depends the achievement of any enterprise, admits of no doubt. We need only to mention the failure of the French Government to build the Panama Canal, because of the prevalence of disease in that zone, contrasted with the rapid and marvelous accomplishment of the Government of the United States of America after the sanitation of that region.

Healthfulness in fact has determined the development and molded the destiny of the human race and has been the real determining and limiting factor in the building of empires. The diseases common to the Orient were an insurmountable barrier to Alexander and to the Crusaders. Cholera and other diseases of India have been the chief obstacles in the development and settlement of that country by Europeans, and the same is true of sleeping sick-

ness, malaria, etc., of central Africa. For the same reason the Anglo-Saxon and other races of northern Europe have made permanent settlement in North America, as well as the Latin race of southern Europe, of tropical and subtropical America; in other words each race has followed the natural channels of emigration to similar or nearly corresponding surroundings. But above all, if Europe as a whole conquered America and made permanent settlement of this continent, it was because she was armed with the most powerful weapon of offense, the disease she imported, which rapidly spread among the natives with fatal consequences.

Smallpox in 1507 exterminated whole tribes in the West Indies, a few years later depopulated San Domingo and destroyed 3,500,000 people in Mexico (Hirsh), and the same happened in other countries. This was true also of other infectious and bacterial diseases, but the protagonist in this evolutional tragedy was tubercle bacillus. Most bacterial diseases leave a certain degree of immunity, which is not the case with tuberculosis.

The Caribes of the West Indies are nearly extinct. The Indians of North America are rapidly disappearing, as are also the aborigines of cold and temperate South America. The Indians could not in a few generations undergo such an evolution as to acquire an immunity against tuberculosis which the European has accomplished by natural selection in thousands of years. This clearly shows that diseases and not the sword have been the real deciding factors in the building of empires.

But the era of bacteria as decisive of empires, as admirably described by Reid, is past. The time of discovering new continents and lands, of great conquests, is closing, and diseases have spread all over the world. Bacteriology and parasitology have not only discovered the causes of diseases, but also the means of their prevention. Specific treatments have been discovered even for diseases of still unknown etiology; and hygiene and sanitation in general now constitute an exact science.

Of the common diseases of the Tropics, such as leprosy, dysentery, trypanosomiasis, filariasis, ankylostomiasis, etc., and the most important of all, malaria, the cause, mode of transmission, prevention, and treatment are known. It is a common knowledge that these diseases are prevalent in those countries where hygienic and sanitary conditions are unfavorable. It is known, too, that disease is an insurmountable barrier to the development of the vast resources of tropical America and the progress of the Latin-American countries.

With the instrumentality of modern hygiene and sanitation at our disposal for the prevention and eradication of those diseases, it is beyond any reasonable understanding why the sanitation of the Tropics has not received due attention. The Rockefeller Foundation has done much in that direction, it is true, but much more is needed, namely, the earnest cooperation of the respective governments of those countries. The reason why they have not cooperated is obvious, but is beyond the scope of this article for discussion.

The problem of sanitation of tropical America will be aided to a large extent by the fact that the greater part of the inhabitants of those countries, the Latin-Americans, represent a race admirably adapted to stand the unfavorable climatic conditions of those regions. The people are very healthy by nature and to a large extent immune or resistant against certain diseases, as may be shown by the components of its evolutional development.

The present inhabitants of the American continent, it is true, represent almost all the races of the world, but roughly, the greater part may be said to consist of the following extractions:

1. The Anglo-Saxons, derived chiefly from England, and northern Europe.
2. The Negroes, imported from Africa.
3. The Latins, derived from Spain, France, Portugal, Italy and some other countries of Southern Europe.

4. The Indians, whatever their origin may have been, whether Asiatic or Phoenician, etc., at the time of the discovery of America, were found to have undergone sufficient evolutional development to constitute a separate and distinct race, erroneously called Indians because of the belief of Columbus that he had discovered a new route to India and not a new continent, America. The Indians in an exact sense are Americans in the same sense that the Negroes are Africans, or the Europeans, Caucasians.

5. The Latin-Americans, derived from the intermarriage of the Latins with the native Americans, may properly be regarded as a distinct type and as the youngest of the human races, represented at present perhaps by no less than 100,000,000 people of tropical and subtropical America. To regard the Latin-Americans as Europeans or Latins would be as erroneous as to regard them as Americans or Indians, because they really represent an amalgamation of the Latins and Americans in the same sense as the Anglo-Saxons represent an amalgamation.

The anthropological and biological importance in the evolutional development of the Latin-American race from a medical point of view is that, by having derived from the Latins more or less resistance or natural immunity against tuberculosis and other European diseases, and from the native American more or less resistance or natural immunity against malaria and other tropical diseases, the race has inherited the strong characteristics of the two and consequently is better fitted to stand unfavorable climatic and sanitary conditions. The Latin-Americans therefore by nature are more resistant to diseases in general, a fact which undoubtedly will greatly aid in the sanitation of tropical and subtropical America, where the greater part of this population is found.

Proof of this natural resistance is found in the fact that the Latin-Americans have survived and propagated in the Tropics under unfavorable sanitary conditions, and are likewise adaptable to the life in the cold and temperate regions. In contrast to this we know how susceptible the native Americans still are to tuberculosis when living in association with Europeans, as are the Europeans to the diseases of the Tropics.

But this does not imply that life for the inhabitant of northern regions is an impossibility in the Tropics; not in the least, because this would amount to saying that the Africans can not live in northern climates, which is not the case, as over 10,000,000 of them are in North America alone. The advancement in modern sanitation has rendered the earth safe to live in, whatever region man may choose. What is still lacking is sufficient sanitation and appropriate training and better knowledge among the laity in general concerning the causes of diseases, their modes of transmission and how to prevent them.

It is the neglect of these underlying principles—ignorance, in other words—which is responsible for the sad consequences too often seen and which could easily be avoided among the inhabitants of northern regions who carelessly hazard their future in tropical countries.

In this connection it is of primary importance that those who desire to settle in the Tropics, or undertake some enterprise in those countries, should first receive appropriate instruction in bacteriology, hygiene and sanitation, parasitology and tropical medicine, and also in Spanish or Portuguese.

This instruction may be taken in one or two semesters in any of our universities that offer such courses. The courses should consist of didactic lectures

and demonstration in the laboratory. The student should become proficient in the underlying principles of hygiene and sanitation before receiving a certificate or diploma, and only then should be regarded as a candidate for a position, of whatever kind it may be, in the Tropics.

At the same time the writer believes it is an imperative necessity and of vital importance that the same instruction should be given not only in all universities and colleges, but also in the schools throughout tropical and subtropical America. The respective governments of these countries should awake to present-day requirements by directing their efforts toward the sanitation of the Tropics. "Health first," and only then can the almost inexhaustible resources of the Tropics be developed, and with it the progress and prosperity of tropical and subtropical America and of the Americans as a whole.

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BUSINESS MATHEMATICS.

By CHARLES C. GROVE,
Assistant Professor of Mathematics, Columbia University.

This statement is to serve the two purposes of assisting colleges to plan an adequate course of instruction in training for foreign trade and the foreign service of the Government and of enabling university men now in the field of business to plan for a systematic reading course relating to business mathematics.

Although the curriculum of the school of business of Columbia University consists of a two-year series of courses based on two years of collegiate study in an approved college, this statement relates to a four-year *collegiate* course in business.

It is further especially desired to make perfectly clear that *education* as distinguished from *training* is in mind. Education is the general development of all the potentialities and powers of a man. It leads him to understand the comparatively few fundamental principles of *rerum natura*, of physics, mechanics, chemistry, economics, etc., and to form fixed habits of clear, independent thinking and intelligent action based on those principles as they recur in most of our everyday problems. Education is general; training is particular. The educational course should put the student in possession of the basic principles of the subjects studied—as, for example, of accounting—so that he, in practice, may readily adapt himself to any form to be followed.

These thoughts have been allowed to intrude because of two observations:

First. There is still too much training not based on a sure foundation of education.

Second. Almost all the expert arbitragists in foreign exchange are of foreign origin and training. It is high time that we raise up in this and other highly specialized departments a generation of American young men with as good education and technical training.

THE SUBJECT MATTER.

For some years the author has been accustomed to speak, loosely and briefly, of *static* and of *kinematic* mathematics in order to bring into bold relief two phases of our mathematical considerations or two points of view of the quantities under consideration. From the first point of view, quantities are at least thought of as of fixed and determined value, with no idea of approximation or variation. From the other viewpoint, quantities are recognized as varying continuously according to a stated law, as in analytic geometry; or variation and approximation are recognized as the rule and not the exception in practical life. The endeavor is then to ascertain the true measure of the quantities or to formulate a law according to which they seem to vary, at least within a limited range. This conception of quantity has led to the introduction of the statistical method into the mathematics of business to a rapidly increasing extent. The topics of the courses are accordingly:

I. STATIC MATHEMATICS.

A. Advanced arithmetic, logarithms.

1. Review of methods to develop speed and accuracy in addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, with short cuts that arise from an understanding of the nature of the operations and somewhat of the theory of numbers.

Arithmetical complement and arithmetical supplement.

The object is to bring the student into the atmosphere of number and of numerical relationships, realizing that for the clerical worker such an appreciation is of fundamental importance. Read A treatise on computation, by E. M. Langley, New York; Longmans, Green & Co., 1895.

2. Fractions and their decimal equivalents—terminating, repeating, or circulating—noting the distinction between rational and irrational numbers. Per cents of £ s. d., etc.

3. Proportion, simple compound, conjoined (in arbitrage), and even alligation, if desired, simply enough to acquaint the student with it, because of its usefulness in chemistry in "balancing equations," because it provides an easy solution to some problems that would otherwise involve indeterminate equations, and as it completes the systematic development of the subject of proportion.

4. The method of cancellation.

5. The elements of the theory and use of logarithms. Slide rules. The business man should no longer be afraid of the word logarithm. An extensive treatment, obtainable only in libraries, is in Appendix 12, Ann. Rep., 1896, of U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, under the title "Logarithms, their Nature, Computation, and Uses," by W. W. Duffield, Superintendent. With it are 10 tables.

6. The use and making of other tables, such as—.

Interest, simple and compound.
Discount, simple and compound.
Annuity, amount of, present value, to amortize,[1] etc.
Bond tables.[1]

[1] This topic is mentioned here for convenience, but the actual use and making of the tables would occur when each is needed.

B. The algebra of discrete quantities.

1. Rational integral functions.
2. Relationships between coefficients and roots.
3. Multiplication and division with detached coefficients.
4. Binomial coefficients—Pascal's triangle.
5. Permutations and combinations, distributions and derangements.
6. Introduction to probabilities.
7. Finite number series.
   - Progressions, arithmetic and geometric.
   - Series whose law may be determined.
   - Introduction to finite differences.
   - Introduction to interpolation, extrapolation, summation.
8. Undetermined coefficients, applications.
9. Mathematical induction.
10. Infinite series:
    - Geometric, exponential, logarithmic.
    - Convergence, divergence, tests.

C. The solution of equations—

- Of any degree, growing out of a study of the theory of equations.
- Of quadratic.
- Remainder theorem, factor theorem.
- Transformations, algebraic and geometric views of.
- Descartes's rule of signs.
- Rational roots (by synthetic division).
- Approximation of irrational roots.

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Some recent books on the subject are:

Schlauch, W. S. Commercial algebra. Book II. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1918.
Skinner, E. B. College algebra. New York, Macmillan Co., 1917. Chap. XIV. 263 p.
Young, S. W., *and* Morgan, F. M. Elementary mathematical analysis. New York, Macmillan Co., 1917. 548 p. (Chapters VIII and IX.)

It will be observed that the subject of permutations and combinations has been introduced early. That is for two reasons:

1. The subject above all others enforces, compels correct interpretation, concentration, clear thinking, definite statements. This will lead to the formation of the habits of thought which is the most important object of education to develop.

2. The students, for some years to come, will vary considerably in the kind of preparation for the work of these collegiate schools of business. Mature, experienced men, for whom in part these schools exist, will be in class with young men fresh from the examinations of the College Entrance Board. The subject of permutations and combinations will be new, fresh, interesting to, and within the understanding of, all members of the class alike, and will force upon the consciousness of all the cardinal purpose of the educational course.

The examples and exercises throughout shall be from practical business of to-day. It shall be their object to illustrate and illumine the topic under consideration and to reveal its applicability where that had not been apparent.

The foregoing covers the theoretical preparation for a text like The Mathematical Theory of Investment, by Prof. E. B. Skinner (Ginn & Co., 1913), which may be used during the second half of the year.

Among the topics considered near the close of the first half year and in preparation for which the outside reading may be done is that of foreign exchange and trade acceptances, which will rapidly come into general use in both domestic and foreign trade. The following are books that may be assigned for reading and report:

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——— Money changing. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1913. 183 p.
——— Stocks and shares. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1910. 372 p.
——— The business of finance. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1918. 204 p.
——— The meaning of money. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1916. 307 p.
——— War and Lombard street. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1915. 171 p.
——— and Palgrave, Sir R. H. The English banking system. Washington, D. C., Supt of Documents, 1910.

The brochures published by many large banking houses as, in New York, by The National City Bank, Guaranty Trust Co., The American Exchange National Bank, and others.

II. Kinematic Mathematics.

The ideas of function, change, continuity, and continuous change, of variation and approximation.

The graph of rational integral functions of common and familiar occurrence, of other functions that arise, as cost, interest, annuity, present value, charts for wages, for exchange and arbitrage.

The principles of analytic geometry. The equation of a locus, the locus of an equation, the discussion of an equation.

Plotting functions as $S_n = \frac{a - ar^n}{1-r}$, $a_n = \frac{1-(1+i)^{-n}}{i}$, considering in turn two of the quantities as variable and the others as constant or as a parameter.

Developing functions whose graphs shall be of type forms for use later in statistical work.

Elements of analytic geometry in three dimensions.

SECOND YEAR.

Elements of the differential and integral calculus.
Elements of the calculus of finite differences.
The theory of probability.
The method of least squares.
Fitting simpler curves to data.
Statistical measures.
Correlation.

THIRD AND FOURTH YEAR.

The mathematical theory of statistics.

An elective and graduate course—Seminar on Biometrika and present writers.

An advanced mathematical theory of interest and life contingencies.

A graduate course following the Institute of Actuaries' text book. Parts I and II.

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BUSINESS PSYCHOLOGY AND ETHICS.

By JAMES E. LOUGH.

Professor of Experimental Psychology and Method, School of Pedagogy, New York University.

The study of psychology and ethics is rapidly gaining recognition as fundamental or basic work for everyone who is preparing to enter business as a profession. Psychology is the science of the mind, its attributes, limitations, development, springs of action, and control. The psychology of the business man may be a crude "rule of thumb" psychology, based largely upon inaccurate, and frequently prejudiced, observation of a limited group of cases, or derived from popular magazines and Sunday newspapers, or he may possess a knowledge of psychology that has been established upon general laws scientifically developed by means of extended study and investigation.

Business psychology comprises a group of psychological problems that can be applied directly or indirectly to business operations. The fundamental principles are in no way different from the principles of general psychology. Illustrative material, however, comes from the domain of business operations, and emphasis is placed on the somewhat limited group of laws that obviously fall into business operations. In many institutions the course in business psychology is based upon the study of standard or general textbooks of psychology. In such cases the student will find it necessary to make his own applications. He will also find it desirable to touch lightly upon, or to omit altogether, many topics that have a remote bearing on business, as for example, localization of functions, details of sense organs, and space perception.

The introductory course in business psychology should be a general course, that is it should include psychological problems that apply to a wide range of business activities. Following this first course, and based upon it, the student may consider special groups of problems, as for example, the psychology of salesmanship, psychology of advertising, mental rating of employees, vocational guidance and placement, and the psychology of factory management.

The following topics should be included in the first or general course in business psychology:

I. *Self-analysis.*—A study of the mental traits generally called for in business—observation, concentration, memory, imagination, reason, knowledge, ambition, confidence, loyalty, enthusiasm, cheerfulness, reliability, energy, persistence, initiative, self-control. Self-analysis should enable the student to realize which of his traits are strong and dependable and which are weak and undeveloped. He should also be able, as the result of his study, to make a more accurate estimate as to the mental traits of others.

II. *Mental development.*—An analysis of the content and processes involved in each trait mentioned in I, in order to determine methods of strengthening

traits that show undesirable weakness. This applies in the first place to self-development, but also carries with it the methods to be followed in developing these same traits in others.

III. The application of the principles of habit formation to traits, principally to the traits involved in disposition and action, those forming the basis of character.

IV. *Springs of action.*—The natural (instinctive) and the acquired impulses and inhibitions. The origin and development of the instincts, conscious and unconscious imitation, the influence of health, sex, age, race, and social environment in modifying original springs of action and methods of evaluating springs of action, and effect of substitution of motives.

V. *Types of decision and methods of control.*—These should be studied in the first place by special reference to one's self and may then be applied in order to effect decisions in others. In this section should also be included topics on suggestion and obedience.

On completing the topics enumerated above the student should be ready to take up special problems in the psychology of business:

VI. *Psychology of advertising.*

VII. *Psychology of salesmanship.*

VIII. *Psychology of management.*

IX. *Scientific vocational guidance on selection of employees.*

X. *Fatigue and recreation as factors in efficiency.*

XI. *Acquisition of skill.*

XII. *Working with others.*—Cooperation, rivalry, helping and hindering, the development of morale.

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BUSINESS ETHICS.

Business ethics must be founded on the fundamental proposition that the standard of conduct, duties, and obligations, must be maintained in business

transactions as well as in non-business activities. There is no special dispensation of morality for the business world. The great problem in business ethics will be to awaken students to the realization that a single code of ethics must be followed. The topics to be included in the study of business ethics are therefore not different in any essential from the topics treated in any standard course in general ethics. Illustrative material, however, must be drawn from business activities rather than from social life.

The following topics should be included in the course: I. Evolution of morality; II. Origin of social morality; III. The theory of morality; IV. The meaning of duty; V. The consideration of special problems of social and business practice—self-consciousness and altruism, loyalty, patriotism, cooperation, industrial duties, social and industrial alleviation.

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THE STUDY OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION.

In Preparation for Foreign Trade.

By ARTHUR E. SWANSON,
Swanson Ogilvie Co., Chicago, Ill., Industrial Engineers.

Occasionally the term "business administration" is used in a broad sense to include all the functions of a business. It is then virtually synonymous with the term "business." More frequently, however, it is used to denote the strictly executive functions in the management of business. In discussing the place that a study of administration and organization should occupy in a course of training for foreign trade, the term "business administration" is used in this latter sense.

Business organization is also used in a twofold way. People speak, for instance, of organizing a company and refer then to the steps that must be taken in order to incorporate. Again they speak of their business as being well organized and refer then to the manner in which the functions of their business are facilitated by the disposition of personnel, equipment, and processes. It is in this latter sense that the term "organization" is used here.

The study of business administration and organization in preparation for foreign trade should include a course in the elements of administration and organization with general application to business of any character and a special course in the administration and organization of businesses or departments of such engaged in foreign trade.

It is particularly desirable that the student precede his special study of the administration and organization of businesses engaged in foreign trade by a general course in business administration and organization, because the student is then made to realize that there is no sharp line of demarcation

between foreign and domestic business, but that foreign business differs from domestic mainly in that business is conducted under very different conditions.

The general course in the elements of administration or organization should include a treatment of such factors as the adjustment of the organization and administration to the purposes of the business and the conditions of operation; the delegation of authority, including such factors as departmentization, centralization, and decentralization; the control of delegated authority by means of reports, conferences, and personal relations; the relation of authority to responsibility; functional specialization as it relates to both the delegation of authority and the efficiency of the personnel; the correlation of departments and processes so that the activity of each person or unit contributes effectively to the activity of the whole and so that a balance is maintained; the standardization of materials, equipment, and processes; the utilization and preparation of reports; discipline; employment; training; wage policy, and relation of business to such external agencies as the National Government and State governments, public opinion, competition, etc.

In such a course in the elements of administration and organization the object should be to bring out for the student the significance of these factors in business. It would not be possible, nor would it be desirable, to give him in such a course a detailed knowledge of all these factors. Taking, for instance, the utilization and preparation of reports, it would not be the purpose of the course to train the student in the preparation of complicated reports for which an accounting training is essential. The purpose would be to show the value of such reports in the management of a business and to show how their preparation is controlled by their utilization for administrative purposes.

A considerable amount of illustrative material should be introduced in the course as each factor is taken up for discussion. In part this can be supplied by giving the student detailed descriptions of the organization and the administration of typical businesses. In part it can be accomplished by inspection reports. Neither of these methods is very satisfactory. The laboratory method is the most effective, but it can be used with difficulty and only in a limited way except for advanced students.

The special course in administration and organization as it applies to businesses engaged in foreign trade should comprise a study of the organization and administration of the different business institutions engaged in foreign trade with a view to understanding not only how they are organized and administered but why they must be organized and administered in a special way. It is particularly interesting and instructive to the student to show how the factors discussed in the elements of the business administration and organization are present in foreign as well as domestic business.

The business institutions to be studied will include the export commission house, the export merchant, the export forwarder, the manufacturer's agent, the export departments of businesses selling direct, export branch houses, advertising agencies that place advertising in foreign countries, foreign credit agencies, and trade associations.

It is important that the student taking such a course be acquainted with the marketing, credit and financing functions of an exporting business, because, as previously stated, the organization and administration of a business is in a large measure determined by the functions of a business and the conditions under which it is operated. The course might well be so arranged as to provide for the special treatment of the organization and management of such departments as purchasing, sales, advertising, credits, finance, shipping, invoicing, and accounting.

The courses should preferably be semester courses and should be taken as late in the course of training as practicable.

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ACCOUNTING APPLIED TO FOREIGN TRADE.

By JOHN RAYMOND WILDMAN,

Head Professor of Accounting, School of Commerce, Accounts, and Finance, New York University.

The parties to foreign trade are the importer, the exporter, the transporter, the warehouseman, and the banker. Accounting applied to foreign trade must therefore be considered from the respective points of view of the parties.

The accounting relating to the importing and exporting of merchandise does not differ from other accounting except that it emphasizes the expenses incident to customhouse clearance, warehousing, ocean as well as land transportation, and requires a slight knowledge of foreign exchange.

The accounting relating to transportation and warehousing as industries must be differentiated from that which arises out of the relations between these parties and the importer and exporter, respectively. In no case is the accounting out of the ordinary except that of the ocean transportation company where the company is required to collect from foreign shippers in foreign currency.

The accounting for the banker must take cognizance not only of the usual banking operation but of the somewhat complicated foreign exchange feature.

A university course in "Accounting applied to foreign trade" must needs take into consideration the extent to which "background" courses such as the history of commerce, foreign trade and transportation, and theory of foreign exchange, are available and prerequisite. In the ideal curriculum they would be both available and prerequisite. In the majority of instances in which the

suggestions which follow may be of use, it is probable that such courses will be lacking, hence the course in accounting should lay the foundation in history, economics, and finance, and perhaps take on more of a composite nature than would be usual in the ideal curriculum.

As outlined below, it should be offered two one-hour periods a week for two semesters. Stripped of the material other than that which is strictly accounting, one semester would probably suffice. In either case it should follow the course in general accounting. It should be presented as a combined lecture and laboratory course with liberal assignments of collateral reading.

OUTLINE.

Historical background leading up to the status of the United States prior to the World War. Effect of the World War on the commercial and financial relations of the United States. The Federal Reserve Act as a factor in developing the foreign trade of the United States. Outlook for the future of the foreign trade of the United States. The Webb Act.

The materials of foreign trade. The commodity needs of the United States. Imports for past five years. Foreign markets and opportunities. Exports for past five years. General and special characteristics of export commodities. The question of packing. Warehouse, port, and shipping facilities.

The agencies for the conduct of foreign trade. The exporter, as principal, as agent, the forwarder. The functions, relations, and charges of—the drayman; the warehouseman; the Government in the exercise of supervision and restrictions; the insurer; the ocean transportation company. The documents and shipping papers; bills of lading; consular invoices; shipper's export declaration; invoices of the drayman and the insurance company. The importer and his relation to the ocean transportation company; to the customs department of the Government; to the customhouse broker; the warehouseman; the local transportation company. The documents for imports; incoming bills of lading; customhouse entry blank; declaration; duty deposit; appraiser's report; release; duty adjustment; marine insurance; inward freight; and cartage.

Expenses characteristic of the exporter: Outward cartage (depository to the steamship pier); consular invoices; ocean freight; marine insurance; warehouse charges; forwarder's commission. Characteristic expenses of the importer: Ocean freight and marine insurance (usually included in purchase invoice); customhouse broker; duty; inward cartage.

Principle of the draft. Two-party drafts. Three-party drafts. Bookkeeping for drafts. The trade acceptance.

Specimen transactions illustrating purchases and sales of merchandise with importing and exporting expenses; drawbacks; packing costs and their relation to claims for goods damaged in transit; owned goods and consigned goods; goods sold on open account; draft; trade acceptance; conversion of invoices from English, French, German, Dutch, and South American currencies to United States currency. Statements of facts and problems correlating the above and introducing statements requiring conversion to and from branch offices and foreign agencies. Standard rates for conversion of accounts current. Incidental profit on exchange.

Theory of foreign exchange. Function of the foreign-exchange banker; exchange parities; conversions. International banking. Sources of exchange. Demands for exchange. The gold points. Expenses incident to the shipment of gold. The various kinds of exchange; bankers' long bills, short bills, cable transfers, commercial clean long, clean short, documentary long, documentary short, documents on acceptance, documents on payment.

The foreign-exchange department; organization, function, records, relation to general organization of the bank. The foreign-exchange controlling account in the general books.

Operation of the books of the foreign-exchange department. The foreign-exchange ledger, with supporting books. Long and short bills purchased. Long and short bills sold. Bank acceptances. Trade acceptances. Letters of credit. Travelers' checks. Foreign money bought and sold. Arbitrage transactions. Reconciliation of foreign bank accounts, showing profit in each account. Statement of profit and loss for foreign-exchange department.

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STATISTICS AS APPLIED TO BUSINESS.

By HORACE SECRIST,

Professor of Economics and Statistics, Northwestern University.

Whatever motives may prompt one to enter business, the pecuniary one is undoubtedly potent. Business success is measured in terms of realized profits;

and to determine these accurate accounting is necessary. Accounting and statistics may be said to be the universal languages of business. Accounting, as a business tool, has been developed during the last dozen years and is now being used to determine costs in all their different phases. Statistics, as a method in business and as a companion to accounting, has had even a more recent but no less important development. Both have grown in spite of business distrusts and lethargy. The prejudice against statistics is to be sought more in their abuse than in their use, and this fact the business man is coming to see. No longer can business be conducted successfully by a rule-of-thumb method nor accounts and statistics be ignored. Markets must be analyzed and production costs scrutinized. The facts of industry must be used as a basis for the determination of business policy.

