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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

CHARITIES

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There were many sessions of the unparalleled Congress of Arts and Science in St. Louis last week, in which readers of CHARITIES might have claimed a legitimate place, and in which we have no doubt they were actually to be found. It is, perhaps, sufficient to enumerate the groups which dealt with municipal administration, the family, the urban community, the criminal, and the dependent, and, although it would be pleasant to dwell upon the eloquent and scholarly address by Miss Addams, the suggestive and comprehensive paper of Professor Howard, or the searching criticism of Lombroso's theories presented by Dr. Samuel G. Smith—we must leave these and many other papers for possible consideration when they are published as monographs or in the stately volumes in which the proceedings of the congress will doubtless eventually be gathered.

The two addresses on the dependent group were presented by Dr. Emil Muensterberg, president of the Department of Public Charities of Berlin, and Professor Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago. Those who are concerned with problems of relief have reason for profound satisfaction with the manner in which these two speakers conceived and carried out their part in the congress. With the assured touch of one who has long had an intimate acquaintance with systems of relief in all civilized countries, Dr. Muensterberg laid bare the nature of the relief problem, sketched the policies by which various countries have sought to deal with it, and in a masterly way showed the necessity on the one hand of a comprehension of the social and industrial problems in their entirety, and, on the other, for a modest estimate of the part in the solution of those problems

which can be undertaken by private charity or public relief. In these simple sentences Dr. Muensterberg, in opening his address, described what is meant by poverty:

Poverty means a condition in which there is a lack of the necessaries of life. The preservation of the life of the body is a necessity and the man who does not possess the means necessary to such preservation is poor. Whether it be directly through starvation or indirectly through disease and sickness brought on by insufficient nourishment, poverty must necessarily lead to the extinction of the physical life. The instinctive love of life in the individual will not allow him to submit to this result without resistance, and so in one way or another according to the circumstances in which he lives, he struggles against it. He will either beg the means of subsistence from his fellows, or, if this fails, he will resort to fraud or force in his efforts to obtain it. This means that he will strive to escape want by secret or forcible appropriation of the necessary means of subsistence. But so far as begging and force fall whether it be because his fellow men are also poor, or because they take sufficient precautions to protect themselves against fraud and force, so far the condition of poverty continues to exist and that consequence of physical degeneration makes its appearance which penetrates the whole being through disease and sickness, through moral neglect and embitterment of soul. Where wider circles of population fall into this condition we speak of collective poverty in contrast to individual poverty.

The closing words of the address, which we may also quote, indicate entire agreement with the views held by leaders in social work in America—a necessary increase in the relief of the immediate future expended under wise direction as a means toward the elimination of pauperism, and the final disappearance of the necessity for ordinary poor-relief:

And here we must not be led astray by the fact that to-day these measures still demand an immense expenditure of pub-

lic and private means, and that in the immediate future the question will be rather of an increase than that of diminution of this expenditure. And so far as we strive to enlighten the public mind in this sphere, and to effect improvement, we must always bear in mind that poor-relief and charity must always be content with the most humble position among those measures which are directed against poverty. He who helps the needy to help himself does better than he who supports the poor. The most earnest effort of every true friend of the poor must always be directed towards making poor-relief itself superfluous.

Professor Henderson's address dealt more directly with American conditions, and outlined a general policy with which sympathetic readers of CHARITIES would also find themselves in entire agreement. The central theme of the paper was the recognition of the standard of living, and the first tasks were shown to be the isolation of the problem of poverty from that of the problem of wages on the one hand, and from that of dealing with the criminal on the other. Those who heard Dr. Henderson's courageous declaration that we do not even know the extent of the poverty of our American cities, will look forward with increased interest to the volume which he now has in press in which, along with the relief systems of other countries, an account is given of that of American communities.

These two addresses are to be printed in an early number of the *Journal of Sociology*, to which valuable review of theoretical and applied sociology we are glad to have this opportunity of referring those who desire to go more deeply into the discussion of questions upon which a weekly review of philanthropy must touch more lightly.

*American
Institutions Held
Up to English
Eyes.*

The cruelty of neglecting the epileptic, idiotic and imbecile and the grave dangers to the community which such neglect brings, are becoming realized in Great Britain and some of the poor-law unions are considering what steps should be taken to care for these unfortunates. The "workhouse," as the asylum for the poor is called in England, gives them some little care, but no control. They may leave that refuge at their own will and many of them do so,

the females often coming back after a brief interlude of freedom as candidates for the maternity wards. These classes are the subjects of a recently appointed Royal Commission, headed by the Marquis of Bath and including several members of Parliament and other distinguished men, which is to consider the existing methods of dealing with epileptics and with imbeciles and feeble-minded or defective persons, not certified under the lunacy laws.