Statistics in business may be used in the solution of two types of problems—first, those associated with internal, and, second, those associated with external conditions. Internal problems of production, of the supply and control of labor, of organization, etc., lend themselves to statistical treatment. In the same way problems beyond the sphere of individual businesses due to competition, relationship with the State, may also be studied and measured statistically. It is probably this latter side of business to which may be traced the increased use of statistics as a means of forestalling the consequences of keen competition and of measuring the results of State activity upon business.

What are statistics? Statistics may be defined, briefly, as numerical aggregates, enumerated or estimated according to reasonable standards of accuracy, collected in a systematic manner for a predetermined purpose, and placed in relationship to each other. Statistical methods may be defined so as to include all methods of analysis and synthesis by means of which statistics may be collected and used to describe or explain phenomena in their individual or related capacities. The goal of statistical studies is comparison, and this may relate to time, to place, and to condition.

The business man desires to compare his business with that of his competitor; to compare this year's operation with last year's; to compare one department with another, etc. To do so by means of statistics necessitates the use of aggregates or numerical facts in terms of standardized units of mensurement. Imperfect measurements and crude units will not suffice. The unit of measurement in business, as in all science, is fundamental. In the physical sciences it is definite and standardized. In the business world, however, units are far less definite and their meaning dependent upon the purpose for which they are used. Comparisons are valid or invalid largely in proportion to the degree of accuracy and homogeneity which characterizes the units employed.

The statistical methods most commonly used by business men are tabulation and graphics. Tabulation serves the purpose of putting in lines and columns, under stub and caption headings, data classified according to relationships which are significant for the purpose in mind. Tabulation grows out of analysis and registers the relations between facts which are thought to be significant. Tables may be simple or complex, depending upon the amount of data which they contain and the complexity of the relations which they register. As a statistical device for classifying business facts, they are fundamental, but their appearance and complexity are oftentimes forbidding.

Graphics, on the other hand, at once arrest attention. They may be divided into two main groups—diagrams, in which lines, surfaces, and volumes are employed; and graphics proper, which consist of graphs and curves. Graphic devices are valuable because of their appeal to the eye. It is their power of suggestion which is important and, at the same time, dangerous. A diagram

drawn out of scale, or a graph dissociated from the concrete data which it depicts, may be highly deceptive. Both may illustrate faulty data and in themselves never reveal the fact. Graphics rarely add new meaning to statistical facts. What they do is to throw into bold outline relationships which may lie concealed in tables. Their appeal is to the eye and not necessarily to the intellect, and they should be used with caution and circumspection. In business, where data are accurate and the desire to deceive lacking, graphic devices may be successfully employed, not only to give to executives and others vivid impressions of operating efficiency in the past but likewise to suggest or to forecast the future. Graphic devices are almost of infinite variety and may be used in almost all of the different phases of business activity. It is to be remembered, however, that they are secondary to the analysis which is required for the preparation of the material which is to be illustrated.

An example of the use to which statistical methods in business are put may be helpful. The business man is constantly in need of a barometer and forecaster of trade conditions. If he can know what the future will bring, if he can gauge his productive activity in line with industrial and financial conditions, his business will be stabilized and his methods made more profitable. He is therefore seeking to interpret the meaning of statistical facts growing out of trade relations, banking and finance, manufacturing conditions, stock and bond transactions, etc. In response to his needs, certain organizations have prepared and are marketing so-called "statistical services," the aim of which is to interpret fundamental business and industrial statistics. Until recently, little if any science has characterized such services.

Within the last two years, however, both a business barometer and a business forecaster have been worked out on scientific principles. The method of correlation, developed by Sir Francis Galton and perfected by Karl Pearson, has definitely been adapted to business data. To-day, not only is this method used by statisticians in the interpretation of business facts but also by psychologists in choosing and grading men, by agriculturalists in selecting farm products and farm animals, by breeders and others in improving animal stock in this and other countries. Probably no more promising field of statistical inquiry, so far as the interests of the business man are concerned, has been developed in the last decade than the application of the method of correlation to the development of business barometers.

Business, to be successful, must be scientific. Business men are coming keenly to realize this fact. A scientific tool which is available and may be of inestimable service toward the development of business, as a science, is the method of statistics.

Statistical studies should come relatively late in the student's work, since they are technical, presuppose a knowledge of business conditions, and for their successful perusal, require a certain degree of intellectual maturity. At least one-half year of four to five hours a week is necessary for an introductory course. A large portion of this time should be devoted to laboratory problems illustrative of the principles discussed in the text. It is well to duplicate in this part of the course, so far as can be done, actual statistical work.

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FOREIGN TRADE AND TARIFFS.

By F. W. TAUSSIG,

Professor of Economics, Harvard University. Former chairman of United States Tariff Commission.

A course of study looking to preparation on these subjects is best carried on in connection with a general college course, that course being arranged with a view to giving not only a general education, but special training and information on the particular subjects here mentioned.

It is not advisable to prescribe or recommend a rigid schedule or to indicate in detail at what stage and with what degree of intensive application individual topics are to be taken up. There should be training in such general fields as natural science, philosophy, literature, and especially English. In the field of natural science, chemistry is the most important subject. The main elements of a general education should not be neglected.

The subjects which relate more particularly to foreign trade and tariffs are: Modern languages, especially French, Spanish, German; Government (political science and international law); the principles of economics; commercial geography, commercial arithmetic, and economic history; money and banking, transportation, corporate organization and combinations, and like subjects in applied economics; the theory and practice of statistics; international trade; tariffs and tariff history; foreign exchange.

In general, the order in which these subjects may be profitably taken up is as follows:

1. Modern languages should be begun early, if possible, in preparatory schools, and should be studied to the point where an easy command of reading is acquired. It is desirable also to attain command of the spoken language, but this is not indispensable. Not all of the languages mentioned need be taken up. It is better to have real command of one than an ineffective smattering of two or three. The study of a language should ordinarily be continued through at least two years, and command of it tested and bettered by its use in the study of political and economic subjects.

2. Both government and economics should also be taken up early. If a complete college course of four years is planned, it is well to begin with government in the first year and follow with the principles of economics in the second year. There is no reason, however, against taking up both government and economics in the first year, provided that in that year, or in the subsequent years, there is not complete neglect of the other constituents of a liberal education. Commercial arithmetic may also be taken up in the first year.

3. After a year of economics and government a further study of more specialized topics should be undertaken. Among the topics of special importance in economics are commercial geography; economic history, and especially the economic history of modern times; transportation; money and bank-

ing; corporate organization and corporate finance, including combinations and public utilities. It is not necessary to take up each and every one of these subjects. A selection among them may be made. Commercial geography and economic history should, however, not be omitted.

The special subjects to which the preceding preparation leads, namely, the theory of international trade, tariff history and experience, and foreign exchange, need not necessarily be postponed to the last year or final stages. Nor need they be necessarily taken up as separate topics. They may be combined, in the third or fourth year of the college course, with some of the preceding subjects. Reciprocity treaties and international commercial relations may be undertaken in connection with tariff history. International trade, and tariff history and experience, may be combined in one course; or international trade and foreign exchange may be combined in one course. The combination and interrelation of the subjects must depend upon the facilities at the disposal of instructors and students. In the latter part of the course, at the same time with these economic subjects, it is desirable to undertake also a study of international law and international treaties, with special reference to commercial treaties.

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TRANSPORTATION AND SHIPPING IN THEIR RELATION TO FOREIGN TRADE.

By GROVER G. HUEBNER,

Professor of Transportation and Commerce, University of Pennsylvania.

The first year of a four-year college course designed for students seeking preparation for the foreign trade need not contain any course dealing directly with transportation and shipping. To obtain the basis for specialized study later in his course, the first-year student can be profitably occupied with courses on the following subjects: Elementary economics, commercial geography, business law, government, accounting, and English.

In his second year the student can advantageously take the course in *railroad transportation* as many ocean cargoes need to be handled between ports and interior points by rail or rail-water routes. A course given two hours per week throughout the college year or three hours for one term may include the following topics: Origin and growth of the American railway system; the mechanism of a railroad; railroad capital; earnings and expenses; the freight service; the passenger, express, and mail services; the organization of the service; railroad statistics; interrailway relations; theory and practice of railway charges; and regulation in leading foreign countries.

Definite results may be obtained by adopting a good textbook and supplementing it with additional reading assignments and with lectures and class discussions.

If his roster permits, the second-year student may also be given his course in *ocean transportation and shipping.* It is desirable, however, that he be given instruction in the following subjects during the second year: Money and credit, manufacturing industries, advertising, marketing methods in the leading agricultural and manufacturing trades, additional English, and a foreign language.

During the third year the foreign trade student will, unless he has done so during the second year, take a course in *ocean transportation and shipping.* A two-hour per week course extending throughout the college year or a three-hour course for one term makes it possible to include a study of the following topics: Development and classification of sailing vessels, steamers, motor vessels, and unrigged craft; ocean routes; the Suez, Panama, and other maritime canals; the measurement of vessels and traffic; the business organization of steamship lines; ocean ports and terminals; the ocean freight service; passenger, mail, and international express services; marine insurance; relations between ocean carriers; relations between ocean and rail carriers; principles and practice of ocean freight rate making; aid by the Federal Government; navigation laws; Federal regulation of charges and services; aid and regulation by States and municipalities; freight and terminal charges; condition of the American shipbuilding industry and of the American marine; Government aid in foreign countries; and the merchant marine policy of the United States.

As in the case of railroad transportation, a textbook is advisable as a basis for study. In addition there may be special reading assignments, lectures, and class discussions; and copies of the various ocean shipping forms should be provided so that the student may become familiar with them.

Either in the third or fourth year the student may profitably take a two-hour per week course in *railroad traffic and rates* so that he may obtain more detailed knowledge of freight rates and other charges; methods of rate making; rate structures; tariffs; classifications; routing; railway shipping regulations and freight services; and public regulation of railroads.

It does not seem necessary that the student of foreign trade need take more than the three transportation courses mentioned. His study of transportation and shipping in the third and fourth years correlates well with his courses in foreign trade methods; history of foreign commerce; industrial management; banking; corporation finance; salesmanship; international law; diplomatic and consular procedure; stock and produce exchange markets; marine insurance; foreign languages; history; political science; economics; and special courses dealing with the resources and trade relations of Latin America, Europe, Australasia, Africa, and the Far East.

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PORT AND TERMINAL FACILITIES.

By Roy S. MacElwee.

Dean, School of Foreign Service, Georgetown University.

An understanding of the essentials of transportation, which is a large item in the cost of production, is even more necessary in foreign trade than in domestic trade. The question of transportation costs involves both operation and routing. In domestic commerce routing is primarily a matter of railroad rates. Every large concern should have its trained traffic manager to take care of this important item of costs. The need is more urgent in foreign trade as the costs are larger, the time element in deliveries of greater variation, and the quality of service to the foreign customer may fluctuate between greater extremes than in domestic business. Routing calls for a minute knowledge of the highroads of the world's commerce, as distance is a matter of transportation facilities and not of miles.

There are three links in transportation overseas: (1) Railway inland navigation and other land carriers at home and abroad, (2) ships on the seven seas, and (3) the link between land and water carriers, which is the port. The first two have been taught thoroughly and well as part of the higher education for business, but the port and terminal problem, which is at present the most urgent, the most neglected and the least understood of the trilogy, has received only casual consideration. The study of ports and terminals must be *par inter parem* with land and water transportation in any well-ordered curriculum.

The course in ports and terminal facilities was first given in an American university at the school of business of Columbia University, winter semester of 1917–18. As the course developed it became increasingly an analysis of efficiency methods in port design and operation, with examples drawn from the leading

ports of the world as illustrations of the principles involved. These illustrations required a wide survey of the world's ports, which should give the future export merchant direct information. In particular the study in the course shows the merchant what is essential and how to go about further independent study. Many institutions are now (1922) giving entire or part-semester courses in the subject, notably Georgetown University School of Foreign Service registers 100 students in the courses upon ports and ocean transportation, and presents a 10 semester one full-year curriculum for training for the steamship business.

The course also sought to show engineers the business requirements and economic background of a port. The trouble in the past too often has been that able engineers have constructed wonderful harbor works which have not been an effective tool of commerce, not because of any lack of engineering efficiency but because of some subtle and elusive economic force.

It was evident that the time was not sufficient to cover the ground and a large amount of important material was not touched. However, it would seem more advisable to condense the material rather than to extend the course over two semesters. Also that the two courses on ports and shipping should each be of one semester given early in the curriculum for upper classmen, with a subsequent seminar of more serious study and investigation for graduate students. There is an almost untouched field for investigation and research affording suitable material in abundance for masters' and doctors' dissertations. But more important, from the larger standpoint, much serious work must be done within the next few years as our country needs just this kind of exact scientific knowledge to help solve the foreign trade and shipping problems which are so vital to its future welfare. A transportation seminar may well be under the joint supervision and leadership of two or three teachers. This would not exclude intensive special work by small groups with each teacher.

The question of textbooks is a difficult one. In the field of water transportation there are several excellent works. In particular, Principles of Ocean Transportation, by Johnson and Huebner, has recently appeared from Appleton & Co., New York. In the case of ports there are, however, some very good monographs for collateral reading. The most important are Prof. Edwin J. Clapp's "The Port of Boston," "The Port of Hamburg," and "The Navigable Rhine." All are published by the Yale University Press. There are several good works of the monograph type in German and French. Much more serious works on ports have been written abroad than with us, except for Prof. Clapp. The great mass of material on the subject is buried in reports and isolated articles. All these publications, with the exception of "The Port of Boston," have very little to do with the philosophy of ports in general, being more an interrogation of facts as regards some particular port. Mr. W. J. Barney, C. E., secretary of the American Association of Port Authorities, 110 West Fortieth Street, New York City, has recently compiled a bibliography of pamphlets and articles which is quite thorough, so far as works in the English language are concerned.[1] The bibliography is well ordered and grouped and should be a good guide for further study by serious students. Miss Hasse, of the economics room, New York Public Library, is collecting a reference library on ports. The publication of the Columbia lectures, mentioned above, affords a text for future study, but at best it can be only a fingerboard pointing the way to greater concentration on the subject by many inquiring minds.[2]

[1] Selected bibliography on ports and harbors and their administration, laws, finances, equipment, and engineering. New York, W. J. Barney. 1916.

[2] Ports and terminal facilities, with bibliography. By Roy S. MacElwee. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1918.

COURSES IN COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

The threefold treatment suggested in the preceding paper on Ports and terminal facilities is described in detail in the three following courses,[1] namely, "Ports and terminal facilities," "Theory and practice of ocean transportation," and "Railway traffic and rates," offered in the extension division of Columbia University.

PORTS AND TERMINAL FACILITIES.

The object of the course is to lay down firmly the principles underlying the work which a port must perform as a coordinated and assembled piece of machinery to further our growing foreign trade.

A general introduction will show the types of seaports as to location and layout, with some historical reasons for the same and the dependence of a port upon its hinterland.

Miscellaneous package freight. The wharf, transit sheds, and movement by rail to the interior. Freight differentials in connection with port development. Marginal railroads, classification yards, handling c. l. and l. c. l. lots. Packages for local consumption. Trucking. The warehouse construction and physical connection. Cold storage and terminal markets for perishable food products. Inner harbor movement by lighter. Manufacturing plants, the industrial harbor, and the question of upland *v.* waterfront property. Movement into the interior by water. Barge terminals, mooring dolphins "in midstream." The river port and the river-port industrial harbor. Handling of specialized and bulk freight from ocean to river vessel or railroad. Four classes of passengers with their luggage. A waterfront may also be a place of beauty. Port administration and jurisdiction with particular reference to several successful port authorities. Fiscal aspects, fees, and dues. The free port as an institution. A brief review of American and foreign ports with their commercial bearing in the routing of exports.

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF OCEAN TRANSPORTATION.

I. *Initial problem.*—An exporter has various lots of merchandise which he wants to ship; 12 cases of gasoline engines for Liverpool, 1 case of parts for London, 10,000 barrels of petroleum for Bordeaux, an ambulance for Havre, a large consignment of rails, cars, and locomotives for Vladivostok. How will he go about it? He may do it himself, or turn it over to a forwarder. There are liners, tramps, private carriers, special service steamers; shipping papers and routine; shipping terminology; how ocean freight rates are made; ship brokers and agents; British coal exports and freight rates; ocean highways and routing; marine insurance and bottomry.

II. *Second problem.*—The export house decides to enter the shipping business and (1) to build and (2) operate its own ships.

1. Correlation of size, speed, economy of operation, and required service; types of special duty ships; shipbuilding and costs of construction; elementary principles of shipbuilding; standardized ships and ships built in series; growth of shipbuilding and present problems reviewed to forecast the future; oil age.

2. Operating problems and costs under American and foreign registry; history of American marine legislation; Government aids to shipping: Subsidies, mail payments, preferential duties, freight rebates.

III. *The Liner.*—Growth of the North Atlantic Ferry and the great ship lines; pools and combines; aids to navigation, lighthouses, life-saving, safety at sea; line service from American ports; railroad lines and "feeder" lines; reciprocal influence of labor migrations, shipbuilding, and ship lines; shipping conditions and outlook.

[1] From information circulars issued by Columbia University.

RAILWAY TRAFFIC AND RATES.

This course is designed to meet the needs of traffic men employed either by railroad companies or by industrial establishments which receive or send out products by rail.

A description of the present railway system of the United States, an analysis of its work, and a study of the business organization of a railroad corporation will indicate the nature and extent of the railway service and the character of the machinery developed to perform it. A study of the functions and duties of an industrial traffic department will show the nature of the organization developed to purchase the services of the railroads and to represent the shippers in their ordinary business relations with the carriers.

The most important part of contact between railroad and shipper is the transportation rate. The first step in rate making is classification. The general principles of classification will be discussed and an explanation given for the necessity of applying special or commodity rates instead of class rates to many articles of traffic. Each of the three leading classifications of the United States will be analyzed, particular attention being given to the special rules and regulations of each. Problems of classification will be presented for outside investigation and class discussion.

The rules of the Interstate Commerce Commission for the publication and filing of tariffs, as given in Tariff Circular 18–A, will be fully discussed, and the construction of local tariffs, interline tariffs, and agency tariffs will be described.

Because of peculiar conditions of topography or of economic development, varying types of rate structures have come into existence in different sections of the United States. The chief feature of the rate systems of the eastern, southern, and western territories will be explained, and consideration given to the modifications brought about by the rulings of the Interstate Commerce Commission under the "long-and-short-haul" clause of the Mann-Elkins Act of 1910.

The use of freight shipping papers, such as the bill of lading, the arrival notice, the freight bill, the delivery receipt, and the waybill will be studied, and instruction given concerning the preparation of these various papers.

Special problems of freight transportation, such as car service and demurrage and freight claims will receive attention; a thorough study of the conference rulings of the Interstate Commerce Commission will be required.

Some time will be devoted to a study of the passenger, mail, and express business of the railways, and a comparison made of the rates and services afforded by the express and the parcel post.

The last part of the year will be given to the consideration of the present methods of the regulation of railroads by State governments and by the Federal Government. The reading of the act to regulate commerce will be required, and a careful analysis made of its provisions. An estimate of the effectiveness and adequacy of the present system of regulation will be presented and an attempt made to indicate what changes in the present methods of regulations are desirable.

MONEY AND CREDIT—BANKING—BANKING ORGANIZATION AND PRACTICE.

By CHAUNCEY RAY PORTER,

Secretary School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, New York University.

The following outlines, with suggested texts and supplementary readings, refer to four courses which are considered essential in any thorough prepara-

tion for foreign trade. In making up these outlines it is assumed that the college offering the training would have a fairly well-developed curriculum in business subjects, if not a separately organized school of commerce. It is assumed also that the students will have had at least a year of elementary economics before beginning these courses.

If the curriculum of any particular college is so arranged that most of the freshman and sophomore years are made up of so-called cultural subjects, it might not be advisable to spend as much time on the money and banking courses as is indicated here as being ideal. In such a case it would be possible to telescope the courses in money and credit and theory and history of banking into a one-term course of three or four hours a week. If this were done it might be better to use some book like Holdsworth's Money and Banking as a text, because this will give to the student under one set of covers a fairly comprehensive treatment of both subjects.

Banking practice and foreign exchange could be telescoped in the same way if this is necessary, but there is no one book which can be used for both courses.

MONEY AND CREDIT.

(Three hours a week, fall term, sophomore or junior year.)

Relation between money and credit; circumstances affecting the value of money and credit; index numbers; the rate of interest; effect of changes in money supply and value upon the rate of interest; types of money and monetary systems; monetary history of the United States.

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United States. Department of the Treasury. Bureau of the Mint. Report of the director.
——— ——— Circular no. 52. *See also under* Theory and History of Banking.

THEORY AND HISTORY OF BANKING.

(Three hours a week, spring term, sophomore or junior year.)

Classes of banks; operations of a commercial bank; the bank statement; loans and discounts; relation between the bank and the borrower; bank notes; deposits and checks; the clearing house; domestic exchange; bank organization and administration; banks and the Government; American banking before the Civil War; European banking systems; the Canadian banking system; banking in South America and the Orient; the national banking system; banking reform in the United States; the Federal Reserve System; State banks and trust companies.

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Foster, M. B. Banking. New York, Alexander Hamilton Institute, 1917. 348 p.
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Laughlin, J. L. Banking progress. New York, Scribner, 1920. 340 p.
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BANKING PRACTICE.

(Three hours a week, full term, junior or senior year.)

Opening an account; deposits; deposit record; paying checks; bank loans; collateral loans; real estate loans; establishing credit; bank accounting; depositors' accounts; the transit department; duties of officers.

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Fiske, A. K. Modern bank. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1904.
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Wolfe, O. H. Practical banking. Chicago, La Salle Extension University, 1917. 200 p.
See also Instructions relative to State banking issued by various State bank superintendents.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

(Three hours a week, spring term, junior or senior year.)

Monetary systems of the world; rates of exchange; foreign remittances; bills of exchange; work of the exchange box; financing of exports; financing of imports; finance bills; arbitrage; gold shipments; exchange and the rates of interest; exchange and the securities market; sterling exchange; French exchange; German exchange; exchange with other countries.

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INTERNATIONAL BANKING AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE.

By IRA B. CROSS,

Professor of Economics, University of California.

In many universities the study of international banking and foreign exchange is made part of a general introductory course in money and banking, while in others where the subjects of money and banking are treated in separate courses it is discussed in the course in banking. Comparatively few institutions devote a semester solely to its consideration. The importance of the subject of foreign exchange was early recognized at the University of California, where almost 20 years ago Dr. Carl C. Plehn added it to the curriculum of the economics department of that institution. In the last few years other universities have done likewise.

My experience leads me to believe that international banking and foreign exchange should be given as a separate three-unit one-semester course and should follow the elementary work in money and banking. As the curriculum of an economics department is usually outlined, the beginning course in economics is given in the sophomore year. Students desiring to specialize in the field under discussion should therefore take the introductory work in money and banking during the first semester of their junior year, following it with the study of international banking and foreign exchange in the second semester.

The lectures and discussion should be based upon a textbook, of which we are having an increasingly large number published each year. An opportunity should be constantly afforded the class to ask questions, because the practices of foreign exchange are always difficult for beginners to understand. Exercises and problems should be assigned from time to time, so as to acquaint the students with the banking forms used, the different types of foreign exchange documents employed, and the methods followed in figuring the buying and selling rates of the various kinds of exchange.

As to the content of the course, it has been found advisable to begin instruction by devoting about two weeks to a discussion of domestic exchange. Students more easily grasp the principles underlying exchange transactions when the money of only one country is involved. This part of the course may well cover the following matters: The definition of domestic exchange; the agencies used in the settlement of accounts between merchants and others in different parts of the United States, such as bank drafts, money orders, acceptances (bank and trade), letters of credit, etc., and the advantages and disadvantages of each; methods of protest; indorsements; liability of drawer, drawee, and indorsers; and factors affecting rates of domestic exchange.

Then passing to a discussion of international banking and foreign exchange, the course readily proceeds along the following lines: The definition of foreign exchange; foreign exchange in theory; classes of bills of exchange and how they are used, such as, clean and documentary bills, drafts drawn against securities, bankers' demand drafts, bankers' long bills, letters of credit, travelers' cheques, express and postal money orders, cables, etc.; characteristics of the foreign exchange market, dealers, international banking relations, etc.; rates of exchange,

par of exchange, methods of quoting exchange rates on various countries, factors making for fluctuations in rates; the gold movement, cause for export and import for gold, and the mechanism employed; how money is made in foreign exchange transactions; effect of the World War on the exchange market, and finally exercises and discussion of practices arising in connection with the actual buying and selling of exchange, conversion, expected rates of profits, etc.

A term paper involving a careful and detailed study of the foreign exchange relations of a particular country is of very real assistance to the student by enabling him to see more clearly how the principles discussed throughout the course apply in actual practice.

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INVESTMENTS—STOCK AND PRODUCE EXCHANGE—COMMISSION AND BROKERAGE PRACTICE.

By HENRY RAND HATFIELD,

Dean of the Faculties, University of California.

The study of investments has but recently found a recognized place in the curriculum of the commercial course. Considerable literature has appeared, but much of it makes no attempt at scientific treatment and is little more than meretricious advice as to how one can make a successful turn in the stock market. Even the more scientific and scholarly works, for the most part, discuss only American markets and conditions, and have only an indirect bearing on the problems of foreign trade. Thus, the standard text on investments, used by business houses, as well as by colleges, makes no reference whatever to foreign securities and markets, and one might infer from its perusal that bonds were issued by no Government other than that of the United States. But the war has done away with our isolation. Particularly in a course designed to

train for foreign trade, foreign as well as domestic investments must be considered. This is true, not so much because dealing in foreign investments is in itself a form of international trade, as because the transfer of investment securities is one of the most obvious means of paying for imports. In the past this has been true to a minor degree. It has been a striking phenomenon during the recent war; it will probably be continuously important in future trade between America and Europe. Already the changed attitude has been typified by a series of articles published by the American Association of Social and Political Science under the title "America's changing investment market."

The course on investments should include the following matters: The form and characteristics of various types of investments; the basis of security in investments; and elements of investment value. The student should examine specific securities, making such investigations as are properly made by the investment dealer before undertaking to handle an issue. Such matters are recognized as a part of any course on investments. A course bearing on foreign trade should emphasize also the broader aspects of the investment market, such, for instance, as are brought out in C. K. Hobson's "The export of capital," and J. A. Hobson's "An economic interpretation of investment." Attention should also be given to the great financial movements so admirably treated in Mitchell's "Economic cycles." Caution must be taken lest the study of price movements degenerate, as in so many popular treatises, into a mere attempt to forecast profitable speculations on a margin.