The *London Municipal Journal* says candidly that England is far behind in the treatment of these afflicted people, especially the sane epileptics, for whom there is now only one public institution available and that a recent one, owned by the London County Council, at Elwell. The *Journal* holds up the example of the United States in establishing colonies for defectives as one which should be followed. One difficulty, under present laws, is the minute sub-division of the country for poor-law purposes into unions, by which is meant two or more parishes. Each union has its workhouse, controlled by a local board of guardians and supported by local taxation, into which must be gathered all kinds of afflicted and dependent people, making proper classification difficult, if not impossible. A beginning of a better system has been made by a combination of two large neighboring unions, Manchester and Chorlton, to establish a joint colony for epileptics, which is now building.

It is possible that the Royal Commission will recommend legislation which will make compulsory some proper provision for the more serious classes of defectives under some system of combination of unions, analogous to the present association of parishes into unions for relief purposes.

An interesting instance of the extreme conservatism of the British mind in any question which touches on personal liberty, is seen in a suggestion of the *Journal* that when institutions shall be provided and the imbeciles and other defectives, whose present freedom to wander at large and propagate their kind is seen to be so hurtful, shall be gathered in and given proper care, the guardians should have the

power of compulsory detention, "for limited periods of, say, twelvemonths."

The situation is, in a sense, analogous to the reciprocities in social effort suggested by Dr. Crothers on another page. As pointed out in the September magazine number of CHARITIES on "The Hundredth Child," American public schools have something to learn from England in the establishment of special classes for exceptional children; England has as much to learn from America in the way of maintaining institutions for the truly defective.

An even more striking illustration of Dr. Crothers's thought, and in an entirely different field, is the fact that following the gathering in America of peace conferees from Europe, New York will send abroad a representative with a more definite mission of good will, to strengthen ties of sympathy and co-operation between the Italian government and those who care for its immigrant sons.

The Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants is planning a mission for its secretary, Gino C. Speranza, of the New York bar, which shall establish it in friendly relations with the successor of Senator Bodio, who has recently resigned as director general of the Department of Emigration; strengthen its existing auxiliaries in Italy and institute new ones; and, in general, promote an understanding of the work of the society and increase the amount of support and encouragement which it may expect from abroad.

Senator Bodio's successor has not yet been appointed, and the society wishes to enter upon the same footing of friendly regard which has characterized the régime of the late director.

But the main reason for the sending of Mr. Speranza abroad may be said to be a lack of understanding and sympathy in Italy with the objects and methods of the society. Many there cannot understand how Americans should give time and money to care for Italian immigrants and see that their rights are protected. Misunderstandings have arisen from this narrow view of philanthropic interest, which has at times gone so far as to hamper the society's work by keeping from it those

whom it could help. The society hopes that by sending its Italian secretary to his native land it may convince these doubting Thomases. Mr. Speranza's letters of introduction have been so arranged that he will meet the leaders of philanthropic and political thought who are interested in emigration, and take up in a practical way the raising of money and the securing of support for establishing a well-organized labor bureau to fight the padrone evils, and the even more difficult problem of settling Italian immigrants in farming sections.

It is the belief of the society that an exchange of views and visits between friendly people always leads to a better understanding and closer ties. The fact that an American society interested in Italians, sends one of its officers, Italian born and American bred, to explain the work it is doing for his countrymen, is not only a novel way of establishing friendly relations between people of different nations, but may yield, it is hoped, good results in a field where abuses and misunderstandings, and industrial exploitation to the detriment of both the immigrant and native workmen, have been rife.

*Distinguished
Advocates of
Peace.*

The Inter-Parliamentary Congress, the Peace Congress and the Exposition Congress of Arts and Sciences have called a group of foremost Europeans to this country, some of them leaders in the field of philanthropy and social thought. The workingman's interest in universal peace will be brought forward at a Faneuil Hall meeting for workingmen, which will be one of the sessions of the Boston peace meeting next week. Samuel Gompers will preside, and among the European speakers will be Herbert Burrows, London, representing the Social Democratic Federation; Peter Curran, representing the General Federation of English Trade Unions; Claude Gignoux, representing the Co-partnership Societies of France, and Henry La Fontaine of the Belgian Senate. Among others who may be mentioned are William Randolph Cremer, who has been called the "Dick Whittington" of Parliament, and who has led in much of the

social legislation; Percy Alden, founder of Mansfield House, London; Pastor Charles Wagner of Paris, author of "The Simple Life," a daughter of Richard Cobden and a member of the Rowntree family of economists, and the Baroness von Suttner, whose book "Lay Down Your Arms" has been called the Uncle Tom's Cabin of the peace movement. On October 12 there will be a large public meeting at Cooper Union, New York, at which several of the delegates to the Boston conference will speak.

In a less prominent way—but perhaps more typical of a succession of visitors to this country, investigators and seekers of friendly exchange of experience and accomplishment—has come Alfons H. Paquet, who represents a half dozen social and industrial organizations of Frankfort, Germany. Mr. Paquet has made a special study of the department of social economy at the St. Louis Exposition. Later his mission will include travels and investigations as to the care of dependent, neglected, delinquent and defective children; juvenile courts; industrial aid societies, settlements, education of the feeble-minded, problems of capital and labor, housing, higher commercial and sociological education, public libraries—in fact, a study of American charitable and industrial conditions and institutions, and the preparation of a bibliography of their literature—a task, it is to be admitted, not lightly to be undertaken nor soon to be accomplished. That the representative is not unfitted for so large a commission may be judged from the fact that Mr. Paquet recently made a tour of Siberia and Manchuria to bring to date Badacker's handbook on the north country of Asia.

Herr Paquet came to America with the definite object of study in this particular field. It was only last summer that philanthropic workers received visits from a young Frenchman, possessed of quite as large a fund of question marks, who landed in this country with not the least idea of taking up matters of the sort. "You see I came to spend some months in your country as a tourist," he explained half whimsically, "but when I found you had no museums or old churches, what was I to do?" What he did was to set about

learning of economic factors at the basis of American life—the big mills and bridges and transportation lines, following this with a study of settlements, hospitals, charitable societies and institutions—a score of things of which he had known nothing in France or taken for granted. He started home with several boxes piled high with reports, and a head drumming with new ideas resolved "to know something of my own country, now that I know so much more of yours."

*A Year of the
British
Post-Office
Savings Bank.*

The report of the British Post-Office Savings Bank for 1903 is interesting in its details. The deposits were about three and one-quarter per cent less, and the withdrawals nearly one per cent greater, than in 1902. Nevertheless, there was an increase in the number of new accounts and in the number of deposits.

The average amount to the credit of each depositor was £15 10s. 10d., or about \$75. In England and Wales, the proportion of depositors to population was one in four; in Ireland, one in ten; and in Scotland, one in eleven. The tendency is for the number of depositors to increase and the size of the average account to decline.

The system permits withdrawals by telegraph, investment in government consols, obtaining of annuities and life insurance, and the transfer of soldiers' deposits from the savings bank in India to the British Post-Office Savings Bank.

The report is useful in reminding us of how little has been done in this country along these lines, and what a vast field for good citizenship will be open to the United States Government when some postmaster-general finally breaks through the crust of inertia and opposition and establishes a postal-savings system in this country.

In this connection an editorial in a representative periodical such as *The Churchman* (September 10) has an interesting bearing:

Postal savings-banks are being urged once more in this country, as they have been from time to time since Postmaster-General James, in 1881, expressed his earnest conviction that they would inure more than any other measure of public importance to

the benefit of the working people of the United States. Savings-banks in the industrial and manufacturing seventh of the country's area are comparatively accessible. In the other six-sevenths, and for quite half the population, they rarely are so, and the people are deprived of a very important incentive to thrift. It is no new or untried thing, even in the United States, for Hawaii had postal savings-banks before annexation, and has them still. On a larger scale they are operated in Canada, in Australia, and in almost every country of Europe, always with safety to the depositors, and with positive advantage to the government and to commerce. Great Britain has deposits of \$500,000,000, on which she pays 2.5 per cent, and clears \$80,000 annually over expenses, though she has over 6,000,000 accounts. In this department our postal service is as far behind the age as it is in its rural delivery and in its parcels post, concerning which last Postmaster-General Payne has actually recorded his judgment that it is "an infringement on express business," as though any group of persons could secure a prescriptive right to exploit the public to their profit and its loss.