The course in investments should follow courses in the principles of economics, accounting, statistical methods, and the mathematical principles involved in the calculation of net yield. This last-named subject is sometimes included in the course in investments. Preferably it should be given in a preliminary mathematical course being most conveniently handled in connection with the allied topics of annuities, depreciation, sinking funds, etc. A general survey of corporation finance is also preferably given as a prerequisite to, rather than as a part of, the course in investments.

Stock exchanges are necessarily considered in connection with the study of investments. The closely allied activities of produce exchanges have been more neglected in the college curriculum, although they are perhaps far more significant in relation to foreign trade. Foreign schools have given much more attention to the details of such organized markets than have the schools in this country. This is doubtless justified by the fact that in Europe the colleges of commerce have been preeminently training schools for foreign trade, while in America, foreign trade having been relatively insignificant, interest centered on the home market. But now, when training for foreign trade is imperative, the schools of Belgium and France may well serve as models. The Institut Superieur de Commerce, of Antwerp, founded in 1852, is one of the most successful as well as one of the oldest of such schools. Students in the third year are given a course dealing with the exchanges of London, Paris, Brussels, Antwerp, Amsterdam, Berlin, and New York. In addition attention is paid to the general markets of Egypt, Canada, South America, China, Java, Straits Settlements, and Ceylon. About one-fourth of the Belgians who have graduated from the Antwerp school are located in England, South America, Singapore, India, Tunis, Congo Free State, Japan, China, and Cuba. In addition to these, a very large number are located in other countries in continental Europe. With such an array of trained commercial emissaries, it is not surprising that Belgian foreign trade is so highly developed. No such program is attempted in American schools. If the United States is at all to rival Belgium in its relative standing in the world markets, it is necessary to furnish instruction in the organization, forms, and procedure of foreign markets.

The technic of the organized markets—commissions, brokerage, etc.—is a matter which must be dealt with in connection with the study of the stock, produce, and other exchanges. This has generally been but lightly touched upon in American colleges, save as it relates to American practice. While the student preparing for foreign trade should not be encumbered with a mass of details which he can neither remember nor use, he should be informed as to the main features of trade customs in foreign countries, and should know where to look for supplementary details. Unfortunately, on these subjects there is a paucity of good treatises in the English language, and a still greater lack in those especially adapted to American students.

The subjects touched on above are best studied in the last year of the course in commerce. They require considerable background, and some specific preliminary training, as, for instance, that in mathematics. Not less than three hours a week throughout a year should be allowed for these subjects. This time should be exclusive of that devoted to cognate subjects such as banking, foreign exchange, etc., which may form separate courses and are elsewhere considered in this report.

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COMPARATIVE FINANCE AND TAXATION.

By GEORGE E. PUTNAM,
Professor of Economics, Washington University.

The subject matter of Government finance, now one of the well standardized courses of study in the curricula of most American colleges and universities, may be indicated briefly as follows:

I. Government expenditures: The difference between public and private expenditures; economy, regularity, and purpose in expenditures; the growth and significance of the expenditures of central and local governments in modern times.

II. Government revenues: (*a*) Revenues from public lands, the post office, and public industries; the conditions under which governments should engage in industrial undertakings; (*b*) fees, special assessments, and taxes as sources of revenue; the canons of taxation; the meaning of "equitable" taxation; proportional, progressive, and regressive rates; (*c*) the forms and incidence of taxation—property, income, inheritance, customs, excise, corporation, capitation, business and license taxes; the relative importance of these taxes in the fiscal systems of leading nations; problems of administration; (*d*) the value of current proposals for reform in the tax system and in the administration of tax laws; the single tax; the proper balancing of Federal, State, and local revenue systems in the United States.

III. Government debts (a source of *revenue* to be justified by the character of the *expenditure* contemplated): The history of national debts as to character, purpose, amount, and administration; industrial loans, deficiency loans, and war loans; bonds versus taxes in war finance; conversion and sinking funds; State and local indebtedness; restrictions on borrowing power.

There is an intimate relation between the study of Government finance and the general field of economics. The former is concerned primarily with public revenues, expenditures, and their administration; the latter may be defined as the study of the desires, efforts, and rewards of human beings engaged in the business of making a living or, more briefly, as the social science of wealth. Where economic science has to do with the wealth-getting and wealth-using activities of men as members of society, Government finance deals specifically with the economic relation of organized society to its individual members. And that relation is not to be ignored. When, by common consent, a government assumes the responsibility of operating a railroad, a postal service, a water plant (municipal finance), or of protecting its citizens, it is satisfying human desires in a field where private enterprise presumably has failed or is incompetent. It is the central authority to which certain responsibilities have been assigned so that they may be assumed for the benefit of all rather than for the benefit of a few. Again, the financial policy of a government may determine the channels of human effort in production, as when taxes are levied on the importation of foreign goods for the purpose of stimulating their production within the country. A government may indeed impose such onerous taxes on its citizens as to penalize materially their productive efforts. Finally, taxes are paid by individuals solely from the product of human industry, that is, from the shares of private income known as rent, interest, wages, and profits. These are the rewards men receive for their efforts, and out of these rewards a government extracts most of its revenue. If a tax system is carelessly devised, it will mean injustice and hardship to some while others will profit by escaping their share of the tax burden. In order to pass an authoritative judgment upon the justice or injustice of a particular tax or tax system with a view to preventing gross inequalities among taxpayers, one must have a firm grasp on the theory and principles of economic science.

Government finance is thus a part of the science of economics, which in turn is but a part of the study of man. In a college curriculum the subject may be conveniently offered as a semester or full year's course of three hours a week to properly qualified juniors and seniors, that is, to those who have completed an introductory course in the principles and problems of economics. For those students who are seeking a general training in economics, a half-year course is probably sufficient. Those who expect to engage in public service should pursue the subject much further than is possible in one semester.

As a preparation for citizenship, public service, or commercial life, a knowledge of Government finance is fundamental. Taxation touches the economic life of every breadwinner, directly or indirectly, justly or unjustly; it is at all times a factor affecting the satisfaction of human desires, the expenditure of human effort, and the distribution of wealth; and it is a powerful weapon when used as a means of effecting social or economic reforms. Now that the World War has thrust upon governments greater financial responsibilities than ever before, the subject has come to have a new importance not only in the college classroom but also in the public press. Some of the larger problems are centered about the means of raising the necessary revenue without impeding proper business activity or giving rise to class feeling and gross inequality. It makes a good deal of difference, so far as the welfare of the masses is concerned, whether the financial obligations are met out of revenue from increased taxation or from bond issues, though but few appreciate the relative merits and demerits of either method. So important has the study of these public questions become that a number of universities now definitely prescribe government finance as a required subject for all undergraduates majoring in economics.

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COMPARATIVE CORPORATION LAWS AND FINANCE.

By CHARLES W. GERSTENBERG.

Director of Finance, School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, New York University.

Since exporting from the United States will attract our larger industries chiefly, and since these are organized on the corporate plan, the man or woman who is about to prepare for work in the foreign field may well include in his or her studies the subject of comparative corporation laws and finance.

Two plans are ordinarily open to an American concern doing business in a foreign country: To form a separate corporation in the country or to apply for permission for the American company to do business there; to be sure

a third method may be adopted, permitting a local concern to attend to the business as owner of the American concern's goods or as consignee, but the use of this method deprives to some extent the American concern of the absolute control of its own business.

Before any one of these methods of doing business in a foreign country can be selected, the business man will have to know something about how corporations may be formed in foreign countries, who may be the incorporators, burdens placed on ownership of the stock, and like questions. The restrictions on the ownership of property by foreign corporations must be considered. Always the tax laws must be studied carefully.

In certain countries and for certain purposes, it will be almost absolutely necessary to organize local companies. It must be remembered that the division of business organizations into partnerships and corporations holds good only for the English-speaking countries. In the Latin and Teutonic countries many other forms of association are in common use.

While it will not be necessary ordinarily to understand the intricacies of financing, since funds will be supplied by the home concern and no sale of interests in the foreign company will be sought to be made, the student should in a general way have some understanding of local laws pertaining to the forms of stock or other interests of ownership and to the conditions under which they may be issued.

Whether a concern operates a mere branch or owns a subsidiary, the local managers will have to understand the local laws governing the relation of creditor and debtor.

In some foreign countries the accounting of corporations is closely regulated. Laws pertaining to this subject will have to be studied, as will also the rules pertaining to the distribution of profits. Moreover, since corporations doing an extensive business in any country are likely to come into contact with insolvent concerns, the laws of bankruptcy and of reorganization will demand consideration.

Two methods of studying the subject are possible: The one, theoretically superior, is to study one phase of the law or of corporate financing at a time and then to compare the laws and practices of the several countries; the other method is the more practical and will probably commend itself to students, since it makes for economy of time, effort, and memory. This method consists of studying the entire subject of corporation laws and the practice of finance as they are found in a given country. As country after country is investigated, the same general outline may be used. Some such simple scheme as this may be followed:

I. Corporation laws:
   1. Organization—kinds and methods.
   2. Ownership—kinds, rights, obligations.
   3. Management.
   4. Relation to State.
   5. Taxes and reports.
   6. Insolvent corporations and reorganizations.

II. Corporation finance:
   1. Borrowing funds.
   2. Accounting.
   3. Declaration of profits.
   4. Special practices.

In every case a study of foreign laws and finance should be based on a thorough understanding of the principles of American law and finance. Variations from the American standard will be readily understood and retained in the memory.

Unfortunately, few books have appeared in the English language dealing with the laws and practices of corporation finance in foreign countries. Many books, however, have been written in foreign languages, but they are not readily available for the ordinary student. In compiling the following short bibliography the author has had in mind the practical necessity of sticking as far as possible to the English texts.

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INSURANCE COURSES IN THE PREPARATION FOR FOREIGN TRADE WORK.

By Robert Riegel,

Professor of Insurance and Statistics, University of Pennsylvania.

The foundations of a foreign trade course are the subjects of broad scope which form a background for and an introduction to studies of particular phases of economic life. As the average student's time is at least fully occupied in college by approximately 24 hours of class-work per week, the first year is easily consumed by these fundamental courses. The second and third years include a continuation of some of this fundamental work, but considerably more time is available for general business courses more closely related to the future work of one who expects to engage in foreign trade, such as accounting, the monetary and credit systems under which business is conducted, the domestic marketing systems for important commodities, the general principes of merchandising, including advertising and manufacturing, organization and operations. These considerations explain why the subject of insurance is not generally met with in college courses before the second or third year.

At the conclusion of the second year the student has completed what may be called for the present purposes preparatory subjects and is free to concentrate

attention upon such subjects as more directly pertain to his proposed calling. As concerns insurance, three hours per week may very profitably be devoted during the third year to a general course intended to explain the elementary principles of life, compensation, fire, title and credit insurance, and corporate bonding. All of these are valuable, if not essential, to anyone engaging in business, and particularly a business involving the use of credit, relations with employees, ownership and management of real estate, and commodities. Some transactions connected therewith are unavoidable in the course of business of a shipper, forwarder, export house, or vessel owner engaged in foreign trade. It is impossible in the ordinary college curriculum to require every student to take the three or four separate courses necessary to treat such subjects exhaustively, and yet it is desirable that all should be acquainted with the more important phases, an acquaintance which is furnished by a general insurance course of three hours per week.

The fourth year gives the opportunity to direct attention to two forms of insurance which are of primary importance to the exporter, shipper, forwarder, and shipowner—marine and fire insurance. With the aid of considerable outside reading, especially in connection with fire insurance, a course with two hours per week class work will probably suffice. This will consist of an equal amount of lectures and quizzing upon a text and assigned readings. In the case of marine insurance the most satisfactory plan has been found to be the use of a text supplemented by lectures and discussions. Attention must necessarily be devoted to subjects important from the viewpoint of the insured rather than the insurer, but there is danger of overemphasizing this method of treatment and omitting from consideration some subjects which are in an indirect way very intimately connected with the interests of the insured. It is evident that an ideal method would be to prepare the separate courses to meet the needs of those enrolled in such courses, but it is equally obvious that there must be a reasonable limit to the number of courses given.

The above statement is written not only with ideal conditions in mind, but with a view to what can apparently be accomplished under existing limitations. Appended is a bibliography of the more necessary and accessible publications on marine insurance.

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STUDY OF FISCAL AND CUSTOMS LEGISLATION.

By L. S. Rowe,

Director General of the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

This subject is one of the most important pertaining to the curriculum of a school of commerce and finance. We see more and more manifestations of governmental regulation of international commerce; and it is necessary that those who propose to fit themselves for international trade should be equipped with a general but accurate knowledge of modern tendencies in governmental regulation, in order that later they may not work under a misunderstanding.

The regulation of international commerce from the national point of view, in such a way as at one and the same time to protect the public interest and to interfere least with the conduct of private business, has become a science. At the beginning, such regulation represented no scientific principle. The purpose of regulation of trade was largely the natural one of securing revenue. The Government intended to make commerce from abroad bear the burden of governmental administration, as far as compatible with the requirements of domestic trade. We are familiar in this country with the ancient slogan, "Let the foreigner pay the expenses of our Government."

Because of its purpose to secure revenue, public regulation of trade for a long time could not be carried on in a scientific manner. It proceeded from one detail to another, and almost never worked from a basis of principle. Through long years, governmental regulation of trade grew simply by the process of accretion. There is nothing so difficult as to overcome routinary and traditional methods of doing things; and rational reform of governmental regulation of commerce has been no easier to achieve than other improvements. Nevertheless, the struggle for simplicity has gone on, and with it a struggle for uniformity. These years of preparation for our present interest in the true nature of fiscal regulation of trade have seen a long and interesting series of efforts at international cooperation. International congresses of statistics, trade, and commerce have been held in Europe during the last 40 years, and the subject matter of the European gatherings has in turn formed a large part of the program of conferences in the United States and Latin America. As one of the most recent examples of this I may cite the International Conference of Commercial Statistics, held at Brussels in 1913, which prepared a commercial statistical schedule for international use. This schedule was adopted by the International High Commission of the American Republics at its first general meeting in Buenos Aires in April, 1916, and it is likely that it will be adopted before long as the standard of commercial statistics throughout the hemisphere.

A course of study in the field of fiscal legislation might be outlined somewhat as follows: Documentation; consular activities; port dues; methods of appraisal; classification, for practical and statistical purposes.

Obviously, some of these topics are of less importance than others. The subject of port dues has much less significance than those of classification and appraisal. The mastery of the technic of customs documentation is simpler than a grasp of the duties of consular officers. The student must be well grounded in the underlying theory of tariff legislation and fiscal regulation, and this presupposes some fair knowledge of contemporary economic theories and political tendencies, as well as of the economic history of the United States. Mere study of the documents will hardly help him without this broad foundation of principle.

The class should become acquainted with types of official invoices and manifests, taking up at the same time, by way of comparison, railway and shipping companies' invoices, manifests and bills of lading. Collections of these consular documents may be secured directly from the consular representatives of the several nations, but they are to be found in various public documents and trade cyclopedias.

The consular regulations of the United States and summarized translations of the consular regulations of the leading commercial countries should be put in the hands of students. Even though it may not be necessary to require a detailed knowledge of all the regulations, the more important consular duties should be thoroughly described.

The difficulty in studying the subject of port dues arises from their endless variety in terminology, incidence, and jurisdiction. The requirements of the larger ports should be studied in detail, and so far as the United States is concerned, reference should be had to the excellent report entitled, "Ports of the United States," by G. M. Jones, Miscellaneous Series No. 33, Department of Commerce, Washington, 1916. The latest edition of the navigation laws should be studied in this connection.

Of course, for the study of methods of appraisal, thorough and intelligent use must be made of the United States Customs Regulations. A codification of these regulations is in process, and the study of our customs system will be

greatly facilitated when this work shall have been completed. Reference may be made in this connection to the excellent reports published by the Department of Commerce and Federal Trade Commission in recent years.

The report of the Inter-American High Commission, Foreign Trade Council, of the American Manufacturers' Export Association, National Association of Manufacturers, the International Congresses of Chambers of Commerce, and many of the excellent publications of the Pan American Union should be at hand in carrying on such work. A good collection of the translations of the tariff laws of the world is also essential.

As to classification, the student must be shown how systems of classification were constructed, or more accurately, how they have been developed in the way most convenient for administrators and legislators. Frequent and cafeful use of tariff statistics is the best method of teaching the system of statistical classification, and the student should be introduced to all the official statistical publications of the leading commercial countries of the world. It will be worth the instructor's while to secure as complete a collection of the most recent of these official bulletins. He should note that they are sometimes to be found as appendices to the reports of the ministers of finance, rather than as separate publications. Tariff classification, so far as the United States is concerned, might profitably be studied in the reports of hearings before the Committees on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives, and on Finance, of the Senate.

Some slight knowledge of the fiscal administrative codes which obtain in many countries governed under the system of modern Roman law will be desirable, if the student expects to understand the by-no-means-simple procedure occasionally necessary in fiscal cases.

The bibliography of fiscal and customs legislation and regulation may be divided into the following three groups:

I. Texts of national legislation and regulation.

II. Texts of international agreements and the proceedings of international conferences on the uniformity of legislation and regulation.

III. Manuals and treatises of administrative law.

There follow a few titles, arranged in accordance with the foregoing. The list is merely suggestive, even for the United States. Attention has been given to Latin America rather than to Europe, because of the fact that the fiscal literature of Europe is well indexed in such bibliographies as that contained in Prof. Taussig's manual.

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DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN COMMERCIAL POLICIES.

By SIMON LITMAN,

Professor of Economics, University of Illinois.

The purpose of the courses on "Domestic and foreign commercial policies" should be:

1. To bring out clearly the relationship between the public and the private aspects of business.

2. To determine the aims and the limitations of governmental trade-shaping activities.

3. To consider the methods and agencies used by the State and by other public authorities in order to control and to promote commerce.

4. To give students a comprehensive understanding as to what business men must do or refrain from doing in order to conform to governmental requirements at home and abroad, as well as to familiarize them with the functions and the work of those institutions from which merchants may obtain guidance and assistance in the pursuit of their legitimate business enterprises.

The course on domestic commercial policies should begin with an analysis of domestic trade and with a discussion of its various forms (wholesale, retail, mail order, etc.) in so far as these give rise to and are affected by legislative enactments, judicial decisions, and administrative acts. The instructor, keeping in mind that emphasis must be laid on policies and not on technical details, should then review the measures which have been passed for the purpose of insuring the free play of competition and of preventing unfair methods and frauds. Some of the topics to be discussed are these: The regulation of markets, of stock and produce exchanges, of warehouses and elevators; classification of grain and of cotton into grades; the crop-reporting system; provisions regarding standard weights and measures; pure food and drug legislation; protection of patents and trade-marks; antitrust legislation; decisions regarding price maintenance, use of trading stamps, misleading advertising; false statement laws; bulk sales laws; the bankruptcy act. The concluding part of the course should consider chambers of commerce and similar nontrading associations of merchants as well as various governmental bureaus, departments, and commissions dealing with domestic trade.

It is desirable to have two courses on foreign commercial policies. In the first course the nature, the significance, and the essential characteristics of foreign commerce as distinct from domestic trade should be brought out. The subject matter may then be presented in the following sequence:

(*a*) Tariff as one of the most important manifestations of a country's commercial policy; changes in theories and in policies (mercantilists, physiocrats, classical and national schools of political economy); balance of trade versus fiscal balance; arguments for free trade and for protection (economic, social, political, military); protection of agriculture, of manufactures; different kinds of customs duties; import, export, specific, ad valorem, countervailing, etc.; incidence of taxation by means of customs duties; bounties; prohibitions of imports and of exports; the making of the tariff; tariff commission; tariff systems—autonomous, general and conventional, general and preferential, maximum and minimum; commercial treaties—their nature and scope; European and American interpretation of the most-favored-nation clause; dumping.

(*b*) Navigation policies; the merchant-marine question; regulation of shipbuilding and of shipping; shipping subsidies; discriminating duties on vessels and their cargoes; traffic agreements of ocean carriers; Government ownership of ships; improvements of rivers and of harbors; control of terminal facilities; port charges; taxation of shipping.

(*c*) Trade-promoting activities and institutions in foreign countries and in the United States; consular service; duties and functions of consuls, of commercial attachés, of trade commissioners; legislative committees and executive departments and bureaus devoted to the furthering of foreign commerce; the organization and the activities of the Department of Commerce; cooperation for the development of foreign trade; Federal Reserve Law and trade connections; branch banks in foreign countries.

(*d*) Regulations affecting commercial travelers, samples, trade-marks, credit, and collections.

The second course should be historical in character and should consider changes in the commercial policies of the United States and of the leading foreign nations. Study should also be made of the after-war commercial problems and of the ways to solve them. If no separate course is offered on customs administration, additional topics to be treated are the work of the custom-house, bonded warehouses, drawbacks, etc.

A half-year semester, three hours a week, should be spent on each course. The time for giving these courses would depend upon correlation with other parts of the curriculum; however, under no circumstances does it seem advisable to give them before the junior year. The course on domestic commercial policies should precede and should be regarded as a prerequisite for the first course on foreign commercial policies. If the subjects are taught in the junior year, the second course on foreign commerce may be given either concurrently or in the senior year.

The students undertaking this work should be well versed in principles of economics and have a knowledge of economic geography and of economic history. A careful coordination of these courses with those on commercial law, on fiscal legislation, and on business organization and operation is highly desirable in order to avoid unnecessary duplications.

The courses may undergo contraction or expansion in the presentation of certain parts, dependent on the fact as to what additional courses are offered on such topics as diplomatic and consular service, customs legislation and administration, ocean transportation, credit and collections, and exporting and importing.

Students should be required to read the current literature on the subject; reports, bulletins, periodicals issued by the Government as well as by trade organizations and associations.

There is no single volume which can be used as a text for the outlined course on domestic commercial policies. The subject may be covered by referring the students to various parts of the books listed below.

For the first course on foreign trade, Fisk's "International Commercial Policies" gives a concise and systematic presentation of some of the important problems to be discussed. The first edition of this book was published in 1907 and it is in need of a revision, a number of its chapters being out of date. Taussig's "Tariff History of the United States" may be used for one part of the second course on Foreign Trade, the other parts to be covered by means of assigned readings.

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PART II. GOVERNMENT.

THE CONSULAR SERVICE.

By EARL WILLIS CRECRAFT,

Professor of Political Science and Economics, Municipal University of Akron, Ohio.

The examinations which are given by the State Department to applicants for positions in consular service include the following subjects:

I. International, maritime, and commercial law.
II. Political and commercial geography.
III. Arithmetic.
IV. Modern languages.
V. Natural, industrial, and commercial resources and commerce of the United States.
VI. Political economy.
VII. American history, Government and institutions.
VIII. Modern history (since 1850) of Europe, South America, and the Far East.

It will be seen from this that no single course of lectures which a school might offer will cover thoroughly all these different subjects. Each subject in the above list is more or less a special subject in itself. The faculty of a large school of commerce is composed of specialists in each of these lines. Therefore the student who would prepare for the consular service would find it necessary to take a number of courses under different instructors instead of expecting to find one course answering for all.

A student who wishes to prepare for the consular service should enter a school of commerce or department of economics and pursue studies in those courses which most nearly fit the prescribed subjects which are made the basis for the entrance examinations at Washington.

In meeting the requirements in international law, several universities offer courses on the principles of international law and an advanced course in treaties and the treaty-making power. In addition to these courses, there are two courses of one semester each which bear directly on the organization of the consular and diplomatic service and the rights and duties of diplomatic and consular representatives in the protection of citizens and property abroad.

Mr. Wilbur J. Carr, the Director of the Consular Service, has perhaps correctly stated the true situation relative to the inadvisability of any university expending a large amount in establishing a school for the consular and diplomatic service. In discussing this subject at the Conference on Training for Foreign Service, held at Washington, December 31, 1915, Mr. Carr said:

> I think it may well justify serious consideration as to how many courses you can maintain in your universities—that is, courses additional to the regular courses in the university—for preparation for this particular work; but there is a way in which I think our need can be met, and very much greater needs be met, by taking advantage of and meeting the condition which is confronting us now with reference to the training of men for foreign service in connection with our export trade, due to increased business with other countries through private enterprise. So far as I know, the eligible men for that kind of work are very few, and in this connection the educational institutions of this country are confronted with a problem which they will have to meet. From what I

have seen of the work at Harvard and in the school of commerce of New York University it seems to me that it would be perfectly possible to combine a course of training for the American Consular Service with a course of training for service in export trade, and have sufficient demand for those courses to enable them to be maintained, or at least, a reasonable part of them.

I am convinced that the university training you would give a man who is to be an export manager or an international banker, or who is even to be a salesman abroad, is essentially that which would meet the requirements of the Consular Service. I do not see why it would not furnish the foundation for the making of a good consul, plus some specialization in international law and in the history of treaties and similar subjects. It seems to me we have there the basis of a work which can be done and will meet our needs and those of the new field of foreign commerce.

The following courses in political science in schools of commerce will be seen to coincide with the list of subjects which are made the basis of the consular and diplomatic examinations at Washington:

I. International law.
II. Treaties and the treaty making power.
III. Rights and duties of consuls.
IV. Diplomatic protection of citizens and property abroad.
V. Principles of accounting.
VI. Spanish, French, or German.
VII. Industrial and commercial geography.
VIII. Political economy.
IX. Commercial law—law of contracts.
X. Commercial law of Spanish America.
XI. American government.
XII. Europe since 1870.
XIII. Current international problems.

The completion of this program would be representative of approximately two years of work. It is not necessary for special students to hold strictly to a set course for three or four years. Special students may enter and take whatever courses they prefer. However, I should personally recommend in preparation for the Consular Service that the student get at least two years of general collegiate work before beginning to take the specialized subjects which have been mentioned above.

One difficulty about the whole matter is that the salaries of the lower grades of the Consular Service are low. Men who have had a good start in the business world are not tempted by low salaries. Business experience is no doubt a help to the commercial representative of our Government abroad. According to Mr. Carr it is not absolutely essential that the applicant for a position in the Consular Service have business experience to his credit. The right kind of educational equipment and personality are the prime factors.

But while commercial training should be emphasized in fitting men for the Consular Service, the political, diplomatic, and governmental side must also be kept prominent. This is where international law, diplomatic history, treaties, and political science in general are undoubtedly important branches of training not only for the consul, but for the secretary of legation and for the commercial attaché.