*The Ups and
Downs of
Town
Improvement.*

Town improvement, which Joseph Lee enumerates in this issue of CHARITIES as one of the three principal objects of the coming year's campaign of the Massachusetts Civic League, has been taken in hand in a Michigan community by an organization of women. In Kalamazoo, Mich., a bustling manufacturing place of about thirty thousand, possessed of no more than an average share of public spirit, the leading women have organized a civic league, with workable ideals, an energetic spirit of reform and a variety of lines of effort laid out.

One of the first movements undertaken was the cleaning of the streets—a task always strong in its appeal to women. Under the leadership of the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane, and with the co-operation of the mayor, the work of the street cleaning department was put in the hands of women to demonstrate what could be done. For some weeks the pavements all but shone, and Kalamazoo bid fair to become a "Spotless Town" indeed. Mrs. Crane took command of the street cleaning gangs, and worked early and late in the humble capacity of boss of a white-wing brigade.

About this time, however, there was a change of administration in the city government. A new mayor was elected, and

both he and the majority of the city council were of a different political faith from the men who had aided in starting the women's campaign for cleanliness. Appropriations took a twist, and for some reason, not yet explained to the satisfaction of the women, the street brooms which had been promised by the former administration failed to arrive. They were so long delayed for such various and ingenious reasons that the work could not go on.

Finally, it was whispered that in reality the brooms had arrived and were at that very time in hiding in the basement of a public building. It was mentioned in this connection that the Hollanders, from whose ranks are recruited most of the street cleaners, are loyal supporters of the party newly in power and, moreover, that while industrious they are given to a slow and dignified manner of action, suitable to representatives of a city government, but contrary to the practices demanded of her workmen by this new field officer of the cleaning gangs. But as to this, or other explanations, the reader cannot be enlightened.

About this time explanations were sought, and it is related that the new mayor sent to the head of the league a large bouquet of roses, appropriately American beauties, and supposedly an all-sufficient peace offering to offended womanhood. The women believed that they had asked for something wholesome and been given, if not a stone, at best a hot-house substitute, which might have conciliated the woman of a good many years ago, but had no soothing influence on the members of a civic organization of to-day.

The brooms have not been produced, and the streets of Kalamazoo are cleaned to-day much as they were in the past; but it is believed that the example of a pavement free from all the dirt which it is natural heir to, will not be without its effect.

A quieter, but no less significant undertaking on the part of the league, was that of supporting a visiting nurse. A small fee is required, where it can be paid, and through the churches, the physicians and through private sources comes word of

where helpfulness is needed. There is not a great deal of dire poverty in such a community as Kalamazoo. There is a sense of co-operation in much that is done, and there are bedridden women, cancer sufferers, mothers of new-born children who, otherwise, would know no care other than the occasional visits of a physician—a hundred and one cases—for whom the daily visit of this skilled worker to a small street, or an outlying neighborhood, has meant as much as do the visits of the nurses of the tenements.

Another step on the part of the league will be in the direction of organizing the charities of Kalamazoo.

That even small boys may be appealed to by ideas of self-government was made clear to those who had the opportunity to see something of the experiment described by Frederick A. King in this issue of CHARITIES. At the George Junior Republic, boys under fourteen are no longer admitted, so the responsibilities of government fall upon the older ones; but here was a "bunch" of boys of ten and fourteen, "handpicked for badness," as Mr. George called it, who lived and moved and had their being and under guidance developed an organized society among themselves. So steadily and irresistibly did ideas of law and order make their way in the minds of these lawless youngsters at Mr. King's camp, that the experience would lead one to hope for the carrying out of the experiment on a larger scale, by means of a department of the Republic or elsewhere. At present, five boys out of the ten are still at Freeville. They will be transferred to the main Republic but though living there will be kept distinct from it under Mr. King's charge, in connection with other work he will carry on there. This little group will be added to from time to time and, indeed, may prove the nucleus of an interesting extension of the Republic idea.

The leader in this undertaking is a Yale graduate who has for some years been a resident of the University Settlement, doing pioneer work as the first civilian police court probation officer in New York city. It was a jump from hand-

ling deserting husbands and fag ends of humanity to the task of caring for a batch of wayward youngsters, and yet the ideas, which, worked out up the east side of New York and down the west, settled family disputes and kept men and women from the workhouse, proved admirable guides to this new piece of work. Boys whom teachers and police officers and parents had found unmanageable, progressed from a scrappy confusion to clear notions of responsibility and decency. Through it all the qualifications of Mr. King as a leader of small boys were evident to those who saw his imperturbable calm in the midst of the storms that swept over the little community. The experiment has given new data of the effect of self-government—and coupled with self-government the notion of a connection between one's conduct and one's daily bread—on small children. It offered a side light on both politics and social economics.

*The
Tenement-house
Labor Law.*

The law regulating manufacture in the tenement houses, which passed the last New York legislature, goes into effect on October first. Its main provisions are that the entire tenement house is given one license for which the owner must apply; the manufacture of articles in an apartment in which there is a case of contagious disease is specifically prohibited; the use of rooms more than half below the ground is forbidden; the manufacture of articles in a living apartment is limited to members of the immediate family living in such apartment; and the contractor giving out the work is required to see that the house in which his work is done is licensed and the particular apartment is free from contagious disease. By these provisions, responsibility in every instance is placed where it properly belongs, on the landlord for the house, on the tenant for the apartment, and on the contractor for knowledge of conditions under which his work is done. This does away with the injustice which often resulted under the old law when a tenant whose apartment might be clean was refused a license, because of the unsanitary condition of the house, as under the old law the individual was licensed,

not the house. It will be noticed that while the number of licenses will be largely diminished, the number of workers may remain stationary. There being fewer licenses issued, the state Department of Labor can be more thorough in its work. In addition, the records of the Department of Health and Tenement-house Department are placed at its disposal, thus materially simplifying its work. The law is in the interest of public health, and its effect will be watched with interest.

*The Backyards
of a
Smoky City.*

In Philadelphia, Cleveland, St. Louis, Washington, Boston and other cities, the work of the Philadelphia Vacant Lots Cultivation Association, outlined on another page of this issue, is paralleled in juvenile terms—the cultivation of small city back yards with contests of flower-growing among school children which awakened not only industrious interest, but an enthusiasm which expresses itself in keen rivalry for the growing of the most brilliant blossoms.

With the close of the outdoor season, the fifth year of the Cleveland Home Gardening Association comes to fruition in such a contest. One hundred and forty-two thousand packages of seeds at one cent per package were sold to children this year. Thirty-two schools are competing for prizes, of which there are eight in sums of five and ten dollars. It is specified that the money shall be used for the improving or beautifying of the school houses and yards.

On the day appointed for the exhibit, the children take their flowers to the school and, with the help of the teachers, arrange them in the school hall or one of the long corridors. There are asters, nasturtiums, dahlias, four-o'clocks, bachelor's buttons and many other hardy blossoms. Hardy they needs must be in some sections, for the smoke is deadly to delicate plants. In one district, the school janitor tells that once in every two or three years the heads of the nails in the shingles are corroded and eaten off by the atmosphere. At this very school there was a basket of asters so large and perfect it was hard to believe they had not come from under hot-house glass.

The children are eager for approbation

and greet the judges with exclamations of, "O, isn't ours the best?" and "Have you seen any nicer than this school?"

It is easy to understand this anxiety if you go with them to the gardens where they have worked over each plant, tending and watering with infinite patience. Such lifeless, sooty, gritty earth! It is hard to make grass grow, let alone flowers, yet there is scarcely a section in the poorer districts of the city that is not brightened and beautified by small gardens. The Germans have inherited a love of flowers and will tell you, as you lean over the fence to admire a particularly bright bed of marigolds, "Yes, that's mother's garden. She looks after it." A moment later a white-haired woman appears at the door, smiling her pleasantest at your praise. One old woman expressed her feeling briefly but emphatically: "My man thinks flowers is better than rubbish."

The love of flowers is in the people and the Home Gardening Association has fostered it and made possible its gratification. The association is wholly self-supporting. This year, out of the money received from the sale of seeds, it has paid all expenses, offered the cash prizes, and paid for thirty-five lectures given in the public schools by Miss Louise K. Miller.

In addition it has conducted four school gardens in which vegetables were raised, the children working all summer under Miss Miller's direction. An interesting exhibit of the products of these school gardens has been made in a shop window to advertise a book on school gardens by the director. There were beets, squashes, tomatoes, carrots, beans, lettuce and potatoes arranged in mounds with a framework of flowers and leaves.

*Strikes and
Charity.*

That the charitable society should not act as an employment agency to supply strike breakers, on the one hand, and that it should not become an adjunct to the militant relief fund of a striking union on the other, are, perhaps, the two fixed boundary lines of action in the event of industrial unrest upon which charity workers can come to agreement. But between these two boundaries lies much that is mooted.