It is frequently advocated that business experience be required, however. Mr. John Hays Hammond, in an article published in the Forum for July, 1916, advocates business experience not only for consuls but for diplomatic representatives. He advocates the selection of consuls with "due consideration to be given for their future service in the diplomatic corps; so that ambassadors may be chosen from men who have attained distinction in the Consular Service."

With all respect for the wide experience and information with which Mr. Hammond writes, it will not detract from the force of his point to add that a business man who finds himself suddenly placed in an important diplomatic position will find himself seriously handicapped unless he is informed in the subjects of history, economics, international law, and diplomacy. It is appropriate, therefore, that the Department of State has attached much weight to these subjects in the entrance examinations.

One very important feature in addition to the preceding could be introduced into the university course of training. This would be the inauguration of a system of having consuls who return to this country on leave lecture before classes which have students enrolled in preparation for the foreign service. This would place before students and the regular instructors of the university first hand information in regard to the commercial opportunities where the consuls are located abroad. This would be in line with the plan offered by the National Foreign Trade Council relative to recommending that consuls returning on leave to this country appear at business conferences and conventions for the purpose of acquainting these bodies with business opportunities abroad.

Officials of the State Department have recommended that funds be provided to enable consuls to attend such conventions. The writer of this article desires to express the hope that, as this practice becomes perfected, returning consuls will visit educational institutions where conveniently located, and address classes of young men who are preparing for foreign service. This practice would be a great incentive to the work of the lecture room. If chambers of commerce are to secure the services of our consuls when they return for a temporary visit, there seems to be no valid reason why they should not be provided with the funds to enable them to appear in the more important and centrally located schools of commerce where men are preparing to enter the identical kind of work in which they themselves are engaged.

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CIVICS.

Immigration and Citizenship—Social Legislation.

By HATTIE PLUM WILLIAMS,

Associate Professor of Practical Sociology, University of Nebraska.

I. *Immigration and citizenship.*—It scarcely seems necessary to suggest that a knowledge of the composition and movement of the population of a country is

fundamental for those engaged in foreign service of any kind. Upon the degree of mobility of the population within the country will depend very largely the desire for new goods and the facilities for distributing them, while its movement in and out of the country will provide opportunities for commercial intercourse and necessitate diplomatic relations. Students of immigration who regret the overemphasis of the economic factor in this problem nevertheless recognize that economic opportunities are the greatest force in modern times in drawing people into foreign lands, and that trade currents can follow migration grooves as naturally as they follow the flag. No one has yet studied immigration as a world phenomenon. It is still thought of in provincial terms as a problem peculiar to the United States, and not as one with which every country struggles more or less.

The supply of and demand for inhabitants is a basic fact not only in the movement of population but also in the development of markets and especially in the future political relations of the countries of the world. In the Far East a thorough and sympathetic understanding of the problems arising out of the pressure of population, and constructive cooperation with those countries in formulating a program of relief, will go far toward averting a clash of interests between East and West. In Russia and the South American States, where undeveloped resources wait upon an increase in population, the problem is the reverse, but no less momentous for the peace and prosperity of the world.

No less important is a recognition of the various racial groups which make up the political unit or State. Everywhere abroad, where assimilation is less complete and considered less essential than in the United States, foreign groups are zealous for the recognition of racial distinctions. One can readily imagine the loss of good will which might follow the refusal to take note of this race prejudice and to classify properly various racial groups.

Keeping in mind the purpose of the course outlined above, the following brief syllabus is suggested for Latin America, the Far East, and Russia:

1. Distribution and density of the population.
2. Movement of population—
    1. Birth and death rates, increase of population and distribution of increase.
    2. Migration—
        (*a*) Internal movement of population—
            (1) Between States—causes.
            (2) Between rural and urban districts.
            (3) Causes for immobility where it exists.
        (*b*) Emigration—causes; countries sought; attitude of government and public opinion toward; legislation against; treaties controlling; detailed study of such movement to the United States.
        (*c*) Immigration—sources; causes; character; effect on country; social status of immigrants; governmental encouragement; land policy; immigration laws; colonization societies.
3. Elements in population—
    1. Native stock—racial classification.
    2. Foreign stock—importance to national life; assimilation with native stock; attitude of foreign groups to each other; admission to political rights; citizenship laws.

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II. *Social legislation.*—If one were to single out the factor most essential to the success of those engaged in foreign service, he probably would be correct in designating it to be the ability to acquire the viewpoint of the people in whose country such agents are located. In this respect, foreign service differs from domestic, if not in kind, at least in degree. It is not merely getting the viewpoint of another personality in his own group but understanding those who have different historical backgrounds, customs, and moral and ethical standards.

This viewpoint is secured partially by a study of the language of a racial group, but ordinarily the attention of the student is so engrossed by the physical process of learning to read and speak that he loses all appreciation of the soul of the people which language is supposed to express. History offers another possible avenue of approach but the emphasis upon the political and economic phases to the virtual exclusion of institutions and laws gives an inadequate idea of the culture and ideals for conduct of the people.

The chief reason we object to certain groups of foreigners in our midst is not primarily because they are racially inferior, and therefore threaten to dilute or degrade our American stock. Rather is it because their business, moral, and ethical standards are different from ours, and we therefore fail to understand their conduct. Measured by our ideals they seem to lack integrity, and other primary virtues; while we in turn need to be interpreted to them, lest rudeness and boastfulness be our outstanding characteristics. A study of the social institutions of a people and the legislation controlling them will help in understanding the standards which control the conduct of foreigners.

The following types of social legislation should be familiar to every student:

Laws respecting living and working conditions:
- Factory legislation—
  1. Sanitation.
  2. Hours of labor.
  3. Wages.
- Social insurance.
- Housing conditions.
- Health legislation.

Laws respecting women and children:
- Conditions under which they may work.
- Education—
  - Schools—compulsory laws; illiteracy.
  - Press—freedom of.

Laws respecting the family:
Marriage and divorce.
Status of women and children.
Laws respecting special classes:
Dependent—Unemployed, homeless children.
Defective—Feeble-minded and insane, deaf, blind, crippled.
Delinquent—Juvenile delinquency, adult crime.

The work outlined above must be conducted as lecture courses for the simple reason that there are no texts which adequately cover the material. Particularly for the latter are sources so greatly scattered that a satisfactory bibliography is not possible in the short space available. Since a large fund of knowledge is helpful to a proper appreciation of these subjects, they should not be given before the second half of the third year.

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INTERNATIONAL LAW.

By GEORGE G. WILSON,
Professor of International Law, Harvard University.

The minimum requirements should be:

1. International law, the equivalent of three hours a week in class for one year.
2. International relations, covering diplomatic and other policies, three hours per week in class for one year.

Whenever possible the above studies should receive attention to a total amount of 18 hours, or the equivalent of 6 hours a week for 3 years. The emphasis upon different aspects should be varied according to the special line of work which the student is planning to enter. These studies are best adapted for students of junior and senior grade who have had previous training in history and political science and for graduate students.

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COMMERCIAL AND MARITIME LAW.

By L. Russell Alden,

Assistant Professor of History, George Washington University.

Commercial law, in one form or another, governs almost all of man's activities on this globe, and when they are pursued on the three-fourths of the earth that is sea, they are controlled in their maritime aspects by the maritime or admiralty law in addition. Is it not universally true, then, that all men,

because they are directly concerned, ought to know the general principles of this law? Success in business, moreover, is conditioned on the establishment of mutual respect and confidence between contractors, and the stranger the contractors are to each other the more imperative it is that each party overcome the other's possible suspicion by as rigid a respect for the rights of that other as his insistence upon his own rights is vigorous. Is it not equally true, then, that ignorance of the laws governing trade must hamper him who would trade with those of his own nationality and language and, in increasing degree, him who would trade with foreigners to his land, his speech, and his native viewpoint, customs, and peculiarities? Every man, and especially he who would engage successfully in foreign trade, should know the legal effect of his acts and conduct his business with full knowledge of what he is doing when he incurs obligations or acquires rights.

Commercial law is a name loosely given to those branches of the law which govern everyday transactions in business, such as the making of contracts, the use of negotiable paper, the formation of business associations, etc. One would think that a working knowledge of such branches of the law would be common, at least among so-called "business men," if not among the people at large, and yet every lawyer in active practice has had driven home to him again and again the appalling ignorance of otherwise wide-awake and well-informed business men as to the legal effects of entering into a partnership, for example, or of indorsing the check of an out-of-town visitor in order to accommodate him by enabling him to cash it at the host's bank, of responding by letter to an offer of contract made by telegram, of surrendering a deed in exchange for purchase money paid by uncertified check, of depositing trust funds committed to his care to the credit of his personal account in the bank, or of many other common acts too numerous to mention. Far more than pessimists could be driven to admit or optimists would claim, the great majority of men and women are fairly honest, considerate, and accommodating in their dealings with each other. Were it not so, our courts would be overwhelmed with trivial disputes over questions highly difficult of decision, and every man would have to be a lawyer, whether he would or not, or else speedily contribute another example to the doctrine of the survival of the fittest. As it is, the calendars of our courts are congested with preventable litigation, and thousands of dollars and unmeasured assets in business confidence are daily squandered through popular ignorance of the most fundamental principles of commercial or business law.

What do we advocate? Universal required instruction in business law in all high schools and colleges. Our problem here is particularly with colleges, where the treatment of the subjects taught should, of course, be more thorough than among the young pupils in the high schools and suited to the maturity of the students taught. This instruction, in the academic and scientific departments of our universities, should not and can not be either a substitute for or a competitor with the more arduous and thorough training of the students in the law schools who intend to follow the law as a profession; nor can it be given the same number of hours as are allotted to the same subjects when taught in the law schools. But it should be allotted at least two hours a week for two full years, if it is expected to teach anything beyond contracts and negotiable paper, and particularly if the course is designed not only for those who seek a general knowledge of the law as a matter of education or who need it to meet the requirements of examinations for the consular service, but also for engineering students or those who may intend an active commercial life. And this should be the minimum. If more hours can be allotted to this

field of study, there will be no difficulty in using them, and that without inviting any well-grounded objection that a full law-school course is being built up in departments of arts and sciences. As to the years in which it should be offered, they should be the two final years in the course. Much of the law is extremely technical, and for its proper understanding demands as do few subjects maturity of mind and trained powers of reasoning.

Now, as to the method of instruction. In our best law schools we have abandoned the old textbook method and have adopted the Harvard case system or laboratory method of teaching the law. An exclusive use of this method may not be found practicable in view of the limits in time and the extent of the field to be covered in these law courses in colleges of arts and sciences. But, so far as it can be employed, it should be. The ability to state from memory abstract principles of law is of little practical use to one if he is unable to tell which principle he should apply to a given string of confused facts suddenly calling for action. Legal difficulties, as they arise, seldom bear marks of textbook classifications upon them, and he who essays to solve them applies the right or wrong principle at his peril. The instructor should bend every effort to make his instruction, by specific, concrete, everyday illustrations and examples, practical in the highest degree.

A word in conclusion on the subject of maritime or admiralty law. Students aspiring to the consular service and those intending to engage in overseas commerce need a general understanding of the laws of the sea. They may never be called upon to display a knowledge of the steering rules or the laws concerning collusions, but they should know the principles and rules governing charter parties and contracts of affreightment, general average and marine insurance, salvage and the other main branches of the admiralty law governing daily transactions occurring in every port and in connection with every sea venture, principles and rules differing radically from those governing similar transactions occurring on the land. Not much time can be given to such a subject in the kind of course here under discussion, but, by judicious selection of matters to be treated, it can be covered, and that fairly well, in 8 or 10 periods.

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THE ECONOMIC BACKGROUND OF MODERN WORLD POLITICS.

By ABBOTT PAYSON USHER,
Assistant Professor of Economics, Cornell University.

The phrase "world politics" is unfortunately vague, and in this country would scarcely possess even the moderate degree of precision of meaning that would be suggested in Europe. The primary economic questions in world politics center around tariff problems and expansion. Expansion may involve actual acquisition of dominion or merely peaceful penetration of a commercial character. Both of these subjects may seem to be rather special topics, but it is impossible to discuss them in that spirit. The great issues in economic policy are most clearly joined on these questions, so that the study of world politics really involves discussion of the general principles of economic statesmanship. If all question-begging implications are to be avoided, one must endeavor to discover whether there are any general principles that should be recognized by all statesmen. It has long been the ambition of thinkers to formulate principles of action in high matters of state that should, at the least, be more nearly right than the principle or absence of principle that disfigures much political activity.

This discussion of general principles becomes in fact a study of three definite systems of economic statesmanship—mercantilism, bureaucratic collectivism, and liberalism. Each of these general terms must be interpreted in a broad spirit, and many diversities of thought will be found under the general cover of each general type, but there are grounds for making these very general distinctions. Mercantilism is a type of political thinking that is essentially empirical and naive. It appears most characteristically to-day in the crude expansionist policies that appear in all countries. The other types both purport to be "scientific" systems of policy; one is collectivistic and in many cases autocratic, the other is disposed to emphasize the mutual interdependence of society and the individual. Although the distinctions between these systems of thought can easily be exaggerated, the collectivistic theory really turns upon the assumption that the leaders of the State have the power to accomplish what they will; it is based upon a theory of freedom of the will; the liberal theory, on the other hand, is based upon the idea of subordination to laws of nature, and assumes significant power of accomplishment only when action consists in an application of natural law. The liberal theory is at once an attempt to explain the past and to guide statesmen with reference to the future; it portrays social life as being essentially an adaptation of man to his environment, not neglecting his power to transform his surroundings but finding the facts of major importance in his adaptations. This interpretation of history naturally places a notable emphasis upon many kindred subjects, geography and geology, the history of inventions of industrial importance, and the history of commerce.

The study of these matters of general principles can be made most precise and concrete if the historical method is followed, and, although this would lead to a very elaborate presentation if carried into much detail, it is possible to put the more important aspects of the subject before the average sophomore or junior. Within the compass of an undergraduate course it is not wise to attempt more than a general sketch of the development of these three modes of political thinking in England and Germany. So many of the general notions are a commonplace in modern thought that a brief sketch can be made to appeal to students, despite the genuine difficulty of the subject.

After the general discussion of policy the larger aspects of tariff history in the nineteenth century can be significantly treated. The development of the German customs union and the change to protection in 1879 are essential to an understanding of the great issues of the century. The passing of the protective policy in England is an important topic, and it is desirable to give some attention to the subject if there is time. Unless the course runs throughout the year it will scarcely be possible to find time for any adequate treatment of the changes in policy in England. These problems can be most significantly discussed with reference to their bearing upon the rivalry that developed between Germany and England toward the close of the last century. It is particularly wise to urge the class to find some explanation of the industrial regeneration of Germany; is it to be explained as a result of protection or German character, or is it a result of certain general industrial and commercial changes? In order to stimulate thought on this subject, some presentation of the larger aspects of industrial and commercial history must be included in the course.

Carrying out the idea of historical presentation of the problems, the subject of colonization is also most advisedly approached from the historical point of view. It is wise to concentrate attention upon the development of African colonization since 1885, but these events would have little meaning without some

brief sketch of the larger features of colonial policy in the earlier periods. The modern problem is so definitely a tropical problem that the study can be confined to the conditions created by European contacts with countries whose climate is unsuitable for the permanent settlement of Europeans. Many deny the existence of sincere and legitimate motives for the acquisition of dominion over tropical countries; it is therefore a matter of some moment to show that the principles of modern liberal statesmanship are really free from the taint of selfish pursuit of commercial interests. The errors of judgment and the too frequent abuses that creep into a weak administration make it somewhat difficult to place the development of sound principles in proper relief. Particular emphasis has been laid upon the history of the Congo, because it illustrates both the futility of many suggestions made by anticexpansionists and the substantial progress that was being made toward the establishment of a better system of colonial administration in the Tropics. The relation of the Berlin act to the Congo makes the study an essential basis for the discussion of the international settlement in other parts of central and northern Africa.

It is possible to present the larger features of these problems in a single semester, but experience has shown that it is impossible to do full justice to the subject in that length of time. The students, however, are likely to regard the subject as relatively special, and it might well be difficult to enlist their interests in a full year course until an academic tradition has been established. If it is desired to emphasize matters of information that would be of importance to persons preparing definitely for administrative or commercial work in the foreign field, it would be absolutely essential that a full year, at the very least, be given to these problems. It would be possible to make two courses, dealing respectively with tariffs and colonies, and, if vocational interests were predominant, the additional time would be of great value. Here at Cornell, students are required to take elementary economics before registering in other courses in the department; and, as freshmen are not allowed to elect elementary economics, students in the arts college can not take other courses until their junior year. The special courses in the department thus become upper-class courses. I believe that juniors have been more numerous than seniors in my course on world politics. Special information is not required, so that it is wholly practical to give the course to a mixed class of juniors and seniors; if the course were made part of a fixed curriculum it might well be given in the earlier years as it would tend to stimulate interest and habits of reflection.

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THE HISTORY OF EUROPE SINCE 1850 AS A STUDY PREPARATORY FOR FOREIGN SERVICE.

By St. George L. Sioussat,

Professor of History, University of Pennsylvania.

Recent years not only have brought about the active participation of the United States in the affairs of Europe, but also have stirred up in the mind of the average American a highly increased interest in European history. As one faces the problems of reconstructing the social order or tries to understand the causes of the World War, it is soon realized that the happenings of to-day can not be explained by the events merely of yesterday, and that the roots of the present lie deep in the past. One finds, moreover, that a deeper study is needed than that of the daily newspaper or the popular magazine before one can begin really to grasp the true explanations of present conditions. For those, therefore, who wish specially to prepare themselves for foreign service a knowledge of the history of Europe in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries must constitute an essential part of their intellectual equipment.

The problem of teaching or studying such a subject as this is chiefly a problem of the amount of time available. A survey of the subject may be attempted in a single college "course"; for advanced study and research a lifetime would be all too short. A single course, however, whether pursued in college or studied privately will serve to accomplish two ends; first, to outline the great topics that must be studied, and, secondly, to point the way to further study, through information as to books in the special subdivisions of the field. It is highly desirable that such a course on the period since 1850 should be preceded by a general course on the history of Europe before 1850, in order that an idea may be gained of the foundations of modern Europe. Otherwise much will have to be taken for granted.

We have spoken thus far of the value of the single outline course. But such a course, whether of a half-year or a whole year in length, will serve only as an introduction. With this the ambitious student will not rest content. He will see the necessity of greater thoroughness of preparation. Let us assume that after laying the foundations of a general education, and after mastering at least one foreign language, he will devote the last two years of college to a really adequate study of a more specialized character, and, if possible, will continue his work into some years of graduate study. For such a student there is open a choice of fields embarrassing in their richness and fascination. He will proceed to combine with theoretical treatment the historical approach to the great divisions of economic and social science.

First may be noted the importance of the geography and geology of the countries of Europe. Upon this basis rest the development of agriculture and the production of raw materials. Does farm ownership or farm tenancy prevail? Is the food supply sufficient? What are the export crops?

Another factor is that of population. Only through an historical approach can the racial animosities that threaten the peace of Europe be understood. What is the significance of the birth rate? What are the causes of emigration? To what extent do religious difficulties interfere with the orderly pursuit of life?

Closely allied is the labor question. What is the standard of living, and is this changing? How is labor organized? What theories or philosophies govern the labor class? The rise and development of the different types of socialism constitute a field for investigation the importance of which is still little appreciated by many business men in America.

Similarly the development and organization of manufactures must be studied. To what extent has the modern industrial system really penetrated Russia? How have the Germans so successfully invaded other countries in the development of manufacturing industries? What are the sources of capital? What is the status of the organization of industry? What is the attitude of the Government toward combinations of capital? What are the relations of capital and labor and how controlled by the Government?

In direct relation to all the preceding must be the study of transportation. What are the routes of commerce and what determines these? To what extent are internal waterways used? What is the history of the railroads, are they owned, operated, or controlled by the Government? What countries of Europe are under-developed in respect to railroads? What lessons can America learn from Europe?

No less important, indeed inextricably involved with the foregoing, is the matter of finance. In each country the matter of revenues and expenditures, the public debt, the taxes, the currency and banking systems, the institutions of credit, both commercial and agricultural, will be the cause of much anxious thought to the next generation. The question of tariffs will come in for new consideration.

To a greater extent than ever before will the problems of social betterment be in the forefront, such as the control of poverty, crime, and disease, and the development of insurance against old age, illness, and unemployment, the responsibility of the Government in the matter of finding employment, and vocational education.

Further, the student must learn from the history of Europe how the great peoples have governed themselves. The oldest of constitutional States, Great Britain, has seen during the war a most radical extension of the suffrage; just before the war it saw both a radical change in the position of the House of Lords and the enactment of a code of social reform the purport of which is yet hardly understood.

Finally, there must be studied the international relations of Europe; the unstable edifice of the "balance of power" that fell to pieces in 1914; the evolution and maintenance of the German military state, the preparations for defense against it, and the conflict of the alliances. Closely allied therewith is the problem of colonial administration and the conflict of rival imperial systems. The piling up of armaments and the problem of naval supremacy, and the efforts to arrive at a means of adjusting international differences without recourse to war that found expression in the Hague conferences, and the failure of such efforts, demand the study both of history and of international law.

Over and above the investigation of these content-subjects, the study of recent European history has to offer much that is valuable in the way of method. The penetrating student must master the use of statistics; he must examine the publishing activities of governments; he must know the location and the resources of great libraries and the publications of technical societies. He must look into the educational institutions and the educational methods of the states whose minds he would understand. Himself a trained man, he will discover the use of trained men in the service of the modern State.

Besides the great variety of subject matter that confronts one, one has to reckon also with the complexity that arises from the great number of the separate States of Europe. A selective process is necessary; one can follow a particular subject, such as the development of finance, throughout all Europe, or he can study many phases of the life of a single country. The important thing is to know something of the whole and to do thoroughly work in some restricted field. For such advanced study courses in history, government, international law, economics, and social science are offered by all the larger universities. Such advanced study will be most profitably pursued under the instruction of experts in the respective fields, who can advise also as to the proper correlation of elective courses to meet the needs of the particular student. The private student can do much, however, through intensive reading. For this he will need bibliographical aid. Such assistance will be obtained, at least by way of beginning, through reference to the carefully prepared lists of books which are included in each of the textbooks mentioned.

For the outline course on the period since 1850 several excellent textbooks are available, of which four may be mentioned as especially suitable.

Huzen, C. D. Europe since 1815. New York, Holt & Co., 1910. 830 p.
Hayes, C. J. H. A political and social history of modern Europe. Vol. 2. New York, Macmillan Co., 1916. 582 p.
Schapiro, J. S. Modern and contemporary European history. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.
Holt, L. H., *and* Chilton, A. W. The history of Europe from 1862 to 1914. New York, Macmillan Co., 1917.
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Of these the first and the last are stronger on the political side, while the second and third emphasize the economic and social factors. All of them, however, discuss the great topics that must be considered: The development of the separate nationalities of Europe, their rivalries and the "balance of power," national imperialism, the progress of industrialism and democracy. All except the first discuss the causes of the World War. For the special history of the war, in its various phases, there is a rapidly increasing mass of books, an excellent guide to which may be found in G. M. Dutcher's "A Selected Bibliography of Publications in English Relating to the World War"; in McKinley, A. E., "Collected Materials for the Study of the War," Philadelphia, McKinley Publishing Co., 1918, a compilation of high value to every student. Very full, but without any helpful critical comment, is "A Check List of the Literature and Other Material in the Library of Congress on the European War," Washington, Government Printing Office, 1918.

HISTORY OF THE LATIN-AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

By WILLIAM R. SHEPHERD,
Professor of History, Columbia University.

In many respects the rise and development of the nations of the New World which were formerly under the rule of Spain and Portugal are of great interest and value to the American student. They represent a type of civilization quite distinct from our own. They started upon their independent career substan-

tially without experience in self-government. To acquire it, they had to pass through a process of experimentation in political theories and practices which is unique of its kind. As a laboratory for the study of race problems, no part of the world is richer than the region of Latin America. In the great majority of the Republics the population is a blend of white, Indian, and Negro. The traits and customs inherited from the three ancestors must be understood and appreciated by Americans, if their relations with Latin Americans are to be productive of mutual advantage. From an economic standpoint, the southern countries have been lands of exploitation, rather than areas of settlement and development. Rich in natural resources, they have attracted a considerable amount of capital, but not immigration to anything like the extent required. How the several factors of national progress have operated in an environment so different from that of the United States offers a wide field of profitable inquiry.

When arranging any program of study, not only must all these points of variance from our own conditions, past and present, be borne in mind, but two notions prevalent among our people must be guarded against. One is, that the Latin-American republics should be viewed in a patronizing fashion as localities of scant importance. The other is, that since both they and the United States are situated in the Western Hemisphere and have republican forms of government, American standards of judgment should be applied to them. The subject, nevertheless, should be approached from the standpoint of the history of our own country, not in order to stress evidences of similarity, but to emphasize characteristics of essential unlikeness, and hence to ascertain how the two types of civilization may be adjusted beneficially to each other.

Assuming that the student has been thoroughly grounded in the history of the United States, the episodes in that history which suggest a possible connection with the course of events in Latin America should be utilized as vantage grounds from which the survey of the latter can be undertaken. Thus, for example, the condition of the Thirteen Colonies at the time of the American Revolution, and the later relations of the United States with Spain through the cession of Louisiana, would afford opportunity for a consideration of the circumstances of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies during the same period, with the idea of showing to what extent such circumstances were responsible for the subsequent overthrow of the control exercised by the mother countries concerned. Then, the fact that the United States became involved in the struggle between France and the other European powers from 1803 to 1815 supplies an easy transition to an examination of the relationship of France to Spain and Portugal, in its bearing upon the earlier phases of the wars of emancipation in Hispanic America. The Monroe doctrine, similarly, furnishes a nucleus about which the story of the rise of the independent republics could be woven. Following these indications, the Mexican War, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the Ostend manifesto, the Civil War, the "Virginius" affair, the Santo Domingan episode, the attempt at American interference in the Chilean-Peruvian War, the establishment of the "Pan American Conference," and the increasingly numerous points of contact between the United States and the Republics of Latin America since 1889, could all be treated as centers of departure for excursions into the intervening history of the Republics themselves.

For the purpose of collegiate instruction in the subject, the colonial period need be examined no further than to ascertain the general situation, political, economic, social, moral, and intellectual, in the Spanish and Portuguese dominions at the outbreak of the wars of emancipation. After a few introductory sessions devoted to this theme, the story of the national development of

the Latin-American Republics from about 1806 onward could be presented to advantage during a single semester of three periods a week, preferably in the first term of the junior year. If desired, it would be easy to expand the work so as to make it cover both terms. Given the existing state of the curriculum in most colleges, however, it would appear more serviceable to devote the second term to a study of contemporary Latin America.