That there are problems growing out

of an industrial dispute which are lost sight of, even in a consideration of the standard of living as affected by the strike, is pointed out by *Co-operation*, published by the Chicago Bureau of Charities. To quote from an editorial:

"A deep sigh of relief has gone up from South Side charity organizations at news of the close of the stock yards' strike. A mooted question among societies engaged in charity, is the policy which should be pursued in regard to giving assistance to the families of strikers. Should relief be given or should it be refused on the ground that the striker can return to his employment and support his family if he will? Whatever policy is pursued is reasonably certain to arouse criticism from a large number of persons interested in a strike.

"But entirely aside from this question, every extensive strike brings to the charity organizations of its neighborhood a large increase of demands for help which must be given prompt attention. Every great strike throws into destitution many unfortunates who are not strikers, but whose opportunity for obtaining a livelihood is injured or destroyed by the strike. People who are ordinarily dependent upon the strikers for a living, such as laundresses, boarding-house keepers, etc., find their sources of income suddenly cut off and are compelled to turn to charity for assistance. Almost every strike also throws out of direct employment many persons who are themselves not strikers but who cannot work because of the shutting down of industries on account of the strike. These unfortunates do not receive the benefit of strike funds which are ordinarily provided by labor organizations for their striking members.

"So it happens that although the strikers at the stock yards were provided for by benefit funds and did not, except in rare and emergent instances, call upon charity societies for help, there were, nevertheless, many self-respecting and industrious families driven to want and compelled to turn to charity for assistance. The resumption of activity at the 'yards' will rapidly restore all such people to a position of self-support.

"There is some apprehension that the strike breakers, brought into the city in

large numbers and now being rapidly turned into the community without employment, may precipitate heavy demands upon the charities. Such a condition will be especially hard in view of the fact that the strike breakers are largely non-residents and should, when in need, be assisted by the communities in which they have a legal residence."

Under the title *Burdens of Recent Immigration as Illustrated in the State of New York*, the Immigration

Restriction League publishes eight militant pages of figures arranged and discussed by its secretary, Frank H. Ainsworth. With one exception, the paragraph on fraudulent naturalization, the leaflet bases its argument on reports of charitable institutions and sentences quoted from interviews with their managers. Figures are used to urge that New York is caring for an increasing proportion of foreign-born insane in its state hospitals and foreign-born patients in the general hospitals of New York city; that crime and pauperism are increasingly apparent among the foreign born and that there is growing danger from contagious disease brought by immigrants.

Mr. Ainsworth shows that the average amount of money brought by Italian, Hebrew and Polish immigrants is less than ten dollars, and that while 71.3 per cent of last year's immigrants were from southern and eastern Europe, nearly eighty per cent of those destined for New York state were from southern and eastern countries.

Using figures credited by a New York newspaper to members of the State Commission in Lunacy, Mr. Ainsworth declares that each resident of New York state pays one dollar a year for the care of foreign-born insane patients. Referring to the article by Frank Tucker in the January magazine issue of CHARITIES, in which the total annual deficit of the principal private hospitals of New York city was shown to be about \$450,000, Mr. Ainsworth states that the deficit of the Presbyterian Hospital was about twenty-five per cent of the total operating expenses, while over fifty per cent of the patients treated were of foreign birth.

"The question is, then," he says, "if there had been no applicants for free treatment other than citizens of this city, would not this particular hospital not only be free of debt, but have a surplus?" Contrasted figures from the report of the Lying-in Hospital show on the one side a deficit of over \$80,000, and on the other, the fact that of the outdoor patients eighty-seven per cent, and of the indoor sixty-two per cent, were of foreign birth.

In drawing the conclusion that contagious diseases are, to a greater or less extent, introduced and spread by aliens, the report lacks figures for support, but points to a government report of the prevalence of trachoma in Hungary, and suggests that trachoma and tuberculosis may be brought by large numbers of immigrants who are passed through Ellis Island because the disease has not yet developed marked symptoms.

Figures from the city magistrates courts and societies for the reformation of juvenile offenders are used to show an undue proportion of foreign-born offenders, both adult and juvenile, and the well-known case of Annie Ventre, a twelve-year-old worker in a jute mill, whose parents acknowledged swearing falsely to her age, forms an example of the disregard of truth believed to exist among some immigrant parents who wish their children placed early at a gainful occupation.

Estimates of the number of fraudulent naturalization papers secured by men who wish to vote or, more often, to secure city positions of the street cleaning grade, are given as further evidence of the need for restrictive legislation.

Arrangements for the fifth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, which is to be held at Syracuse, November 15-18, are well under way, and will soon be completed. Invitations to appoint delegates to the conference have been sent by the secretary to the charitable and correctional institutions of the state, both public and private, and to public boards and officials. A large attendance is expected.

The program, which will appear in an early number of CHARITIES, is varied and interesting. The papers to be presented

should furnish the basis for much discussion at the conference. Delegates appointed should be reported to W. D. Ives, assistant secretary, the Capitol, Albany, N. Y., who will inform them as to the program, hotel headquarters, reduced rates on railways, and other points of interest in connection with the conference.

The New York *Sun*, in a recent issue, severely criticizes the State Commission in Lunacy for its appointment of Michael Hines, the proprietor of a liquor saloon on the Bowery and Republican leader in the Second New York Assembly District, to the position of secretary, at a salary of \$4,000 a year, of the newly created board to examine mentally affected immigrants.

The *Sun* says in conclusion: "The deep research of Mr. Hines and his special fitness for the place to which he has been appointed were shown in a recent published interview, when he remarked that the board of which he is a subordinate was composed of 'alienists,' so-called because they had to do with aliens."

Explanations of this remarkable course of action would seem to be in order from the members of the State Commission in Lunacy.

It is not often that CHARITIES enters upon what could be considered an obituary notice, but an exception can well be made in the case of John H. Blacklock, who died this month in Baltimore. The *Baltimore American* compares his work in that city with that of Jacob A. Riis in New York, as that of "the most useful citizen." His time was devoted to the boys and youths, to lead them into healthful sports and to wean them from the city streets.

Mr. Blacklock's methods are such as to well command followers in other cities. Some years ago he began the movement in Baltimore for the establishment of athletic grounds in the public parks, and asked the newspapers to be his chief allies. Through their columns, week after week, month after month, and even year after year, he kept his projects before the public, and as soon as he succeeded in one, began another. No man in Baltimore

The Qualifications of a Newly Appointed Secretary.

The "Father" of Baltimore's Athletic Fields.

used printer's ink without paying for it as he. Every editor was won to sympathy. He was a clever writer and his copy was perfect—things which sound small, but counted in results. Modesty kept him in the background, and not one in a thousand of those who enjoyed the results of his philanthropic work knew their benefactor. His policy to sink his personality was based partly, also, on his belief that his work was of such great moment as to permit of no self-laudation. It was not till the appointment of a new park board that he became a familiar figure and organized forces which ultimately accomplished his ideas. Swann and Latrobe parks were developed; athletic fields were built in Paterson and Carroll parks; basketball courts at Federal Hall; then came park gymnasiums and instructors to do the teaching and finally the organization of great public games.

R. C. Dunn for Governor. *Co-operation* in its last number reports that R. C. Dunn, who was auditor of the state of Minnesota at the time of the creation of the Board of Control of that state, and the principal advocate of the change, is now a candidate for the office of governor of the state. The arguments which he advanced in favor of the Board of Control dwelt largely upon the better business method which would be introduced in the management of the institutions and the economies that could be practised. Strong opposition has arisen to Mr. Dunn's candidacy because of allegations that while he was state auditor he did not properly or legally discharge the duties of that office. It appears, also, that the State Board of Control has not given the satisfaction which had been anticipated, and that a sentiment in favor of the restoration of the supervisory State Board of Charities is manifest.

Program of the Massachusetts Civic League.

JOSEPH LEE.

Our program for 1905, somewhat tentative as yet, is upon three main lines: a campaign (growing naturally out of our tramp campaign of 1904) for the treatment of drunkenness less as a crime and more as a disease than at present: an

agitation of the question of the juvenile court; and village improvement, the last named centering, more or less, on the problem of *the forgotten boy*—namely, the boy of fourteen to eighteen years old who has left school, but has not as yet secured a definite or satisfactory job. The drunkenness and juvenile court campaigns practically converge on the probation system, which is also the natural and strategic point of attack upon our whole idiotic system of county prisons, the famous rag-bag system under which the righteous and the unrighteous are gathered together as on the day of judgment. The easiest class to draw out of these prisons is the class that never ought to be in prison at all, but which ought to be placed, for a definite time, and under the watchful charge of an officer of the court, upon good behavior, out in the world where life can still be lived and character built up.