In the excellent "Syllabus of Latin-American History," by Prof. William Whatley Pierson (University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, 1917), there are several books cited, any one of which might be used as a convenient manual for the course. It would be advisable, nevertheless, for the teacher to prepare an outline of those phases of the history of the United States, already indicated, which could be employed as actual points of departure. The syllabus in question would supply the topics needed for Latin America. In addition to these, it furnishes a working list of the more available books and articles for reading and reference, covering both history and present conditions.

Since 19—or if Haiti be included, 20—countries are involved in any general survey of Latin America, and since among them 18 have a Spanish origin, it might be desirable, after dealing with the period of the wars of emancipation, to take up in more or less detail the history of certain typical countries in the Spanish group, rather than attempt to handle them all. The list chosen should comprise the republics in and west of the Caribbean Sea, with which the United States from time to time has come into closest contact, and a number of the South American nations as well. In the former, Cuba, Mexico, and the Central American republics viewed practically as a group; in the latter, Argentina, Chile, either Venezuela or Colombia, and either Peru or Bolivia, could be selected to represent the Spanish-American countries. The history of Brazil, of course, must be studied, not only because of its intrinsic importance, but because it deals with the Portuguese element in the evolution of Hispanic America.

THE STUDY OF THE HISTORY OF THE NEAR EAST AND NORTHERN AFRICA.

By ARTHUR I. ANDREWS,

Professor of History and Public Law, Tufts College.

The Near East comprises Turkey, including Constantinople, Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, and Armenia; the Balkan States, including Greece; the Caucasus, Persia, Egypt, and northern Africa. Russia must also have some consideration. This is the Mohammedan East, past and present; a Mohammedan world, sometimes united but more often as divided against itself as is the Christian world. For centuries now Mohammedanism has been the one most constant factor and element of this Near East. Every factor, however, must be taken into account, political, economic, social, historical, racial, religious, in the case of every nationality. The student preparing for foreign trade must systematize his study in every way possible and assign an amount of time to each commensurate with its relative importance.

The first of these factors is the purely historical. Nowhere in the world does the historical background count for more than in the Near East. The prestige of history is what sustained the Turk in power. The episodes of Serbian, Bulgarian, Roumanian, Georgian, and Armenian history which these nationalities cherish, they cherish with a tenacity that we must appreciate, if we are to understand them and their interests. Possibly most important of all are the Greek traditions which have shaped the policies of Greek rulers, kings, or ministers. It

is not too much to say that the Greek and the Armenian, the Serb, the Bulgar, and the Georgian, and finally, most emphatically, the Turk owed their social, industrial, and economic status very largely to the current of history that swept them together the way it did.

The geographical factor can easily be underestimated in considering the history of as well as the conditions of the Near East. The student must know the arrangement of mountain and river valleys in the Balkan Peninsula, the distribution of seas, Red, Mediterranean, Aegean, Black, and Caspian; of gulfs like the Persian and of straits like the Dardanelles and Bosporus; of the river valleys of Mesopotamia and Egypt and of the Caucasus Mountains, the Armenian Plateau, the mountain ridges of Asia Minor, the Balkans and the Carpathians; all these physical features have influenced and will influence economic, social, and political conditions.

Third, the economic resources of the Near East are vastly greater than is generally understood. The variety of products, as well as the quantity of production, have made it the seat of empires and long ago fastened upon it the eyes of imperial dreamers in Berlin as well as in Petrograd and elsewhere. The story of Turkish dominion in western Asia reveals the reason for the backwardness of the development of these resources, mineral and agricultural.

Most complicated of all the factors is the racial. From the Balkans to the Caucasus, from the Black to the Red Sea, the mixture of races is like unto that in no other part of the globe. The Caucasus region has its peculiar problems, shared only partially with the eastern Asian tablelands or the Mesopotamian region. Second only to the Caucasus, the Balkan peninsula presents differences of race the most complicated and here, of course, such differences are the more important from the fact that the Balkans are at the front door of Europe, not in a corner distant from civilization but vitally affecting the whole of Europe, while similar conditions in the Caucasus or in eastern Asia Minor might go on, as history has demonstrated, from bad to worse without seriously interfering with European affairs.

The religious factor is by no means the least important. The Christian element is found in every quarter and so is the Mohammedan. Even in Mesopotamia, along the upper reaches of the rivers, are the Nestorians; and, on the other hand, the Mohammedan element in the Balkans and in the Caucasus needs consideration. It will not do, moreover, to stop with any superficial distinctions. It may make a very great difference politically whether the tribe or nation which you call Mohammedan is Sunni or Shiah, or whether a people are Greek Christians, Armenian, or Georgian, especially in Asia Minor.

A possible division (the figures appended suggest relative weight) of such a course based upon 90 lecture periods might conceivably be as indicated below:

(4) Ancient empires and civilizations (before Alexander the Great).
(3) Greek influence in the Near East.
(2) Roman influence in the Near East.
(3) The Byzantine Empire.
(6) Islam and the Arab conquests.
(20) The Turkish Empires.
(18) The Balkan peoples.
(2) Egypt in modern times.
(7) Austria-Hungary and the Near East.
(13) Russia and the Near East.
(5) Northern Africa.
(9) The Near East as a focus of international relations.

Something should be said to bring out the salient facts concerning the great empires of antiquity whose seat was the Mesopotamian and Egyptian river valleys, a word about the Greek penetration under Alexander and his successors,

and another concerning the influence of Rome. A brief study of the Byzantine civilization should be followed by a sufficiently clear exposition of Mohammedanism and its influence upon the peoples accepting it. There should be a more intensive investigation of Turkish institutions, the development of the Ottoman Empire and a most thorough study of the origins of the Armenians and Georgians, the Balkan peoples and the Balkan States. The connection of the European powers with the peoples of the Near East, involving some excursions into European diplomacy, should be patiently unfolded. Up to about 1700, Constantinople was the center of power; since then it has been the center of intrigue. Up to then, from the Bosporus had gone out the word of law eastward and westward, northward and southward. Since then, the radiating lines point *toward* the Bosporus from London, Paris, Vienna, Berlin, and Petrograd. These interests, economic as well as political, of each European State, including those of the Balkans, in any quarter of the Near East need to be set forth and amply explained to the full comprehension of all students.

Under these topics should be considered the economic as well as the political conditions, the trade routes of Christian and Mohammedan, the resources, agricultural, mineral, etc., of various sections during each important period. Probably the geographical factor would be taken up first, but it must also be referred to repeatedly as the trade conditions and productivity of each section need to be noted. The diplomatic factor grows in strength as the course works down into the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. No course of this kind could be complete if it did not bring out the economic and political reasons why the Near East has been the hotbed of so many European wars.

The history of the Near East and Africa can be covered properly in a minimum of one year (two semesters) of three hours a week of lectures, supplemented by outside reading. The presentation of the subject should be a proper compromise between the chronological and the topical, with increasing emphasis upon the later periods. Preferably it should come in the junior or senior year of college work, since the new environment, new names, new races, new conditions are apt to appall the less mature student. Such a course might in some colleges be combined with one in Russian history and institutions, but this is to cramp both subjects. Russian history should be studied intensively, of course, by any students of the Near East. Then, again, it should be preceded by one course at least in general European history, and, if possible, by a course in European governments. Such a strong European background is absolutely essential. Courses in transportation, commerce, government, modern languages, and the like might profitably be pursued simultaneously with one on the history of the Near East, to mutual advantage.

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THE FAR EAST AND AUSTRALASIA.

By PAYSON J. TREAT.

Professor of History, Leland Stanford, Jr., University.

The traveler or sojourner in a foreign land will profit from his visit in proportion to his preparation to make the most of his opportunity. The man who knows nothing about the people with whom he comes in contact, their history, the rise and development of their institutions, will move among them as it were with a film over his eyes. And in no part of the world is it more important for the American business man or Government official to be familiar with the life of the people than in the Far East. Because we possess a European civilization we find much that is easily intelligible as we travel in Europe, in South America, or in Africa, where all the lands are under European control. Moreover, in high school and college the history of European States is offered to the students. But in Eastern Asia, as well as in Turkey and Egypt, the American comes in contact with ancient civilizations which present few points of contact with his own, except in so far as they have been modified in the recent years of European intercourse. In India and Indo-China, the East Indies, China and Japan, the American can not interpret native life in terms of his western experience. He must know something of the history of the people and their civilization. This can be obtained best through study. Rarely does a man on the ground have time for thoughtful reading, although he acquires a mass of detailed information through experience. It should be the duty of the American college to offer instruction which may help such students as enter the foreign trade or the Government service to understand the new environment in which they must serve.

Australasia presents a far simpler problem. There, in Australia and New Zealand, the American finds a purely British people engaged in mastering a continent, as the people of the United States and Canada have done and are doing. The civilization is British, modified by certain local natural conditions. The history of the people is economic and social rather than military and political. The American who knows English history and is familiar with modern social and industrial progress can easily follow the development of the British people of Australasia.

A college course in these fields, designed to meet the needs of Americans who are to serve abroad, may be worked out in several ways. A program, which has been in use for 14 years, is much as follows. The countries of Asia, from the Indus River to Bering Straits, are treated in one course, and Australasia in another and much briefer one. In the former course, a brief historical back-

ground, with reference to the development of the political, economic, social, and religious ideas of the people, is presented. Then, in connection with the European possessions in the Far East—India, Indo-China, Netherlands India, Siberia—a careful study is made of the way in which the conquest or occupation was effected. This calls for a special study of the rise of the British Empire in India. In dealing with the independent states of China, Japan, and Siam, the emphasis is placed upon the events since the establishment of treaty relations and open commerce with those nations in the middle of the nineteenth century. As the discussion advances into the more modern period, the consideration becomes more detailed. Special emphasis is laid upon the development of foreign rights under successive treaties, and upon the growth of foreign trade. The course will need a certain amount of readjustment every year in order to allow for a consideration of the most recent events, such as, for example, the Sino-Japanese negotiations, the Far East in the World War, the Lansing-Ishii notes, and the Washington conference.

Such a course should be offered primarily for upper classmen. The student will profit most from it who has taken courses in European and American history and can correlate events in east and west. A study of unfamiliar peoples, customs, and institutions, calls for a certain maturity of judgment which a freshman rarely enjoys. As a preparation for foreign service, it should be taken as near the close of the college course and the beginning of overseas employment as possible.

A course, as outlined, should be allowed at least three hours a week for two semesters, or five hours a week for two quarters. If it is desirable to confine the consideration to eastern Asia alone, omitting India, Malaya, and the East Indies; then one semester or one quarter would suffice. But if thought is given to the vastness of the area to be covered, the many States and peoples, the two great civilizations with which the average student has had no contact whatever, and the potential importance of eastern Asia in the future, then as much time will be given to this subject as to any of the major courses in history offered by the institution.

In the case of Australasia, a two-hour course for a semester, or three hours for a quarter, would suffice. This would give time for a study of the history of the two regions, and for a study of the political, economic, and social life of the people to-day.

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POLITICAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

By FREDERIC L. PAXSON,
Professor of History, University of Wisconsin.

For practical use in the field of foreign trade and business the background of American history must include two main groups of facts, (1) the underlying historical ideals that form the basis of political discussion, and (2) the application, during the last half century, of these ideals to the changing world in which we find ourselves. It is not possible to understand the present without constant recurrence to the ideas and events of the last three centuries; and it is equally impracticable to use to immediate advantage the history of the United States prior to 1877 unless the connecting links between that year and the present are clearly seen.

The history of the colonial period and the constitutional period to the close of the Civil War presents a picture without a parallel of a people reduced to the simplest terms, pushing their organized life across a continent, and striving in their agencies of government to meet the problems raised by their daily existence. The big problems that were met and solved were those of—

(1) A practicable freedom; for farmers working alone, or in small groups, were free in fact, and there was neither existing power to bring them into subordination nor desire on their part to surrender liberties.

(2) A basis for representation, in solving which they had no option but to dwell upon the equal rights of similar areas or groups in determining their common destiny; and which forced them to drift away from any workable basis that the British Empire could understand.

(3) A compromise between local freedom and central control, which was reached when the 13 colonies formed themselves into a Federal Republic of enumerated powers.

Democracy, representation, and federation, as thus enumerated, contribute all the basic ideas to the history of the United States. On top of these, the colonial period takes its true proportions, giving the opportunity for democracy to take shape in the wilderness and ripen into self-consciousness.

The American Revolution in its relation to representation has always been regarded as a consequence of the different experiences of the British peoples astride the Atlantic. We are now coming to see in it more and more of the reaction of frontier democrats against a society whose doors were nearly closed and whose social layers had become stiff and impermeable. The democratic revolutions that elected Jefferson in 1800 and Jackson in 1828 were only repetitions of the original concussion that rent the British Empire.

The growth of a National Government in America between its inauguration in 1789 and its survival in the Civil War provides the details for the study of federalism. In a simple people the place of any Federal Government was necessarily that of judge and soldier and tax collector. The really important personal matters were local in character; and just as our colonists detested taxation without representation, their border-state grandchildren disliked to be subordinated to absentee control. The States' rights principle came to them at this point, and for 80 years we see a gradual evolution, as society became more and ever more complex and as relationships became too broad to be controlled by any State.

Before the death of John Marshall the law had been provided for as broad an extension of national powers as necessity might dictate. Slavery and territorial control, and land and railways then proceeded to dictate that necessity, until at last the balance was swung, in the sixties, from a Federal Government prevailingly local in emphasis to a National Government encroaching of necessity upon local powers.

In the groups of facts related to these processes we find the whole vocabulary of political debate in America. No American trader, at home or abroad, can call himself informed unless he understands these facts in their correct settings and relationships. Nor can he use his information to best advantage unless he sees, in much greater detail, the steps by which the new Nation has broadened its ramifications since the Civil War, though ever preserving its organic connection with the fundamentals of democracy, representation, and federalism. The whole world to-day can have from this phase of our history more that is full of promise for international reconstruction than it can from all the rest of history.

In the 40 years just past an industrial society has replaced an agricultural, bringing with the change alterations in kind and quality that are not yet appreciated. Freedom has ceased to be a matter of little law, or none, as Jefferson wanted it, and has become a matter of much law and wise law. In a crowded world the right to be free is matched by the rights of others to be let alone. The police power has arisen to abridge rights that ran unquestioned in the open farms. Our States have been made over in the process of meeting these needs, while the National Government has unfolded power after power.

Political history must deal with new varieties of facts because of these changes in the nature of government and can not be prevented from taking on an economic and social aspect. The tariff, the currency, banking, railroad and corporation control, and social legislation have all crowded into the halls of internal politics, while the subject-matter of international relations has become each year more completely a problem of trade relationships.

The American abroad needs to know the relation of his country to all those currents. He needs to see how a tariff in the United States, perhaps, may curtail an export business in a neighbor country and by reducing its people to indigence cut off their buying power so greatly as to stop their imports from a second neighbor, whereby, through the double cessation of trade, a third power

may find its ships lying empty and unneeded at its docks and its shipyards no longer able to buy the steel and iron of the American miners. The world has become complex—so complex that only an historical interpretation, reinforced by all that economics and sociology and political science can add, can hope to clear its tangles. But now, as never before, there is the hope that in the next generation the world will meet its problems with science and sincerity, and may find in our history some clue to the interactions of jealous autonomy and common interest, of private freedom and public efficiency, that may make it easier to promote the next great step toward international cooperation.

For general reference purposes in American political history there is no better guide than A. B. Hart's The American Nation, A History. In the 28 volumes of this cooperative work may be found not only the essential facts of history, but useful classified bibliographies on all important topics. For class use the four small volumes in the Riverside History of the United States, by Profs. Becker, Johnson, Dodd, and Paxson, cover and interpret the whole period. Useful textbooks for the period since the Revolution are C. R. Fish's National Development, and F. L. Paxon's Recent American History. With these works as a base it is possible to conduct the course in American history at any place in the college course, but with particular advantage later than the freshman year. In many universities general American history is a basic course for sophomores. If two years can be given to the subject, the second course may well be restricted to recent American history and come in the senior year. For the best advantage at any point the course or courses must be thoroughly coordinated with the basic courses in political economy and government.

COMPARATIVE POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS AND POLITICAL HISTORY OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

By FREDERIC A. OGG.
Professor of Political Science, University of Wisconsin.

That persons preparing for employment in foreign trade should be familiar with the political systems of the principal nations and with modern political history is eminently desirable; for admission to the foreign service of the Government such training is indispensable. Obviously there are here two subjects: (1) Comparative government and (2) political history. Under the severest limitations that can be adopted, both are, in subject matter, very extensive; and, although interrelated, they may be taught to best advantage separately.

Instruction in comparative government should be based upon, or be so planned as to convey, a thorough understanding of the political institutions of the United States. State and local government call for relatively little attention. But the Federal Government must be known in detail—the nature and limitations of its powers, the processes and effects of legislation, the operation of the courts, and especially the organization and workings of the administrative system. The treatment of the subject in the usual courses in civics in the secondary schools will not suffice. On the legal and administrative sides particularly, the candidate must carry his study considerably further.

Grounded in American Government, the student must be made familiar with the political institutions of other nations. What foreign Governments will be studied must depend somewhat on the amount of time available. The English Government must, of course, be included. The French and German systems are hardly less important. The political scientist pays much attention to the Swiss

system, but for purposes of foreign trade and foreign service the native land of the initiative and the referendum may be largely ignored. The Italian, Dutch, and Scandinavian Governments can be surveyed very briefly. And a small amount of time should be reserved for Japan and Latin America.

The study of these Governments should be primarily descriptive, but with a good deal of comparison. The first requisite is that each political system shall be understood as an entity—its origins and growth (briefly), the structure of the executive, legislative, and judicial machinery, the divisions and limitations of powers, current problems of reform or reorganization, the character and influence of political parties. Wherever comparisons can accurately be drawn, they are likely to prove illuminating. The composition of legislative bodies, the working of cabinet systems, the control of the central authorities over local government, the suffrage, committee systems—these and many other things can advantageously be viewed on comparative lines.

The field of political history is so enormous that it becomes a matter of considerable difficulty to mark off the portions that are most essential to students of the type under consideration. A working knowledge of the general history of the United States must be assumed. Beyond this, the principal need is familiarity with the political history of modern Europe. If the student can be given systematic instruction in European history from the period of the rise of the modern nations, so much the better. But at any rate his studies must cover European national and international developments since the era of Napoleon, and, with special fullness, since the Franco-German War. He should be familiar with the main currents of domestic history of at least a half-dozen of the leading nations, and with the larger phases of diplomatic and military history. He can not be too well informed on the national policies, the party programs, the great pieces of legislation, the industrial and commercial methods and achievements, of the decade preceding the World War; and it does not require argument that he should know the history of the war, and of its reactions upon national conditions and policies, in all of their more striking phases. Outside of the European field, the political history most worth giving time to is that of the Far East (especially China and Japan) and that of Latin America, chiefly the "A. B. C. Powers."

The most desirable allotment of time for the two subjects of comparative government and political history is a year to each, that is, a year course, with not fewer than three class exercises a week. Next to this would be a year for political history and a half-year for government. After this, a half-year for each subject. Finally, it is possible to handle the two subjects together, in a year course or, in what must be a painfully inadequate fashion, in a half-year course. A combination course would, presumably, be in the main political history, with parenthetic surveys of the important governmental systems. Whatever the time given these subjects, the courses should be taken only after the student has attained a fair degree of maturity, normally by persons in the junior and senior years of our college and universities.

No single method of presentation is under all circumstances to be preferred. A judicious combination of lectures and class discussion (with frequent written exercises) is likely, in most cases, to give best results. Whatever the method in the classroom, much stress must be placed on the student's reading and study. Approximately half of this reading should take the form of definite requirements made of all students in the course; the remainder should be selected by the student, in accordance with his interests and tastes, from books and other materials recommended by the instructor. There is much advantage in requiring each student to make an intensive study of a comparatively small but important topic, with a view to a written report or thesis.

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DIPLOMATIC HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

By Carl Russell Fish,

Professor of American History, University of Wisconsin.

The importance of the study of the diplomatic history of the United States, in training for a career in foreign commerce is obvious, for what is our

diplomacy but the dealing of Americans with foreigners? Exactly the same problems of differing national characteristics and points of view have confronted our diplomats, as daily confront our merchants. The same principles, the same methods, mean success for the one, as for the other.

Nor is it probable that the subject need be handled in any special way for students intending to go into foreign trade. The fundamental principles of bargaining by men responsible to others are always the same. The nearer one gets to what is fundamental in agency, and the handling of unfamiliar sensibilities, and the harmonizing of conflicting interests, the nearer one gets to what is valuable to any man engaged on the mercantile side of business, foreign or domestic, and the nearer one gets to what is fundamental in diplomatic history.

One distinctive advantage of diplomatic history over other fields for teaching purposes is that the actual human handling of cases can be studied with greater minuteness. We can see men actually about the council table, can follow the argument as it goes backward and forward, and often know what the contestants thought about when they went home that night. This is an opportunity which one can not afford to miss, and the purpose of the teacher should not be a smooth, proportioned survey of the whole. Of course there are facts that all should know, and general tendencies are of the essence of the thing taught. In spots, however, there should be enough time and emphasis to bring out every detail of the picture, while connections and setting may be impressionistically sketched in, provided that one remembers that impressionism is art and not chaos.

The effort should be made to so select the leading episodes as to show Americans in negotiation with a variety of nationalities. Individuality must not be neglected, for its importance and the importance of a man's knowing himself, and adopting the method suited to his personality, can not be overemphasized. Yet characteristics that are prevailingly American, or Spanish, or Japanese, can be made strikingly apparent, and are permanently a factor.

Naturally, diplomatic encounters should be so handled as to bring out as far as possible the permanent relationships between the United States and the several nations of the world, for in most cases the causes of diplomacy are the causes of business. Of course this is not always the case, for much business flows without producing any international commotion. Consequently, careful attention should be given to the structure of ordinary diplomatic relationships, the working and changes of our State Department and diplomatic and consular services, through which this stream of noncontentious intercourse is kept smooth. On the other hand, many sensational diplomatic episodes that filled the press for a time may be scantily mentioned or altogether neglected, if they proceed from purely accidental cause. Yet enough such cases should be handled to show that accident, or apparent accident, has significance.

A course in diplomatic history should not be a course in international law, but it involves a familiarity with it, and an understanding of its fundamental principles, in much the same way as does the life of a merchant dealing with foreign countries.

Personally I began by giving an all-year course of two hours a week. This ran over the whole field of our diplomacy. In the revolutionary period emphasis was centered on diplomatic method; in the period of the Napoleonic and Civil Wars, on international law. The clash of unconscious national tendencies was brought out in connection with the expansion of American territory, particularly between 1830 and 1860. The Monroe doctrine and its corollaries make a logical story about which to unfold the course of American policy, and our modern Caribbean and Far Eastern policies form a transition from the old to the new.

With the beginning of the recent war I have treated the subject in a three-hour, one-semester course, leaving out the expansion movement, and devoting the whole time to the technique of diplomacy and evolution of American policy.

It has been my experience that the subject matter of the course, the handling of legal concepts, long-continued policies, and particularly the fundamentals of human contact in negotiation, make it too advanced for sophomores. Juniors and seniors succeed according to their ability. On the other hand, maturity is relatively more important than special training, and I have not found that students without historical background are under any greater disadvantage than they are in any advanced course.

A course in diplomatic history is best given by lectures, textbooks, and occasional quizzes. If the lecturer tries to give all the tissue of connecting incident, it takes up so much time that there is not sufficient opportunity for interpretation. On the other hand a textbook can scarcely give the detail necessary to get the full value from the personal side of the negotiations. Without quizzes, the precision of conception necessary to appreciate the legal points is not apt to develop. The student also should have an opportunity to use the sources. Almost any collegiate library contains the basic government documents, and the works and lives of the leading American diplomats, such as Franklin, Jay, the Adamses, Seward, and Hay, as well as some foreigners. No one should be allowed to escape some contact with these men.

Two popular misconceptions have tended in the past to cause the public to neglect our diplomatic history. In the first place, most men of present-day affairs have long held the belief that our foreign relations have been without coherence or significance. A moment's thought should convince them that events at least must have had a trend, and that of infinite significance to our everyday life. A little study will convince them that the ablest men of the Nation united their wisdom to form a logical policy for dealing with our international relationships; that not only have our foreign relations been vital to us, but we have had a diplomatic record of which to be proud.

The second reason for our neglect to study this aspect of our life has been because Americans have lived convinced that we had full employment for our energies at home and should so employ them. The very fact of our lack of interest in our national diplomacy has a close relationship to our failure in the past to grasp our full commercial opportunities in other lands. Interest in and knowledge of the one is largely dependent upon that of the other, and a study of our foreign relations and the development of our foreign trade logically should go hand in hand.

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This is necessary. The annual volumes of Foreign relations can be secured by anyone. American State papers, Foreign relations, covering the years 1789 to 1828, are an inexhaustible mine for topic work.

Contemporary and Foreign Material.

The American yearbook and the International yearbook present most of the more obvious facts year by year. The Annual register gives similar material for earlier years. Of course, no serious study can be made without the documents of other countries, but undergraduate instruction may be given without them.

Personal Material.

The use of the writings and lives of American and foreign statesmen is indispensable, but the work may be adjusted to the material available. The Writings of Benjamin Franklin; the Memoirs of J. Q. Adams; Frederic Bancroft's Life of W. H. Seward (New York, Harper & Bros., 1899, 2 vols.); C. F. Adams's Life of C. F. Adams (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916); and Thayer's Life of John Hay (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915), are especially recommended.

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THE FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

By JOHN H. LATANÉ,

Professor of American History, Johns Hopkins University.

"A democracy which undertakes to control its own foreign relations ought to know something about the subject."—ELIHU ROOT.

Prior to the Spanish War and the acquisition of the Philippines only casual attention was given by the American public to the foreign relations of the United States. The Monroe doctrine defined our Latin-American policy, while the tradition of isolation had been so rigidly adhered to that we gave little heed to what was going on in other parts of the world. The threatened partition of China, the announcement of the open-door policy, and the participation of American troops in the relief expedition to Peking in 1900 brought us for the first time into the full current of world politics. Our diplomacy, which had hitherto been concerned exclusively with American questions, now became exceedingly complex; and our historic policy of isolation, still cherished as a tradition, ceased to correspond with the actualities of international relations. Our entrance into the World War in 1917 was the natural and inevitable consequence of our position as a world power interested in the same degree with other powers in matters which concern the peace and welfare of the community of nations. Questions of foreign policy will undoubtedly be among the most vital issues of the future, and the study of our foreign relations must be given a place in the curriculum of every American college and university.

The whole subject of American history needs to be taught in a broader way, so as to be brought into more vital relation with world history. The method hitherto employed of treating it solely from the American point of view, as a

detached and isolated subject, has helped to accentuate our feeling of political isolation and has made us to a greater or less degree blind to the duties imposed upon us by membership in the community of civilized nations. But a change in viewpoint and method in the general courses in American history, while highly desirable, is not alone sufficient. Diplomatic history, in order to receive scientific treatment, must be taught in a separate course. It must not be presented, after the manner of certain even recent textbooks, as a collection of interesting incidents. It is a subject which is capable of being treated systematically, and it can be taught to advantage only in close connection with the subject of international law.

There is a difference of opinion as to whether international law or diplomacy should come first in the college curriculum. International law furnishes the principles, and diplomacy the incidents and cases. Diplomatic history should, therefore, if the inductive method is to be followed, either come first or be accompanied by a course in international law. The course in diplomacy should be preceded by a course in American history. In most college courses American history comes as an elective in the third or fourth year. If courses in diplomatic history and international law are to be introduced, American history should fall in the third year, and diplomacy and international law in the fourth. In the fourth year two arrangements are possible; parallel courses in diplomacy and international law running throughout the year, or, if time can not be found for two courses, then a course in diplomacy during the first half-year and a course in international law during the second half-year.

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CONTEMPORARY INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

By Amos S. Hershey,

Professor of Political Science and International Law, Indiana University.

The study of international relations deserves much more attention in our universities, colleges, and even in the public schools than it has hitherto received. Prior to the outbreak of the World War, instruction along these lines was so scant as to be scarcely worth mentioning. Hence our profound ignorance of the causes of the struggle and of the issues involved. In the public schools problems of foreign policy like the Monroe doctrine may have received some consideration in the course on American history, but they were dealt with in strictly historical fashion, and it is to be feared that there was little discussion of present-day problems or tendencies. It is possible that questions of international interest were occasionally discussed in connection with current events, but necessarily in a fragmented and superficial manner.

In our colleges, and even in our universities, conditions were not much better. Frequently a course in international law was given, but, speaking relatively, in only a few of our universities have advanced or more complete courses in this important subject been offered. Courses in American diplomatic history have usually formed a part of the university curriculum, but little attention has been paid to European diplomatic history or to our relations with the Far East. Consequently, the ignorance of even the educated American public has been much greater on international than on domestic questions.

Since the outbreak of the World War there has been some slight improvement in respect to the study of international relations. At least courses on the "causes of the war" have come into vogue, and instructors in European history seem to be more alive than formerly to the importance of the period since 1870.

Nevertheless, there appears even yet to be a very inadequate understanding of the importance and scope of international relations. It does not seem to be clearly realized that international law forms a relatively small field in the far vaster area of international relations, where motives of policy and national interest are apt to prevail rather than standards based upon legal or ethical conceptions.

The writer is also convinced that our so-called knowledge of international relations usually rests upon too narrow a basis, or is derived too exclusively from official or diplomatic sources. Official documents are excellent material in their way, if properly interpreted. They are, indeed, indispensable, though not always trustworthy. But they only furnish keys to a few of the doors which we wish to open.

A knowledge of international relations should be based upon a study of realities, a proper sense of which is often strangely lacking in diplomatists. The great modern journalists are often much safer guides.

Ideally speaking, the student of international relations should have both a comprehensive and intimate knowledge of all nations and peoples, including, of course, his own. His first need, perhaps, would be an insight into the national psychology of the peoples or nations he is studying. Then he should have a knowledge of their intellectual as well as material resources, their trade relations, their history, industrial and political systems, etc.

But since "art is long and time is fleeting," the student must perforce content himself with a more modest program. He will perhaps do well, at first at least, to confine himself largely to a study of national policies like those of the Monroe doctrine or the "Open door," to international problems like those of sea power or the freedom of the seas, and to the causes of war, with a view to discovering remedies or preventives. The most essential knowledge of all relates to national interests and policies and to our relations with our real friends and neighbors.

Too much stress should not be laid upon mere geographical contiguity or continental isolation. Thus, our relations with the A. B. C. powers (Argentina, Brazil, and Chile) are important, but not as important as are our relations with Canada, the countries of western Europe, or with the peoples bordering on the American Mediterranean, i. e., the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea.

As an illustration of the courses which might be offered, attention may perhaps be called to the work in contemporary international relations offered at Indiana University during the past few years.

Since the outbreak of the World War an imperfect attempt has been made to fill in to some extent this great gap in our curriculum. In addition to the former course in international law, there have been offered courses on "The causes of the war," "European international relations," "Problems of the Far East," "Problems of American foreign policy," "Our relations with Latin America," and "America and the war."

As to scope and method of treatment, it may be said that two or three hours during a semester have usually been given to each subject. Naturally, there is an almost complete lack of textbooks. The lecture method of instruction, if used exclusively, is neither practicable nor desirable. Consequently, if the classes are not too large, the seminary method of study and instruction seems best adapted to the situation. The student is given assigned readings and reports, and these assignments are made the basis of discussion in the classroom. To insure logical arrangement, outlines of the reports should always be written on the blackboard. At the end of the semester a thesis (with outline, bibliography, and marginal footnotes) on some particular topic may be required. An intensive as well as extensive knowledge of the subject is thus obtained. The members of the class as a whole should be required to purchase at least one book, and, if possible, several books, which should serve as a basis for general study and discussion.

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THE STUDY OF AMERICAN DIPLOMACY, TREATIES, AND FOREIGN POLICY.

By A. B. HART.
Professor of Government, Harvard University.

Two types of learners come to drink at the Castilian fount of diplomatic procedure and history—the man who studies by himself, and the man who has the opportunity of systematic advanced instruction. The approach to the desired goal necessarily differs in the two cases. The college man is piloted from the beginning to the end of his voyage; the self-worker can accomplish nothing unless he has the propelling power necessary to drive him through written materials and discussions, and the habit of putting his results together in a consecutive and logical form. He must somehow get into his mind, for himself, an analysis of the subject with which he is dealing.

This is a hard task without some sort of preliminary guidance. The best way to begin is on a systematic book, not too technical, dealing with international law, such as A. S. Hershey, Essentials of International Law; or Wilson and Tucker, International Law; or T. J. Lawrence, Principles of International Law; or W. E. Hall, International Law. It is a good practice to go through such a book, pencil in hand, underlining significant words and phrases and setting down comments and queries in the margin.

The American student is bound to take special account of the principles adopted and applied by the State Department and by American jurists. He needs, therefore, to be acquainted with the leading cases, particularly those of the Federal Supreme Court. Convenient material is now provided in the handy collections of select cases particularly Cobbett, Cases and Opinions on International Law; J. B. Scott, Cases; L. B. Evans, Cases. Many important topics may be found in the Cyclopedia of American Government (use the cross references).

One of the main materials for international law is treaties; and the standard edition of United States treaties edited by W. M. Malloy, in two volumes, and the additional volume edited by G. Charles, are easily available.

For the Diplomatic Service a knowledge of American diplomatic history is of course indispensable. The student who is working by himself should therefore read with care and attention diplomatic stories of America, of which C. R. Fish, American Diplomacy, is the best for the purpose, inasmuch as it is written with broad knowledge and appreciation of the student's needs and difficulties. This may be supplemented by reading the diplomatic chapters in The American Nation, a history which in the twenty-seventh volume of text brings the narrative down to 1917. Nearly every volume contains chapters on diplomatic history, which taken together make a consecutive narrative. An absolutely indispensable parallel volume is J. W. Foster, Practice of Diplomacy, which is based on the author's long experience as a diplomat.

More detailed studies of particular questions in international law and of specific episodes in American diplomatic history can readily be found through the brief articles in the Cyclopedia of American Government and their references; and through Channing, Hart, and Turner, Guide to the Study and Reading of American History, with elaborate bibliography of the earlier and especially recent diplomatic problems. A. B. Hart's Foundations of Foreign Policy includes a list of authorities in American diplomacy down to 1901. In A. B. Hart, American History, Diplomacy, and Government, will be found at sections 64–95 a set of 30 topics, with brief outlines and specific references; also at sections 166–195, a set of 30 special topics with more elaborate references.

The young man who has the opportunity of college and university courses in international law and diplomacy has the broader opportunity of fitting his work in with other fields, in a sequence of formal courses. The first necessity—this applies also to the self-preparing young man—is good grounding in English composition, including the declining art of spelling. The ordinary processes of arithmetic are useful to any public official, and a thorough knowledge of geography, physical and political, is essential. Somewhere in the course should come a study of French, Spanish, and German sufficient to enable the student to read books and newspapers in those languages with ease; and also to possess a speaking knowledge of at least one. It is of prime importance that the future consul and diplomat should be able to understand what the other fellows are doing.

Of course, the future diplomat will make himself familiar with the history of Europe and of the United States, so as to know what has been going on in the big world of which diplomats take notice; and so as to trace the development of international law and the difficult present questions of territory, trade, colonization, and national influence. Excellent instruction for reader and student are C. D. Hazen, French Revolution, and Europe since 1815, or Carlton Hayes, Political and Social History of Modern Europe; J. S. Bassett, United States, adds special courses on Russia, Latin America, and the Orient, fields in which future diplomacy is likely to be particularly vivid.

A formal course in international law, should come in the second or third year of a college course, on top of and alongside the narrative historical courses. A good parallel is a course in American constitutional law or in comparative government. Later in the college course the student must take advanced and special courses in international law and diplomatic history. He should not fail to study the history of trade and commerce. At least one systematic course in economics should be taken.

In these courses, especially those on international law and diplomacy, the student should do abundant written work. Nothing is more useful to a public man than facility in getting up and clearly presenting information on a specific subject. It is very desirable to write at least one elaborate thesis on some one topic in American diplomacy requiring the application of principles of international law.

All this class work should be supplemented by good private reading in history, government, and diplomacy. Read lives of practical diplomats, such as William H. Seward and John Hay, and reminiscences of men like John W. Foster and Andrew D. White, to reveal the inner workings of the State Department and the embassies.

The self-teacher and the university man alike must form the habit of bringing themselves to book, by making brief abstracts of the volumes that they handle, by framing outlines of important subjects with which they deal; by submitting six such examinations and tests as are possible; by trying to bring together into one group their remembrances and thoughts, so that whatever they may read, study, or think about will bear upon their main subject of study.

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COLONIZATION AND COLONIAL POLICIES.

By G. F. ANDREWS.

Preparation for colonial service is not merely a matter of training young men for official positions in the foreign possessions of the United States, and for service in developing the commercial interests of these possessions; there is also urgent need of men in consular posts and in commercial enterprises, who by their previous training are qualified to advance the commercial interests of the United States in the possessions of other powers. New outlets for the products of our factories must be found, and new sources of raw material developed, if we are to hold and increase our share of prosperity.

Some light on the subject of what special preparation is needed may be found in the experience of the great commercial and colonial powers. Great Britain, France, and Holland have been principally concerned with training men for service in their own possessions. Germany, with foreign possessions offering a field of activity for only a limited number of Europeans, has been concerned with the problem of securing the trade of the possessions of other powers, and in this she has been notably successful. This has been due, in no small measure, as English authorities frankly admit, to the superior, special, practical training given in the colonial schools of Germany. On this subject Evans Lewin said, in 1914: "Conditions are changing. New nations employing new methods have entered upon a fierce competition in colonial development. * * *

The natural products of the sea and the land are being studied and exploited not only on the spot, but are also being investigated in the laboratories and schools of Europe. The economic prize is more and more likely to fall to those who have fitted themselves by a preliminary training before undertaking the rougher work of actual exploitation."

England has believed in a high degree of general education, designed solely for mental training, followed by some study of colonial subjects (languages spoken by natives of her possessions, colonial law, history, etc.), supplemented by lectures on colonial administration, hygiene, medicine, etc., academic rather than practical in character, and this followed by practical training during a period of apprenticeship in the colonies.

It is generally admitted that these methods no longer suffice and that preparation in France and Germany is now superior to that given in England. A new colonial college[1] is proposed for practical training. The following headings show the subjects which it is thought should be taught:

A. Theoretical course:
   1. British colonial history—History of foreign colonies.
   2. Colonial law—(*a*) Commercial law—(*b*) Native law and customs—(*c*) Administration of the Empire.
   3. Ethnology—(*a*) Comparative religions—(*b*) Languages.
   4. Geography of the Empire—Climate.
   5. Sociological and political conditions in the dominions and colonies.
   6. Theory of the Empire (comparison with other empires).

B. Practical course:
   1. Tropical hygiene.
   2. Agriculture—forestry—commercial botany.
   3. Commerce and industry of the Empire.
   4. Conservation of resources.

Preparation in Holland offers no important suggestions for this brief statement.

France has three notable colonial schools, (supplemented by important lectures given at the Sorbonne and under the auspices of the colonial societies).

A. École Coloniale (Paris). (Two-year course open to French and natives of the colonies and dependencies.)
   Subjects—Practical administration—colonial law and languages—history and geography—ethnology—hygiene—colonization, etc.

B. École Pratique Coloniale (practical commercial education).
   Courses in hygiene, history, geography, administration, etc.

C. Institut Colonial de Marseille (two-year course).
   1. Study of vegetable, animal, and mineral products.
   2. Commerce and colonization.
   3. Hygiene, climate, agriculture, etc.

Germany also has three important schools:

A. Hamburgische Kolonial Institut (special training for business and commerce, as well as for colonial officials).

B. Deutsche Kolonial Schule (practical colonial training).

C. Seminar für Orientalische Sprachen (purely theoretical). Courses in languages, administration, economics, and advanced science.

We Americans may well take to ourselves the words of Evans Lewin: "We Britishers know to our cost that where Germans have outstripped us they have done so by virtue of superior educational facilities," and we may add, "and others" to Germans.

The industrial development of Germany was, to a considerable extent, based on an investigation of the sources of raw material in the colonies of other powers. The palm product trade of Dahomey is controlled by Germans, and we buy from Hamburg second-grade palm oil, extracted in Germany from kernels

[1] See Evans Lewin—The Germans and Africa.

imported from the French colony, and palm oil is a product of increasing importance in this country. The important trade in hides, in India, is controlled by Germans who have studied India and the trade to some purpose.[2] These are but instances of German enterprise backed by careful preparation.

In suggesting a course for preparation for colonial service, it is assumed that the student has taken subjects offered in a general course of preparation for foreign service, modern languages, commercial and maritime law, etc., modern history, diplomatic and political history, foreign exchange, etc. The colonial course should, therefore, be offered to seniors, and possibly to juniors. It is, of course, highly desirable that the student should have some knowledge of the principal language spoken by the natives in the colony where he intends to serve. A satisfactory course should extend over two half years, but could be covered with considerable profit in one half year, three hours per week, if some subjects included in the suggested plan were covered in usual courses in history, economics, etc., and such subjects as hygiene, tropical medicine, etc., were taken up in special lectures.

A course proposed for preparation for colonial service:

A. Outline history of colonization (with special reference to modern times).
B. Present systems of colonial government, including dependencies (with particular reference to the possessions of Great Britain, France, Germany, and the United States).
   1. Colonies for colonization.
   2. Colonies primarily for commercial development.
C. The relation of the colony to the mother country. The question of trade following the flag.
D. The future of colonies, as affected, for example, by the character of the population, by climatic conditions, etc.
E. The question of colonial self-determination in respect to form of government and policies.
F. Investigation of representative colonies:
   1. Nature of products and probability of increase.
   2. Nature of imports—what goods not now imported should find a market in the colony under discussion.
   3. Tariff system and special local charges on commerce and business.
   4. What opportunity appears to be open to the United States as buyer or seller.

   How would local discrimination in such matters as banking and shipping facilities affect trade with the United States?
G. Hygiene and tropical medicine.
H. Foreign possessions of the United States:
   1. History of the foreign possessions of the United States.
   2. Analysis of conditions in each of the possessions.
      (*a*) Administration.
      (*b*) Population, language, customs, laws.
      (*c*) Products, imports, exports.
      (*d*) Growth of commerce—commercial relations with the various countries.

The suggestion that some of these subjects could be treated by extending other regular courses is possible but certainly not desirable; they should be studied in their relation to each other, and this can not be done if the student gathers his knowledge bit by bit from courses not directly concerned with colonial questions.

Textbooks could not be used to advantage. The student should have access, at least, to a small, well-selected library on colonial questions. But most of the works should be found in any well-equipped college library.

[2] It is interesting to note that in 1913 and the first six months of 1914 Germany enormously increased her imports of hides from India.

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MODERN INTERNATIONALISM.

By STANLEY K. HORNBECK,
Associate Professor of Political Science, University of Wisconsin.

The term "internationalism" has been found difficult of definition, and its connotation has been variously conceived for the reason that it applies to a relationship which is dual or multiple in its aspects—relationships really actual in some phases, potential in some others, concrete from certain points of view, abstract from others. Reference to the widely differing efforts of various lexicographers shows that the term is susceptible more readily of description than of definition. Dr. Faries has defined and described it effectively, as follows:

> Internationalism may be defined to be that cooperation between governments or their citizens which tends to coordinate their efforts toward material betterment in the interests of the whole social order. Such * * * may be official. * * * or may be unofficial * * *. We are warranted * * * in including within internationalism that cooperation of the citizens of various nations which may fall far short of international law.—(*The Rise of Internationalism, 12–13.*)

A reasonably satisfactory short definition appears in Webster's International Dictionary, 1913: "Internationalism—international organization, influence, or common participation."

Internationalism has its political manifestations, its economic manifestations, its occupational, its cultural, its social, its humanitarian, and its purely sentimental manifestations, some formal, some informal, some accidental and scarcely to be observed. Organization, effort, thought, which goes beyond the boundaries of a single national state becomes international; the more consciously, deliberately, and widely it goes, the more evidently and conclusively does it belong within the connotation of the term "internationalism."

In presenting this subject to any class, the first problem to be solved is that of orientation; the second is that of establishing limitations. The great difference in the backgrounds of different groups and the unevenness in the preparation of the individuals composing any given group challenge the perception and the skill of the instructor. Under ideal conditions there would be, prerequisite to taking this course, preparation in general history, the principles of economics, the elements of political science, of sociology, and of psychology; also, highly desirable, a knowledge of comparative government, constitutional law, and international law. This list might be expanded; but, brief as it is, few students will have the point of departure which it suggests, and some will have little knowledge of any of those subjects.

In the attempt to treat the subject with due regard to the preparation and needs of the average class and within the time limitations of, say, 30 periods of 50 minutes each, it is desirable to have a definite and formal plan of procedure. To keep the furrows straight and at the same time cover the field within the allotted number of periods, this is absolutely essential. The invitation which the subject gives to discursiveness, abstraction, and mere speculation must at no point be accepted. The instructor should demonstrate by his arrangement of materials and handling of discussions that the subject is of vital and practical, not merely academic and cultural, interest.

A working outline for such a course, susceptible of modification, especially of omission, may include the following subjects:

I. Introduction and elementary concepts.
II. Nations and the family of nations. The growth of social consciousness and of political and legal practices.

III. The intercourse of states: Diplomacy, conferences, congresses, and treaties.
IV. International differences and methods of settlement, historical and actual.
V. Movements toward and evidences of Cooperation and Organization:
  A. Deductive Pacifism—History and Characterization.
  B. Inductive Pacifism—
    1. Task.
    2. Agencies and methods.
  C. International practices, instruments, and influences—
    1. International law.
    2. International leagues.
    3. International commissions.
    4. International alliances.
    5. International courts.
    6. International arbitration.
    7. International unions, official and unofficial.
    8. International conferences and congresses, official and unofficial.
    9. International movements based on community of interest or thought in connection with legislative, economic, scientific, educational, artistic, religious, social, recreational, and miscellaneous vocational and avocational activities.
    10. International influence of financial, commercial, and industrial developments.
    11. International influence of the development of means of transportation and communication, migration, travel, dissemination of news, and popular education.
VI. Proposed International Instruments (including leagues, federations, and a world state).
VII. Obstacles and Difficulties. Diversity of languages, race, location, and physical environment.
VIII. Problems of the Immediate Future. Diplomatic readjustment and settlement. Reconstruction—political, economic, social, physical, psychological, philosophical.

No two instructors will adopt identical outlines or employ the same methods of presentation. The following is a possible procedure: At the outset the instructor posts an extensive bibliography, containing references both of a general and of a particular nature; and he distributes syllabi in which there appear under each of the above titles references (*a*) to required reading, (*b*) to optional reading, and under some of the headings a series of subtopics and divisions. Each of the titles becomes the subject of a preliminary lecture. The earlier titles must be treated briefly, from considerations of time and proportion. At each meeting of the class an opportunity is given for asking questions and for brief discussion. After the eighth lecture a whole period or more is given to extensive quizzing and general discussion. From this point on, the burden of presentation is thrown more and more upon the students. To economize time, certain of the subjects are assigned to individual students for special preparation and organized reports, the recitation period assuming something of the character of a seminar. After the nineteenth title (C. 11) has been disposed of, the task of presentation devolves again chiefly upon the instructor.

Throughout the course it is essential to emphasize the evolutionary aspects of political and social development, to refer constantly to historical examples, to direct and redirect the attention of the student to inherent and fundamental facts. In the problems presented, human nature and human institutions are the beginning and the end; they represent what *is*, and their potentialities are the limitations of what may be. The student must learn to distinguish between that which is susceptible of immediate accomplishment and that which can only be achieved or consummated in *time*—a short period or a long. In

no other field has the instructor better opportunity to demonstrate the difference between deductive and inductive constructive reasoning, and to show in reference to political problems the futility of mere speculation and benevolence of attitude without substantial knowledge of facts and scientific respect for fundamental considerations.

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PART III. MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

THE TEACHING OF CHINESE AND JAPANESE LANGUAGES.

By E. T. Williams,

Agassiz Professor of Oriental Languages and Literature, University of California.

The advantage of being able to speak the language of the people with whom one trades is so obvious as scarcely to need mention.

American commerce with the Far East began in 1784 with the very beginning of our national history. It is already of great importance, but undoubtedly it is destined to have rapid increase after the war. In the past it has been conducted very largely by the aid of the Chinese compradore, who has been the medium of communication between the American and the Chinese merchants.

In the good old days of Salem shipowners and clipper ships, when there was a wide margin between the price paid to the producer or the native merchant and that paid by the consumer, the commission of the compradore was not a matter of great concern; he grew rich, but the firm also prospered. In these days, however, of keen competition, the margin of profit is comparatively small, and the firm that can remove unnecessary handicaps will have an advantage. German houses doing business in the Far East began years ago to send out young men to study the languages of the countries in which they were to be located, and through these agents they have been able to come into direct communication with native firms.

Some American and British companies have followed this example. The Standard Oil Co. has given considerable attention to the matter, and the British American Tobacco Co. has met with enviable success in so training their young men in China.

It may not be desirable to get rid altogether of the compradore, especially in certain lines of trade, for he has a wide acquaintance with the merchants with whom it is necessary to deal, and he has the expert knowledge of the conditions of the trade, but the firm that can on occasion be independent of the compradore is by so much in advance of the rival company that is wholly dependent upon him.

The study of the Chinese and Japanese languages, however, is not easy, and it is more than doubtful that anyone can acquire a workable knowledge of the colloquial in either tongue without the aid of a teacher. There are, to be sure, pocket vocabularies and phrase books which a traveller will find useful and which will enable him to make known his most pressing wants, but to be able to conduct business negotiations, one must have more than this, and that will require him to get the pronunciation from the lips of another. This is especially true of the Chinese, for the meaning of a syllable in that language changes entirely with a change of the tone in which it is spoken. The meaning of the written or printed character can indeed be learned without a knowledge of the pronunciation, and it is possible therefore for the student to teach himself to read a book or newspaper, but this would be of small advantage without the ability to converse in the language. The tones can not be learned from books.

With Japanese it is different, but there are other difficulties in acquiring that language.

The American Government since 1902 has maintained classes of young men at the legation in Peking and at the embassies in Tokyo and Constantinople for the study of the languages of China, Japan, and Turkey. These young men after two years' study at the legation or embassy are sent to the various consulates of the United States in the countries mentioned to be assistant interpreters. Gradually they are advanced in rank and become vice consuls, consuls, consuls general, and language secretaries at the embassies.

The same course is adopted by the British, French, and German Governments. It has been found that a two years' course in the language at Peking or Tokyo enables the student to speak upon ordinary topics with some facility and to translate with the aid of a dictionary the dispatches passing between the American officials and those of the country to which they are accredited. But it is still necessary for them to have the assistance of a Chinese or Japanese writer to insure that their translations from English into Chinese or Japanese are without fault.

It would seem advisable, therefore, in introducing the study of these languages into American colleges and universities to require not less than a two years' course in either. The student even then can not expect to acquire facility in speaking, for he can give but a small part of his time to this subject, and he will rarely find anyone with whom to converse. Most of the Chinese in the United States do not speak mandarin Chinese and do not understand it.

Numerous textbooks have been prepared for the teaching of Chinese and Japanese. In the British legation at Peking, in the Chinese customs service, and formerly in the American legation the students were required to use the *Tzu Erh Chi* of Sir Thomas Wade. This is a work in three large volumes, published by Messrs. Kelly & Walsh, of Shanghai, and by W. H. Allen & Co., London. It gives a course in the spoken language. For the written language there is a companion volume, known as "The Documentary Series."

The students in the American legation at Peking, after some experience with Wade, made trial of Mateer's "Course of Mandarin Lessons," published by the Presbyterian Mission Press at Shanghai. This on the whole will be found more useful than Wade. This university has been using it in preference to any other available. Two objections lie against it; it is too bulky and was prepared primarily for the use of missionaries. It is therefore not so useful as it might be for men preparing for a business career. This latter objection, however, is less important than might appear upon first thought, for one can abridge the lessons and supplement them with books of conversation to be mentioned below. A smaller and less expensive book for beginners in Chinese is Baller's "Mandarin Primer," also published by the Presbyterian Mission Press at Shanghai. This, too, is especially arranged for missionaries. Other very good books for beginners are those by Sir Walter Hillier and by a former British consul, Bullock. Hillier's has been used to some extent in the American legation at Peking. "An Introduction to Mandarin," in Chinese and English, is on sale in Chinese book shops in San Francisco, and is a good book for beginners. It is published in two small volumes, price $1.50. For a study of the characters, a work in two volumes by Dr. Leon Wieger is excellent. It is called "Chinese Characters," and is published by the Ho Kien Fû Catholic Mission Press. The best Chinese-English dictionaries are those of Giles, published by Kelly & Walsh, Shanghai and Yokohama; and Williams' Syllabic Dictionary, published by the North China Union College, Peking. The English-Chinese dictionary is published by the Chinese Maritime Customs, prepared by K. Hemeling.

No matter with what book one begins, it is well to supplement it after a few months with the "Kuan Hua Chih Nan," or "Guide to Mandarin," a book of conversations, prepared by a Japanese student of Chinese, and thoroughly idiomatic. A similar work, which introduces many of the newer terms and valuable on this account is the "T'an Lun Hsin P'ien." This also was prepared in Japan and may be purchased of Messrs. Kelly and Walsh, Yokohama and Shanghai.

The student ought to begin to write the characters at the very beginning, even while giving his attention chiefly to the colloquial. At the end of two years he should be able to recognize and to write 3,000 characters. The second year he should find time to acquaint himself with portions of the Chinese classics, a few chapters from the Analects of Confucius and the works of Mencius, but for business use a study of newspaper and documentary Chinese will be of more service. Wade's or Lay's Documentary Chinese will be found good. A Chinese newspaper is excellent for this purpose. The use of particles and the method of construction are well explained by Hirth's "Notes on Chinese Documentary Style," Kelly & Walsh, Shanghai.

As intimated above, it is not so difficult to teach oneself Japanese as Chinese. For beginners there are several good books: "A Textbook of Colloquial Japanese," by Dr. Rudolf Lange, published by the Methodist Publishing House, Tokyo; "How to Speak Japanese Correctly," by K. Akuda and J. Satomi, published by R. Z. Okazakiya & Co., Tokyo; "Plaut's Conversation Grammar," Brentano's, New York and Washington.

THE TEACHING OF GERMAN AND DUTCH FOR FOREIGN SERVICE.

By HERMANN ALMSTEDT,

Head of Department of Germanic Languages, University of Missouri.

With the elevation of the United States of America into the front rank of a world power comes the grave responsibility of training comprehensively and efficiently for foreign service. The representatives of this Nation abroad, whether they represent the Government or stand sponsors to great commercial or industrial enterprises, should reflect honor and credit upon their country. This they can do only if, to state a minimum, they are esteemed as on a par intellectually, educationally, and culturally with those whose interests for the time being are their interests, and with whom they are expected to communicate and to transact business.

Among the educational requirements for really intelligent and successful foreign service a facile knowledge of the language of the foreign country becomes at once a fundamental demand. Without a full control of the language, one's understanding of that foreign country is made difficult, if not well-nigh impossible, and thus the function of foreign service is reduced and impaired. Interpreters and translations may become good makeshifts, but he who controls the idiomatic side of the new foreign language controls the source-head; and it is this kind of power and control that we wish our foreign representatives to possess and to be able to exercise.

But not only for practical and immediately utilitarian purposes is it necessary that our foreign representative know fully the language of the country to which he is assigned. There is, also, a larger and ideal point of view with regard to modern language instruction which it behooves us, now that America has left its sphere of parochial isolation, to consider with a feeling of sacred obligation both to ourselves and to the rest of the world. This larger function of the modern languages is nothing more nor less than its service in establishing international understanding, amity, sympathy, and good will.

This high ideal of what the modern languages should accomplish was in the minds of the reformers who set about in the eighties to vitalize the modern language instruction and thus save it from the impending fate of being crushed under the heavy weight of classic tradition. If misunderstandings are possible between persons of the same speech, how much greater is the possibility of misunderstanding between persons, or nations, of different speech? And misunderstanding is the mother of all the evils of prejudice, bias, and enmity. It appears, then, that in the large and responsible work of reconstruction, not only of immediately national affairs, but of international relations, the modern languages are called upon to do a service which is at once as practical as it is high and ennobling.

Granted this function of the modern languages in the service of international ideals making for mutual understanding and friendship, it becomes our bounden duty to encourage the study of the world's modern languages and to raise the standard of instruction in these languages to a high plane of efficiency. Our foreign representatives are entitled to the best instruction that can be given them.

What is the best instruction in modern languages for those who represent this Nation abroad? In a sentence, it is that instruction which makes for the goal of giving the student a comprehensive control of the new speech habits, and does so by using a method which is scientifically and pedagogically unassailable. At once it is clear that instruction for foreign service does not differ in fundamentals from the instruction for any other kind of service. That is preeminently the point.

Any language is, at best, a tool which when thoroughly controlled may be easily turned to any kind of service; it may serve as a key to unlock the treasure house of literary values, or it may become a function for practical ends. At any rate, without a thorough mastery of the tool, the function or service of this tool is inadequate. The recognition of this programmatic point of view can only be salutary for the future of modern language instruction. It means that thorough instruction in the language as language shall precede any attempts to use that language in its various and possible functions. The emphasis would not discourage literary values, even at an early stage in the acquisition of the new tongue, but it would insist that correct speech habits be learned and thoroughly mastered. The whole question really is one of time allotment to the various phases of learning and one of emphasis as to what discipline shall precede or follow.

The brief limits of this paper can merely state what is in the minds of progressive modern language teachers to-day with regard to how to teach and how to learn a living tongue. Axiomatically expressed it is this injunction: If German, for instance, is a living modern language, then teach it as such. The implication is that every appeal is utilized which makes for the vital acquisition and live use of the new speech habits. Not only the eye, but also the ear and the speech organs are called upon in the learning. The progressive view makes more of pronunciation than was done formerly. It frankly uses the foreign tongue in the classroom and urges the student to do so. It tries to teach the language, and not only the grammar. It insists on genuine reading of a connected text, and stresses reproductive work in the language itself rather than translation. In short, it makes every sense appeal that it is possible to make and conserves every moment possible for the use of, and drill in, the foreign language to be mastered. Then, too, in a modern language, having

to do with a modern people, the content of texts and paragraphs will deal with matter pertaining to that modern people to-day. That is to say, the customs, habits, institutions, and general life of the foreign nation will receive attention. In short, when we demand that a modern language shall be heard and spoken in the classroom, we are pleading not for the lingual facileness of a waiter or a porter, but for a discipline which more adequately and comprehensively than in the past permits us to realize the aim of modern language instruction which is and always will be the acquisition of new speech habits.

It is such intensive training in modern languages that should be placed at the command of our foreign service. We can not afford to do less. The training for modern languages should be begun in the seventh and eighth grades, with full opportunity of election throughout the four years of the high school. Only then can we hope to carry out an important mission really well and with telling results.[1]

THE TEACHING OF ROMANCE LANGUAGES.

By VICTOR E. FRANÇOIS,

Associate Professor of French, College of the City of New York.

We take for granted[2] that for an American student preparing himself for foreign service, French, the language of diplomacy for the last three centuries, is considered indispensable.

For obvious reasons, Spanish comes a close second in importance, and we are ready to concede that it should take precedence of French in schools of States bordering Mexico, since this plan of studies concerns not only students intending to enter the foreign service, but also those anxious to pursue a commercial career.

Our choice for the third language is Italian, not because Portuguese[3] is of less value, but because it is so similar to Spanish that it should be easily mastered by students who have a good knowledge of the latter.

May we be allowed to point to a few causes of the so much talked of failure of foreign language teaching in the United States?

There is no denying that there is poor material among teachers of modern languages; some are trying to teach a subject that they themselves have never

[1] What has been said applies, of course, to the teaching and learning of modern German and modern Dutch, with this comment, that of these two modern Germanic languages, the former is more important and should receive the greater emphasis in the curriculum. For German, Viëtor's Deutsches Aussprachewörterbuch, 2d edition, is fundamental in learning the pronunciation. For training in commercial German the following books may prove helpful: (1) Graham and Oliver, German Commercial Practice connected with the Export and Import Trade, 2 volumes. Vol. I (1904); Vol. II (1906). Macmillan, London. (2) Arnold Kutner, Commercial German, 1903, American Book Co. (3) F. Coverly Smith, Introduction to Commercial German, 1903, Macmillan, London.

[2] Some time ago a committee of well-known business men and educators, appointed by the Government of Great Britain to investigate the problem of education for those wishing to prepare for foreign trade, recommended that a much greater time be given to the study of French, French being "by far the most important language in the history of modern civilization."

[3] A strong plea for the study of French and Portuguese was made by a Brazilian, Clinton D. Smith, before the Educational Conference on training for foreign service on December 31, 1915. (See Bul. 1917, No. 37, pp. 35-36. Department of Interior. Bu. of Educ.)

been able to master, and the situation is worse now than before the war.[4] One of the greatest difficulties which American educational institutions are facing is to find well qualified teachers of French, Spanish, and Portuguese. Good teachers of Italian can be found in sufficient numbers, but school authorities are clamoring for experienced teachers of Spanish, and a real teacher of Portuguese is a *rara avis*. As far as French is concerned, we expect that the problem will soon be solved. Many alumni and alumnæ of American colleges and universities have been in France for one and even two years. We hope that a large number of them will turn to the teaching of the French language. They can not fail to become inspiring teachers.

But the best teacher of modern languages is absolutely helpless as long as his classes are as large as they are: 30 to 40. The number of students in any class in the department of modern languages should not exceed 20. An average of 15 should be the rule, if good results are to be expected.[5] Imagine a piano teacher trying to teach 30 or 40 students simultaneously how to play the piano in a short period varying from 40 to 50 minutes. One minute's attention to each boy. That is the condition teachers of modern languages are facing every day.

Another stumbling block in the path of teachers is the indifferent attitude of the average American student toward his studies. Is it not greatly due to the fact that he has not the least idea of the career he may wish to follow later in life? Whether he will pursue this special vocation or not, is immaterial. His choice of the future profession, even if vague, need not lead to a premature specialization in his studies, as some seem to fear; besides being an incentive, it would serve as a kind of beacon to guide him through the maze of his college curriculum. Having no definite aim, he gropes his way toward a general education by taking a motley combination of courses which leads him nowhere.

To remedy this defect, a thorough psychological test should be given to every boy before being admitted to a high school, and a report sent to his parents or guardian with proper directions as to the kind of studies his mental ability fits him to take most profitably.

Another serious drawback is the lack of memory training in our elementary and secondary schools. A boy with a poor memory will never become a good linguist.

Time to be devoted to the preparation of students: Schedule I obtains if a junior high school is available; Schedule II, if there is no junior high school; Schedule III, if no romance language has been studied in the preparatory school.

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[4] See the Modern Language Journal, March, 1918, p. 284: "On a motion of Professor Smith, of Wisconsin, a resolution was passed calling attention to the very real danger in the fields of French and Spanish due to the shift of poorly prepared and unsympathetic teachers from other branches, and expressing the section's strong disapproval of such changes being allowed by administrative officers in colleges and secondary schools."

See Bulletin of High Points, edited by Lawrence A. Wilkins, in charge of modern languages in high schools, Board of Education, of New York City, March, 1918, p. 14: "A teacher who gives only a portion of his time to instruction in a subject may be called a 'fractional' teacher of that subject. In the 24 high schools there are 61.97 teachers of German engaged in giving instruction in some foreign language other than German."

[5] See an article by Henry Zick in Bulletin of High School Teachers' Association of New York City, April, 1916, p. 6: "I visited, in all, eight secondary schools in and out of London. All the schools I visited had four excellent features: (1) They laid stress on a good pronunciation and used sound-chords; (2) the work was properly graded; (3) the teachers had a good command of the foreign language, and (4) the classes were small, from 10 to 25 pupils."

SCHEDULE I.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

	First language.
First year	5 periods per week.
Second year	5 periods per week.

HIGH SCHOOL.

	First language.	Second language.	Third language.	Fourth language.
Third year	5 periods	5 periods		
Fourth year	5 periods	5 periods	5 periods	
Fifth year	4 periods	4 periods	4 periods	
Sixth year	3 periods	3 periods	3 periods	5 periods.

COLLEGE.

Three periods for each language throughout.[6]

SCHEDULE II.

HIGH SCHOOL.

	First language.	Second language.	Third language.	Fourth language.
First year	5 periods			
Second year	5 periods	5 periods		
Third year	4 periods	4 periods	4 periods	
Fourth year	3 periods	3 periods	3 periods	5 periods.

COLLEGE.

Three periods for each language throughout.[6]

SCHEDULE III.

COLLEGE.

	First language.	Second language.	Third language.	Fourth language.
First year	5 periods			
Second year	5 periods	3 periods		
Third year	3 periods	3 periods	3 periods	
Fourth year	3 periods	3 periods	3 periods	3 periods.

METHODS.

SCHEDULE I.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.[7]

First language.

First year: Five periods per week. Pronunciation (daily training). Description of the classroom, the school, persons, animals, familiar objects, pictures representing simple scenes, common actions to bring out important verbs (present indicative, past definite, future). Maps, numbers 1–100; days of the week, seasons, months, dates, weather, time of day, the five senses, games, little songs and short poems to be memorized.

[6] If three languages are studied instead of four, which is likely, the periods for the first and second languages may be increased to four; if only two languages are studied, the periods may be increased to five.

[7] A detailed description of these courses is given because they are still in the experimental stage.

No formal grammar. Emphasis laid on correct pronunciation. Mostly oral work, carefully graded. The best teacher should be in charge.

If French is the first language, use such simple books as *First Year In French*, by Syms (American Book Co.), or *First French Book*, by J. Greenberg (Charles Merrill Co.), leaving the translation of English exercises for the very end of the year, if at all, or Bercy's books for children (Wm. Jenkins), pictures such as *Tableaux Muraux Delmas* (Hachette and Co., London).

If Spanish is chosen as first language, use such easy books as Worman's Spanish books (American Book Co.). The pictures mentioned above may be used for Spanish as well.

Second year: Five periods per week. Continuation of the work done during the first year along the same lines. Daily drill in pronunciation. More pictures, more maps, more games, numbers 1–1000; notions of history, geography, arithmetic, fractions, metric systems, etc.; the three kingdoms of nature, all in the language to be learned. A very easy reader, with a commercial bias if possible. Rudiments of the grammar taught from the reading. Oral exercises of all kinds also based on that textbook. Very little translation of the foreign language into English should be done except to show the pupils how to go about it. No literal translation should be allowed. Frequent dictations of short sentences, of short stories. Songs, short stories, or short poems memorized.

High-School Courses.

Third and fourth years: In the third and fourth years (respectively the first and second years in attendance) graduates of a junior high school should be able to do the work that is done at present during the first three years in a first-class high school.

Any method suiting the individuality of the teacher and leading on the part of the pupils to thorough work and self expression should be encouraged. Whatever may be the method, the teacher should adhere to the motto: A minimum of grammatical rules and translation, and a maximum of oral work.

If formal grammar is started, it should proceed slowly, with special stress on fundamental principles and constant drill on verbs.

Translation of the foreign language into English should be done only in the case of difficult passages and idioms. A careful selection of the texts on which to base the lessons will minimize that kind of work. Translation of English into the foreign language should be attempted, if at all, only toward the end of the first year as review work. Later on easy composition may be used.

Teachers may ease their work by using textbooks provided with exercises giving material for drill work along up-to-date lines.

In the program of the first three years of high schools, books with commercial tendencies are seldom read. To fill that want, numerous dictations on the country, the language of which is learned, its climate, customs, daily life, government, general industry, commerce, etc., should be given. Proverbs and easy idiomatic sentences should be memorized.

Fifth and sixth years: So far academic and commercial courses can go hand in hand with a commercial flavor if the majority of students are preparing for a business career. Now the work should be somewhat specialized and commercial textbooks put into the hands of the pupils, with the same methods as described above prevailing. Constant oral work, much dictation by the teacher or leading pupils, a minimum of translation of the foreign language into English, etc.

From now on one hour per week should be set aside for the reading of an easy text or newspaper in the first language at sight, a student reading aloud one paragraph at a time, the teacher translating or better explaining the words unfamiliar to the class, and a second student summing up the paragraph in the language taught. Reading at sight should start for the second language at the beginning of the sixth year. This kind of work increases the confidence of the scholars and encourages independent reading.

They should also be urged to avail themselves of every occasion to improve their practical knowledge of the language in which they are interested: (*a*) An exchange of letters with youths of their age abroad; (*b*) participation in a foreign language club; (*c*) use of a dictionary purely French or Spanish; (*d*) sermons, lectures, plays, newspapers, and reviews in the foreign language; (*e*) acquaintance with people speaking that language, etc.

FRENCH.

Fifth year.

Notions de commerce, by Coudray and Cuxac (H. Dunod—E. Pinat, éditeurs, 47, Quai des Grands Augustins, Paris).

Elémenis de commerce et de comptabilité, par Gabriel Faure (Masson et Cie, éditeurs 120, boulevard St. Germain, Paris).

At sight. *Edition hebdomadaire du Courrier des Etats-Unis*, New York City, or *Le Petit Journal*, published by Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City, N. Y.

Sixth year.

French Commercial Practice (11 parts), by Graham and Oliver (Macmillan & Co., London).

At sight. *La France qui travaille*, by Jago (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston).

or

Revue commerciale et industrielle franco-américaine, published by Le Courrier des Etats-Unis, New York City.

SPANISH.

Fifth year (if first language).

Harrison's *Spanish Correspondence* (Henry Holt & Co., New York City).

McHale's *Commercial Spanish* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston).

At sight. Albes: *Viajando por Sud America* edited by Warshaw (Henry Holt & Co., New York City).

or

El Eco (Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City, N. Y.).

Dictionary: *Pequeño Larousse ilustrado* (Larousse, Paris).

Sixth year.

Spanish Commercial Correspondence by Whittem and Andrade (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston).

Fuentes and Elías: *Manual de Correspondencia* (Macmillan Co., New York City).

At sight: Nelson's *The Spanish American Reader* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston).

or

La Prensa (daily) New York City.

COLLEGE.

On entering college after six consecutive years of the first language students should be able to speak it fluently and correctly and to write it idiomatically. So college courses should be looked upon as seminar work, aiming at retaining and improving the grasp of the language learnt in the previous years.[a]

Such courses should be conducted entirely in the foreign language and based on technical publications, such as foreign consular reports, reports of foreign touring clubs and chambers of commerce, commercial and industrial reviews, the bulletins (Spanish and Portuguese) of the Pan American Union, etc., with one hour per week entirely devoted to sight reading.

Higher institutions should create for such students a special atmosphere that would replace, in part only of course, a sojourn abroad. A large room should be set aside for them where they would constantly meet other young men interested in similar studies, and find a library answering their needs, foreign newspapers and periodicals of all kinds, a miniature museum displaying industrial, mining, vegetable products, etc., with their names in several languages, various wall maps, lantern slides or moving pictures showing the daily life, industry, commerce, natural beauties, etc., of foreign lands, the scenes being explained in the foreign language or forming topics for general discussion, round table conferences, frequent lectures, games, a phonograph with records of foreign songs, etc.

This environment, artificial, it is true, but indispensable, could be more thorough by the cooperation of the departments of history, geography, mathematics, economics, law, etc., in using foreign textbooks in their elective courses.

Students should be urged to visit during their summer vacations the country the language of which they are studying. Scholarships for such trips might be offered by the Federal Government or the colleges through competitive examinations.

Auxiliary languages (i. e., third and fourth languages).—The methods and directions given for the first and second languages should be followed, but the class would be able to proceed at a much faster pace.

Schedule II (high school and college).—See methods and directions for Schedule I, but the work would necessarily be slower, especially during the first two years.

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[a] If students preparing for foreign service are not numerous enough to form a section by themselves, they may follow advanced literary courses, but special courses should be given them during their junior and senior years.

Schedule III (college only).—The work should be intensified along the lines described in Schedule I for high schools and colleges. Students should not take more than two languages, a fact which would permit them to devote five hours a week to both languages right along.

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Bazin. La douce France. New York. G. P. Putnam's sons.
Bulletins: French chambers of commerce and touring clubs of French-speaking countries.
Le Bureau Moderne (monthly). Paris, A. L. Vandecrane et Cie.
Courrier des Etats-Unis. New York City.
D'Avenel. Les Français de mon temps. Paris, Nelson.
L'Economiste français. Paris, Leroy-Beaulieu.
L'Exportateur français (weekly). Paris, A. L. Vandecrane et Cie.
Le Journal des Economistes (monthly). Paris, Alcan.
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THE TEACHING OF SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES.

BY GISLE BOTHNE.

Head, Department of Scandinavian Languages, University of Minnesota.

One result of our country's participation in the great world struggle will be the demand for an improved and intensive study of modern languages in our educational institutions. If any country ever had the call to assume and strive to maintain leadership among the nations, not only politically and commercially, but also in almost all fields of human activity, that certainly has come to our country. In order to trade most intelligently and profitably with other peoples, and in general to deal with them in a spirit of sympathy and understanding of their peculiarities and characteristics, it is necessary to have that intimate knowledge which only the knowledge of their language can give. And we shall want to maintain henceforth most intimate relations with the

nations of the world. Already England and France are rearranging and amplifying their school courses for the purpose of giving the foreign languages a much more prominent place than before. And the Scandinavian languages have not been overlooked. England established during the recent war lectureships in the Scandinavian languages at the University of London and other places; and France, in addition to a professorship in the Scandinavian languages at the University of Paris previously established, invited boys from the Scandinavian countries to come to her schools in order to get a thorough training in French, in addition to the subjects required by the corresponding schools at home.

The schools and colleges of our country have given excellent instruction in modern languages in the years gone by, but much more will be demanded in this line in order to fit our young men and women for foreign service. The languages for which there will be the greatest demand will undoubtedly be French, German, Spanish, Russian, Italian. But also other languages will be taught, among them the Scandinavian. The Scandinavian languages comprise Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish. While philologists will continue to cultivate the study of Icelandic, which in its modern form is spoken by some 100,000 people, the other modern Scandinavian languages have much added value in modern times. These languages are spoken by 12 millions who belong to the most enlightened people in Europe. While the three languages are distinct, knowledge of one will make the effort to acquire the other two comparatively easy. The grammar of Norwegian and Danish is somewhat simpler than Swedish, but the student may start with any one of them as he has the opportunity, and a little practice and effort will help him to acquire all.

Great writers have developed the Scandinavian languages into almost perfect instruments of expression in all fields of human thought. All who are familiar with the subject will know that the Scandinavians have produced writers of a high rank, and that their literature has a value far beyond what might be expected from their numbers. It is probable that America will become the center of international scientific research, taking the place in the world occupied by Germany before the war. Our country has this mission on account of the cosmopolitan character of the population, the idealism, enthusiasm, and vigor of the people, the rapid advance in scholarship made within the last 40 or 50 years by great universities and scientific institutions, the wealth and liberality of our country. After we entered the war, steps were taken to make the Scandinavian countries such a center. And there is much that speaks for such a venture, apart from the fact that they have struggled hard to remain neutral in the great World War.

The Scandinavians have produced many scholars whose names are familiar to students in many fields, some, indeed, having attained the highest eminence. For years Scandinavian scholars and writers have been intelligent observers and keen interpreters of scientific achievements and political principles and events in the leading countries. And what has been written in the Scandinavian languages on these lines has a value of its own. Just one example: Those who are familiar with Bjørnson, the great writer and orator, whose familiarity with European politics was almost astounding, and who was one of the few Europeans whose words were listened to by the real leaders of Europe with respect, will remember his characterization of Prussianism, just as apt to-day as when it was written 50 years ago, his championship of the oppressed peoples of Austria-Hungary, just to mention a few instances. He even predicted years ago that the next great war would begin with Austria, though no doubt he had no idea of the colossal dimensions it would assume. An additional argument in favor of the Scandinavian countries as an international center of scientific

research is found in the fact that they are almost devoid of the national pride so common in the great countries of Europe, which are reluctant to admit the superiority in any field of another nation. The Scandinavians feel that they are under the greatest obligations to European countries like England, France, and Germany, and to America in the fields of science and scholarship, in literature, the arts, and politics; and they are inclined, while they take pride in having produced men who take rank with some of the best, to give each country its due.

Also commercially the Scandinavian countries have a growing importance. The waterfalls of Norway and Sweden are rapidly making these countries great centers of industry. Denmark's agricultural leadership is well known. The shipping industry of Norway has been one of the important factors in the world's trade. The establishment by the three Scandinavian countries of chambers of commerce and banking institutions in New York shows the importance of the trade relations between these countries and America. Here we have a great field which must be enlarged, and everything must be done to maintain cordial relations with the Scandinavian countries. The opportunity is there. The feeling of the Scandinavians toward America is as that of the smaller boys to the big brother. Americans of Norwegian descent number almost as many as the whole population of Norway; Americans of Swedish extraction almost one-half of Sweden's population; and while the emigration from Denmark has not been proportionately so large, the Americans of Danish descent are a most valuable element of our country.

The great bulk of the people from the Scandinavian countries who came to this country to settle have made their homes in the Northwestern States, of which Minneapolis may be called the center. It seemed only natural that the Scandinavian languages, if taught in America at all, would be taught in this section of the country particularly. And that has been and is yet the case. Scandinavian church bodies have established in this territory many schools where excellent instruction in the Scandinavian languages has been given. Americans of Scandinavian descent differ little from other Americans. And why should they be different? As the history of the Scandinavian countries shows a constant struggle for national existence and real democracy, they fall readily in with the American way of thinking, and as an element really reinforce our American ideals. On the language question the Americans of Scandinavian descent reflect as a rule the prevalent opinion of the American communities where they reside. Among the Americans of Scandinavian descent there is unanimity as to the necessity of knowing English, the language of our country. That is not a matter for discussion at all. Even those extremists who would exclude from all our schools all foreign languages have representatives among the Americans of Scandinavian descent. There are quite a few also of Americans of Scandinavian descent, as there are of other Americans, who hold rightly that a knowledge of foreign languages, including the Scandinavian, is highly desirable. We all know the class of Americans who believe the American type is something fixed and rigid, created some time ago and the pattern for all "foreigners" who come to make their homes here. There are others who believe real Americanism consists in considering the American type a living organism developing into the most perfect type of man by retaining the glorious spirit and faith which created and has maintained this Nation and by absorbing with the many national elements of our population also their best characteristics.

But we shall take more interest in the peoples of Europe and the world. We shall want to learn foreign languages. In this Nation, united as never before and with a unity of spirit and purpose, not created, but made manifest

by the war and a marvel to the world, one group of Americans will cease to treat with condescension and distrust American citizens of "foreign" descent, their equals in all essentials, a thing that has done more to create national groups in our country than anything else. We shall all learn from one another, one American group from the so-called foreigners, as the foreigners gladly have learned so much from those who were here before. And there is plenty of room for improvement along these lines. The time will come when the history of Minnesota and North Dakota, to mention examples, will be written and taught in our public schools, giving full credit to the Scandinavian element, as true and loyal Americans as any, and the countries they come from. The Minnesota Historical Society now has a department containing the largest collection in America of all sorts of publications that throw light on the history of the Scandinavian element. And the Scandinavian languages and history will be continued to be taught at the universities and in the high schools of Minnesota and adjacent States, because we all as Americans demand that there shall be given instruction in this country in these languages, valuable from so many points of view.

The University of Minnesota gives complete courses for the study of the Scandinavian languages, and a number of other universities give all such instruction that there is any demand for. In Minneapolis and St. Paul five high schools give instruction in Norwegian and Swedish, and in many places in Minnesota, North Dakota, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Illinois there is an opportunity to learn these languages. The study of these languages was introduced into high schools only a few years ago, and the line of textbooks is not as complete as desirable. But enough is available for American students to acquire knowledge of these languages, and there are indeed many teachers who are fully equipped to teach them. There are also books for English-speaking students for self-study in these languages, though I think all of this class of books have been published in England. A competent teacher is, of course, always preferable.

A two years' course in college, corresponding to a four years' course in a high school or secondary school, might be summarized as follows:

FIRST YEAR OR ELEMENTARY COURSE.

The purpose of this course is to acquire an accurate pronunciation, an understanding of simple language when spoken, the translation of easy English phrases and sentences into the Scandinavian language taught, Norwegian, Swedish, or Danish, to express in these languages ideas about ordinary experiences in life and about the content of the texts used. Of the methods used may be mentioned, reading aloud by both teacher and class, dictation, the students memorizing conversational prose and easy verse, oral and written translations from English, questioning the class and requiring answers in the language taught, using as material whatever texts the class has. It is not proper to merely translate the reader or the literary selections, but the students should be trained to express in the Scandinavian language taught the ideas he found in the text. And there should be constant drill in the elements of grammar.

Grammars used in this country: P. Groth: Danish Grammar. E. C. Otté: The Danish Language. P. Groth: Norwegian Grammar. J. A. Holvik: Beginner's Book in Norse. M. Michelet: First Book in Norse. A. Louis Elmquist: Swedish Grammar, also Swedish Phonology. E. J. Vickner: Swedish Grammar.

Intended for self-study are H. Forchhammer: How to learn Danish, C. A. Thimm's Norwegian Self-Taught, Swedish Self-Taught (London).

Norwegian Self-Taught. (Sixth edition by Prof. Girondahl, London University, Marlborough Co., London, is very good.)

SECOND YEAR OR ADVANCED COURSE.

The elementary work should be continued in the intermediate and advanced courses. There should be more conversation and more expression of connected ideas in the language taught, and more translation of English prose. There should be a discussion by the class in the language taught of the contents of the readers or books used. The teacher should furnish material relating to the history and geography of the country studied, and the class should tell what they have heard in the language taught. Students should prepare in Norwegian, Swedish, or Danish résumés of material discussed in class, deliver them in writing or give them orally. There should also be writing of themes and letters. The teacher should tell or read stories or newspaper articles, and the students reproduce them. The study of the grammar should be continued, with the drill required.

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Norwegian books for American students to be used in these courses have principally been published by the Augsburg Publishing House and Free Church Book Concern in Minneapolis, Swedish texts by the Augustana Publishing House, Rock Island, Ill., and Engberg-Holmberg Publishing Co., Chicago.

A cheap Danish-Norwegian-English Dictionary has been edited by Johannes Magnussen. J. Brynildsen's Norsk-Engelsk Ordbog and Engelsk-Norsk-Dansk Ordbog are very good. So are B. J. Birkman: Svensk-Engelsk Ordbok, and E. Wenstrom and K. Lindgren: Engelsk-Svensk Ordbok. T. T. Evanths has recently published "Norsk og dansk Handelsleksikon." J. Guinchard's "Sweden" is an excellent book in English. A similar publication "Norway," published in 1900, is now somewhat out of date, but contains much interesting information. "Boken om Norge (5 vols.) has been published in Christiania for the use of American students and contains much excellent material. Swedish Yearbook (in English) was published in Stockholm in 1921.

In connection with the Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish Legations at Washington, D. C., are press attachés who are willing, when called upon, to give information relating to many Scandinavian subjects.

THE TEACHING OF THE SLAVIC LANGUAGES.

By LEO WIENER,

Professor of Slavic Languages and Literature, Harvard University.

The study of the classical languages has long been endangered by the encroachment of the practical into the college curriculum. Indeed, the classical languages would long ago have suffered a complete fiasco were it not for the important philological bearing that they have had in the German school system, to which even the American schools have subscribed blindly. With the defeat of the German State there is bound to come a total reorganization of the schools, at least as regards language instruction. The philological *raison d'être* of the classical languages must give way to a training in languages, either for the general purpose of linguistic discipline, whatever the language may be, or for the specialized training in modern languages, that is, for the practical purpose of immediate application in daily needs. In the highest type of a school these two purposes will be indissolubly joined.

There are, probably, in the whole range of the European languages none so fit to unite these two purposes as the Slavic languages, more especially Russian, Polish, Bohemian, Serbian, because they combine in an admirable manner the qualities of the classical languages, as trainers of the mind, with the practical side of linguistic study to serve as aids in the vocational training. The Slavic languages in structure resemble Latin and Greek very closely. There is the same grammatical complexity and delicacy of shading, the same wealth of word building, the same intellectual appeal. Contrary to all current prejudice, the Slavic languages are not more difficult than either Latin or Greek, or French or German. The popular prejudice is due to the unfamiliar appearance of the Russian alphabet, the newness of the vocabulary, and the complexity of the declensional and the conjugational system, all of which strikes the student in the very beginning of his studies. But these difficulties are easily

overcome in a year, after which the great simplicity and freedom of their sentence structure, the utter absence of the periodic, which, for example, in German, keeps increasing, rather than decreasing, in successive years, and the unlimited power of word derivations from a limited basic vocabulary, which is characteristic of the Slavic languages, make them the most fascinating as well as the easiest for direct use in business or science. The Slavic languages, especially Russian, have but one norm for all purposes, whether literature, science, or business. After a two years' course one should be able to correspond, with the help of the dictionary and letter writer, on any usual subject, and a three years' course should give one a ready use for all practical purposes.

From a mere intellectual standpoint our high schools should provide an option in some of the modern languages for those who decline to take a classical course. The schools can not afford to abandon language study entirely; and Slavic languages, especially Russian, should receive an equal treatment with Spanish and French. From a practical standpoint the Slavic languages should appeal to young Americans as no other European language. The Serbians and the Bohemians consider America their best friend, and President Massaryk has said significantly that Bohemia would never forget America, and that it knew how to be grateful. This simply means that endless opportunities will open to young Americans who want to connect in a business way with the Slavic States. The same is true in regard to Poland, but while Serbia, Bohemia, and Poland can at most muster 30 million people, Russia, with its 150 million people, offers unlimited possibilities to generations of Americans. America is almost the only nation which the Russians trust, and to which they will look almost exclusively for help in their reconstruction, and to which they will intrust business of every description. It would be a burning shame if Americans did not in time take advantage of this exceptional opportunity to become the associate of Slavdom. We must begin at once to prepare young men for the task which will be required of them.

We should at once begin by offering a two years' course in Russian in all the reputable high schools and business schools, wherever a proper Russian instructor can be obtained. Our colleges and higher business schools should offer the same two years in Russian, an additional year or two in Russian, and one and two years' courses in Polish, Bohemian, and Serbian. All these courses should be so arranged that they should lead either to a mere literary course or directly to a business career. This is comparatively easy in the case of the Slavic languages, because, as pointed out above, there is but one norm for all literary styles. Unfortunately we possess no good textbooks or grammars for English-speaking people in Polish, Bohemian, or Serbian, but these can easily be supplied if a demand is created for them. But for the study of Russian there is now no lack of textbooks. Above all of these towers Bondar's Simplified Russian Method, a masterpiece of a textbook, which from the very start furnishes material for a literary and a business course. In schools or in self-instruction it can be used advantageously for two years. Then there are the excellent accented texts published by the Oxford University and Cambridge University presses, and the several textbooks and a grammar by Neville Forbes. Of the many dictionaries in existence, Alexandroff's is still the best.

NOTE.—Frequent requests for books helpful in the self-study of the Russian language induced the editor of this bulletin to issue early in 1918 the following list of books constructed and adapted largely with the object in view:

Bondar. Simplified Russian method. London, Effingham Wilson, 1915.

Bondar's Russian readers, Nos. 1–5, published by same firm, may be used shortly after beginning the grammar.

Forbes, Neville. Russian grammar. Oxford, Clarendon Press.

Karrachy-Smith. Lessons in Russian. London, S. Low, Marston & Co., 1915.

A key to the exercises of this grammar is also published by the same publisher.

Magnus, L. A. A concise grammar of the Russian language. London, J. Murray, 1916.
Manasovich, Boris. A Russian manual for self-tuition. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1915.
Motti, Pietro. Russian conversation grammar. London, D. Nutt.
Rappoport, S. Rossfeld's new practical method for learning the Russian language. London, Hirschfeld Bros., 1916.
Riola, Henry. How to learn Russian. Based upon the Ollendorffian system and adapted for self-instruction. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
It is advisable for self-study to purchase the key to the exercises of Riola's grammar. This key is published by the same firm.
Russian grammar simplified. Published by Hugo's Institute for Teaching Foreign Languages.
Russian reading made easy. Published by Hugo's Institute, etc.
May be used soon after beginning the grammar.
Solomonoff, J. Russian composition. Parts I, II, and III. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1916.
Mr. Solomonoff is instructor in the London County Council evening commercial institutes.

The serious student of Russian will find it advisable to buy early in the study of the language a simple dictionary. The Russian dictionary, by A. Wassilieff in the Langhain series, published by Charles Scribner's Sons, contains the usual words with their pronunciation figured. David McKay, Philadelphia, publishes Hill's Vest-pocket English-Russian dictionary. W. J. Hernan, New York City, publishes a small phrase book of about 50 pages—What you want to say and how to say it in Russian.

IMPORTANCE OF TURKISH AND ARMENIAN LANGUAGES FOR FOREIGN SERVICE.

By ABRAHAM YOHANNAN.

TURKISH.

Turkish was the language of one of the greatest countries in Europe and Asia during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. A power which once influenced half the world, it overthrew and established empires, usurped the thrones of Persia, Arabia, Egypt, and Greece, and was dreaded by Italy, France, and Germany. Even now the Turkish language is spoken by millions of people belonging to a vast empire, and is more or less used in official circles from Tunis in Africa to the walls of China. It is the court language of western Persia; and in many provinces of south Russia and Afghanistan it is spoken as much as Persian. There are at least 25 written languages used in the Ottoman Empire, yet in spite of this babel of tongues, which is found chiefly at Constantinople, the strong individuality of the Turk has manifested itself in politics and government.

It is a regrettable fact that such a language has hitherto received little or no attention in America. The complete ignorance of it on the part of our countrymen has, from time to time, greatly impeded proper communication and intercourse between the two nations and given rise to most serious misunderstandings and difficulties in diplomatic as well as commercial affairs. A practical knowledge of the Turkish language is a requisite of diplomatic and commercial relations with the Ottoman Empire. It is essential in conducting the export trade of this country with the Mohammedan world, and in unfolding the treasures of modern science to the population.

It is expected that in the development of international relations there will in all probability result a closer connection between Turkey and the United States, and a growth of mutual interest. The secret of the success of certain European nations who gained prestige in dealing with the Turks, as well as with other orientals, lies in the fact that they learned their languages, adopted their customs, wore their costumes, and learned their mode of living; hence, they gained an intimate knowledge of their character, their needs, and requirements, and dealt with them accordingly. European manufacturers, for instance, understood perfectly the kind and style of goods and articles that were generally used by the orientals, and they supplied articles in that style, though it seems in many cases to be very clumsy and unwieldy to westerners. Bartering with a Turk is a complicated process and very vexatious, especially to one

who does not speak his language and know his habits. Scarcely a shopkeeper makes even a pretense of having a fixed price. He asks more than he expects, allowing a wide margin for dickering. If he should get what he asked, he would regret that he did not ask more. We must lose no opportunity to place ourselves in close communication both with the governing Ottoman element and with the numerous races subject to its sway.

While it is true that English-speaking interpreters are available in the principal centers, yet it is infinitely preferable to conduct negotiations of any kind directly, rather than by means of intermediaries of doubtful accuracy. And in the smaller towns it is practically impossible to find persons with sufficient command of English to render them suitable as interpreters. Furthermore, it is important for commercial enterprises to be able to prepare information and catalogues and lists in Turkish, since English is understood only by an infinitesimal part of the population.

A system of courses should be established by colleges and universities, designed to prepare students for foreign service in Turkey, either in the service of the United States Government, in business enterprises, or in scientific investigations. The courses thus offered should aim to make the students familiar with the general subjects required for successful work in Turkey, to enable them by means of this knowledge to gain quick mastery of general problems that present themselves in various occupations. The courses should also include something of the customs, history, beliefs etc., of the country, to develop a sympathetic understanding of the people, and to enable one to avoid giving offense through ignorance of prejudices or superstitions.

The Turkish language is of Tartar origin, a member of Ural-Altaic family, dominated by the law of vowel harmony and agglutination. Turkish has admitted a large number of Arabic and Persian words, grammatical forms, and even entire sentences. It is best coordinated with the study of Arabic or Persian, from which languages the great bulk of its vast vocabulary is drawn. For this reason the study of Turkish presents unusual difficulties to anyone not acquainted with some oriental language, and for the same reason it should not be introduced too early in a college course. The course should be framed for graduate students, but should also be open to specially qualified students who have not completed the full college course and to those who have had considerable linguistic training.

The successful completion of the courses offered will normally occupy three years in the case of candidates for diplomatic service and two years for those who prepare for commercial or other foreign service. In each case two hours per week will be sufficient. After a preliminary survey of the grammar it is best to take up at once the reading of easy texts, the details of the grammar being explained as they are exemplified.

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With English phonetic pronunciation, combining vocabularies, elementary grammar, idiomatic phrases and conversations, English and Turkish dictionary, money, weights, and measures.
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ARMENIAN.

The study of Armenian is made difficult by the alphabet, which closely resembles that of no other language, and by the fact that, although it is an Indo-

European language, the words seem totally unfamiliar to the learner. For this reason it should not be introduced too early in a college course, but rather reserved for more mature students or those who have had considerable linguistic training. There is no subject related so closely as to be coordinated with special advantage. Before taking up the reading of texts, considerable attention must be paid to the grammar, the details of which are of course taken up in connection with the reading of texts. To obtain results of any practical value the course must extend over not less than two years. A purely conversational method does not give a proper command of the language, but conversation-exercises can be introduced to advantage in the second year's work.

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PART IV. PERIODICAL LITERATURE.

USE OF PERIODICALS IN EDUCATION FOR FOREIGN TRADE SERVICE.

With Bibliographies of Periodicals and Periodical Articles.

By JOHN COTTON DANA,
Librarian Free Public Library of Newark, N. J.

It seemed quite simple to compile a list of periodical references which might be found useful in training for foreign trade and consular service, but as we investigated the subject we discovered three things: That such a list printed this week would be out of date the next; that any given list to be useful must, above everything else, be up to date; and that the value of periodicals in training for foreign service was far greater than we had supposed it would be. We, therefore, decided to give the results of our investigation in this field, feeling that it might prove useful to know how we arrived at our conclusions.

Our first search for articles on the subject in general was met, not unexpectedly, by a dearth of material. The papers and reports in English, Spanish, and Portuguese contained in the Pan American Scientific Congress Proceedings for 1915, the abstracts of these papers in the report on the commercial education subsection of this congress by Glen Levin Swiggett (Bur. Educa. Bul., 1916, No. 25), and those given in Dr. Swiggett's "Conference on Training for Foreign Service" (Bur. of Educa. Bul., 1917, No. 37), none of which are to be classed strictly as periodical references, were the only ones having constructive tendency. Other leads ended in expressions of opinion that such specialized training did not, but should, exist in some standardized and adequate form.[1]

Turning to the individual subjects requisite in a course on foreign trade, we found an abundance of material on the subjects themselves, with little on methods of teaching the use of it. During the last four years articles by the thousands have appeared, all or any of which might be suitable for collateral reading, but with little or no measure of their permanent, ephemeral, or comparative worth without an expenditure of much time in going through the mass critically. For it must be understood that the usual factors in discrimination do not hold in this instance and that ordinary processes of selection on authoritative grounds can not be consistently followed. That what a certain author writes or a certain magazine publishes on a given subject should be worth attention is ordinarily a workable rule for sifting references previous to examination of material. In modern business, facts take precedence of authorities, information is not valued for its verbal dress, and timeliness outweighs prestige. It is of small benefit to learn a noted jurist's exposition of a law if to-day's newspaper gives an inch of space to its amendment or repeal. This is especially true just now, since war action is annulling the past, unstabilizing the present, and promising for the future permanent change. Nor is length a factor

[1] Since the above was written, certain other articles have appeared which are given in the references.

in determining value. To reject for brevity, a correct procedure in other cases, becomes here arbitrary and unwise. For example, that an American chamber of commerce for Spain has begun active work may be the most important item in the "World's Markets" for June, while almost every article in successive issues of "The Americas," [2] although short and generally unsigned, could be used, as could each article in the department of international banking and finance of the "Bankers' Magazine." This applies to all the subjects except three, which touch the historical element in commerce, government, and law, and find their best treatment in books. Hence fact, recent and timely, seems the criterion for periodical valuation.

To recognize this makes clear the inadequacy of any bibliography of articles. It is inclusion, not selection, that is needed here, a continuous inclusion of all that may be useful (accompanied by a continuous rejection of what has passed its usefulness), continually collected, or, to use the librarian's technical word, cumulated, to date. No fixed list, however carefully approved at its printing, can do this. Daily its items become out of date, and their retention, which gives them a false importance, becomes an obstruction. Then, also, a really representative list would appall by the number of its items, although a short one chosen to show the sort of thing that may be found, and understood to be of intrinsic value only at the date of printing, may serve a useful purpose. Such a list we have prepared and appended.

There are two ways, one direct and one through bibliographic aids, that offer a feasible solution of how periodical literature may be used here to the best advantage. The first is the obvious one of seeing the magazines themselves. We give a selected list of the most suitable, slightly annotated and roughly classed. An arrangement of periodicals under the numerous headings chosen for the list of articles would, of course, mean frequent repetition of titles.

But the problem of inclusion may be more nearly solved, we believe, by supplementing direct use of periodicals with that of some such aid as is given in the Standard Daily Trade Service, published by the Standard Statistics Company, 47 West Street, New York City, at a subscription price of $120 a year. This is a combined digest and index to newspaper, periodical, and other sources of basic exporting information, supplying current news and forecasts in full. It consists of daily issues not exceeding 8 pages in length, for insertion in a loose-leaf binder, a monthly index whose every second issue covers the last two months; weekly tables and graphs of trade and financial figures of the United States for a period of 15 years. A personal service to subscribers is also furnished without additional cost.

This service gives full digests and excerpts of articles in newspapers, some 88 trade periodicals, and Government publications of the United States, Europe, Latin America, and the Far East; digests of legislative bills, proclamations, and other documents, and much direct information from its bureaus in Washington and Paris, the former keeping in such close touch with all governmental activity as to furnish within 24 hours data regarding legislation, court decisions, Federal Departments, boards and commissions, the Pan American Union, and similar organizations, and the latter supplying similar European information from two to four weeks earlier than it would otherwise reach the United States. French, Russian, Spanish, and Portuguese publications also are translated and digested. Subjects such as trade relations of countries, commercial products, export and import legislation and regulation, financial legislation and conditions, credits, international banking and exchange, foreign transportation facilities and projects, foreign commercial development,

[2] Publication now ceased.

shipping, marine insurance, and patent laws and their interpretation, are treated in themselves and many of them also as subdivisions under country and locality.

It seems to us that this short cut to current foreign commercial information could be used to distinct advantage by instructors and students.

Also useful is the foreign trade section of the Prentice-Hall Business Digest Service, published by the Prentice-Hall Inc., 70 Fifth Ave., New York City; subscription, with quarterly cumulations, $30. This weekly digests all the articles of certain business periodicals and certain articles of more general magazines. This service is primarily an index-digest to periodical articles, while the Standard Daily Trade is primarily a news purveyor and forecaster.

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The Bankers Magazine, monthly. Published by the Bankers Pub. Co., N. Y. Subscription $5.
Runs a department on international banking and finance.
Credit Monthly. Published by the National Association of Credit Men, 41 Park Row, N. Y. Subscription $3.
The Commercial and Financial Chronicle, weekly. Published by Wm. B. Dana Co., N. Y. Subscription $10.
Economic World. Published by the Chronicle Co., 138 Water St., N. Y. Subscription $4.
Many useful short articles. Analyses of foreign commerce of the United States and many foreign countries.
Chase Economic Bulletin, irregular. Published by Chase National Bank, New York City.

Business Organization for Exporting.

Associated Advertising, monthly. Published by the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World, N. Y. Subscription $1.50.
Commerce Reports. Weekly organ of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Dept. of Commerce. Obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Subscription $3.
The first source for exporting news; containing information mailed and cabled by our consuls, attachés, and agents abroad.
Exporter's Review, monthly. Published by Exporter's Encyclopedia Co., N. Y. Subscription $3.
Lists foreign trade opportunities.
Journal of Accountancy, monthly. Published by Journal of Accountancy, N. Y. Subscription $4.
Best accounting periodical.
Marine News, monthly. Published by N. Y. Marine News Co., N. Y. Subscription $3.
Gives a page or more to the news of each American port, shipyard information, marine insurance notes, and lists new maritime incorporations and ocean freights and charters.
The Nation's Business, monthly. Published by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D. C. Subscription $3.
Official magazine of the National Chamber of Commerce.
The Nautical Gazette, weekly. Published by the Nautical Gazette, 20 Vesey St., N. Y. Subscription $4.
An international newspaper. Page given to foreign trade, and another to marine insurance. Port development. Short unsigned articles
Printer's Ink, weekly. A journal for advertisers. Published by Printer's Ink Pub. Co., 185 Madison Ave., N. Y. Subscription $3.
Oldest and foremost of advertising magazines.
System. Published by A. W. Shaw Co., Chicago. Subscription $3.
Often the first to treat new subjects though generally in a cursory way.
The World's Markets, monthly. Published by R. G. Dun & Co., The Mercantile Agency, 290 Broadway, N. Y. $2.50.
A journal of information for all who are engaged in international trade.

Commercial and Financial Conditions in Foreign Countries.

Baltic Review, monthly. Published at 129A King's Road, Chelsea, London, S. W. 3. Subscription £1.
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Mexico, Financial and Commercial, semi-monthly. Published by Criterion Publishing Syndicate Inc., 15 Park Row, New York City. Subscription $2.
Poland, monthly. Published by American Polish Chamber of Commerce and Industry Inc., 953 Third Ave., New York City. Subscription $2.
Polish Economic Bulletin, monthly. Published by Sibunion Ltd., 123 Cannon St., E. C. 4 London. Subscription £1.

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Trans-Pacific, monthly. Published by B. W. Fleisher, Tokyo. New York office, 1 W. 54th St. Subscription $6.

International Law and Economic Policies.

American Economic Review, monthly. Published by American Economic Association, St. Albans, Vt. Subscription $5.
Most valuable here for its section of abstracts from foreign and American periodicals arranged under subjects. Reviews new books and documents also by class.

American Journal of International Law. Published by the Oxford University Press 35 W. 32d St., N. Y. Subscription $5.
Quarterly numbers give bibliography of public documents relating to international law.

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Published by the Academy of Political and Social Science, 39th St. and Woodland Ave., Phila. Subscription $5.
Articles in scholarly form treated at length by authorities.

International Law Notes, monthly. Published in London, obtainable from Baker, Voorhis & Co., N. Y. Subscription 9s. 6d.
Particularly full on private international law.

Journal of Political Economy, monthly. Published by the University of Chicago Press, Chicago. Subscription $4.

Millards Review of the Far East, weekly. Published by the Millard Pub. Co., 113 Avenue Edward VII, Shanghai, China. Subscription $10.
Covers commercial and political conditions.

North American Review, monthly. Published at 9 E. 37th St., N. Y. Subscription $5.

Political Science Quarterly. Published by the Academy of Political Science, Columbia University, N. Y. Subscription $5, including supplement.

World's Work, monthly. Published by Doubleday, Page & Co., Garden City, N. Y. Subscription $4.
Popular but accurate commercial, political, and economic news.

Industries, Geography, Commodities.

American Exporter, monthly. Published by American Exporter, N. Y. Subscription $3.
Devoted largely to American export commodities. Runs a page on office equipment. Also editions in Spanish, French, and Portuguese.

American Industries, monthly. Published for the National Association of Manufacturers, 30 Church St., N. Y. Subscription $1.
Not confined to the United States. Export trade and trade acceptances departments.

Asia, monthly. Published by the Asia Pub. Co., 627 Lexington Ave., N. Y. Subscription $3.50.
Journal of American Asiatic Association.

Commercial America, monthly. Published by the Philadelphia Commercial Museum for free circulation, mainly in Latin American countries, for the purpose of carrying to buyers reliable information concerning American manufacturers.
This museum, supported principally by public funds, is occupied solely in fostering closer commercial relations between the United States and other countries.

Dun's Review, international edition, monthly. Published by R. G. Dun & Co., the Mercantile Agency, 290 Broadway, N. Y. Subscription $3.
Illustrated articles on international industries only.

Export American Industries, monthly. Published for the National Association of Manufacturers, of which it is the organ, 30 Church St., N. Y. Subscription $3.

Geographical Review, quarterly. Published by the American Geographical Society, 15th St. and Broadway, N. Y. Subscription $5.
Reviews books, papers and magazine articles in its monthly numbers.

La Hacienda, monthly. Published at Buffalo, N. Y. Subscription $3.60. Revista mensual ilustrada sobre agricultura, ganaderia e industrias rurales.

Journal of Geography, monthly. Published at Menosha, Wisconsin. Subscription $1.
Elementary but suggestive articles on geographic and industrial subjects for teachers.

National Geographic Magazine, monthly. Published by the National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C. Subscription $3.50.

Statistics of Commerce.

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Agricultural and commercial statistics. Editions in English, French, German, Spanish, and Italian.

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ARTICLES ON SUBJECTS NECESSARY TO TRAINING FOR FOREIGN TRADE SERVICE.

The periodical indexes to periodicals which will be found most useful in selecting current articles on the subjects used in training for foreign trade are the Readers Guide, International Index, Industrial Arts Index, Index to Legal Periodicals, and the Public Affairs Information Service—all published by the H. W. Wilson Co., 958 University Ave., New York City. The first four, arranged alphabetically by author, title, and subject, are issued monthly with occasional cumulations of from two to six months in one alphabet, and annual cumulated bound volumes. The P. A. I. S. is arranged alphabetically by subject only. It indexes pamphlets, papers and proceedings as well as periodical articles, and notes the founding of new associations and their publications. Weekly, bi-monthly and annual issues.

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