It will be a decided help in this campaign that our State Conference of Charities is to give one session to probation in general and one to the juvenile court—afternoon and evening of Thursday, November 10. The outlook for immediate legislative results is not especially bright; we can hardly hope, even with other and easier tasks that are likely to turn up before the legislature adjourns, to duplicate our 1904 record of seven bills and two resolves passed, in securing the passage of which the league played an important or an essential part, and one bill successfully opposed.

The league's village improvement campaign began in earnest last October with a conference of local improvement societies, resulting, last April, in the formation of the Massachusetts Conference for Town and Village Betterment which besides holding its meetings at least once a year, is going to publish, in co-operation with the league, a series of leaflets of the same sort as two—upon the work-test for tramps and upon the treatment of the poster disease—which the league has already issued. Leaflets in course of preparation are: upon "Landscape," by Frederick Law Olmstead; upon "Public Buildings," by J. Randolph Coolidge, Jr.; upon the "Ashfield Vacation Work," by Charles Eliot Norton; and "The School that Made a Town," from "The Rebuild-

ing of Old Commonwealths," by Walter H. Page.

The forgotten boy, as above defined, with his possible playgrounds, swimming pools, evening schools and meeting places, will be made the central figure in this village improvement work, and the object of any definite campaign; but there is, at the beginning of it, much general ground to be covered, and besides getting up these leaflets we are collecting all sorts of information about work already accomplished, making a list of lecturers, and getting up a photographic contest with an eye to the possibly resulting material for lantern slides. Through this village improvement work and otherwise, we are making a special effort to get all local organizations, including (besides improvement societies) arts and crafts, churches, women's clubs, and (we hope) the grange—interested in the general objects of the league.

So that we are hoping sooner or later to get many things done; things that are good and are worth far more than the money and effort that will be put into securing them. But do not think that getting these things done is our main object. What we care about is not the immediate result, but the power that is generated in securing the result. We aim at the building up in this commonwealth of Massachusetts of a public purpose that shall make such things as our rag-bag county prisons impossible, and shall eventually take conscious hold of our whole social problem in a radical spirit similar to that which conceived the public school, and shall secure results worthy of the conscience of Massachusetts and expressive of the real intention of her citizens. It is in the hope of aiding in this truly and radically constructive process that we are doing what we can to give to the public purpose as it already exists a definite and conscious program in the accomplishment of which it may find the development that comes from articulate expression.

The American Civic Association.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF.

The dominant note in philanthropic work is coming to be co-operation and co-

ordination. So it must be for civic work—not necessarily mere organizations, but a more effective utilization of those already at work. In other words, we must apply the modern trust idea to our modern philanthropic and civic work.

The American Civic Association embodies the idea of co-operation and co-ordination. As has already been pointed out in CHARITIES, it represents the union of two older societies that were working to a very considerable extent in the same field.

In its initial activities the thought has been to bring national and local bodies working for civic betterment into harmonious relations. It has instituted no propaganda to organize additional societies, but it is using its influence to bring existing agencies together for effective co-operation. It aims to make such bodies acquainted with each other and with each other's activities. Such knowledge begets intimacy, and intimacy begets co-operation, and co-operation means greatly increased usefulness.

Is there need for co-operation and co-ordination? Let the reader look round about him! At the risk of re-telling a story already familiar to the constituency of CHARITIES, let me relate a recent incident. At the last meeting of the New York Board of Estimate five park projects were brought up for consideration. These, with twenty-three similar propositions made since January 1, were referred to the engineer for a report. These numerous propositions were fostered by men and women who knew nothing of the plans. They had no relation to each other, to the general needs of the city, nor the requirements of the particular cases. They are likely to kill each other, and that speedily.

Unfortunately, this is not a solitary instance. Each city and very likely each field of endeavor can cite similar instances.

The need for an organization like the American Civic Association, which, with high ideals, aims for higher standards through a fuller utilization of existing agencies, is apparent. That it will succeed seems likely, because it exemplifies the tendencies of modern industrial life in the domain of public endeavor.



THE LUNALILO HOME FOR AGED HAWAIIANS, HONOLULU, I. H.

The Bequest of a Kamehameha

THE LUNALILO HOME FOR AGED HAWAIIANS AND ITS INMATES, THE REMNANTS OF
A PRIMITIVE PEOPLE

Mary Roberts Smith¹

Palo Alto, California

There is a story—how authentic we may not know—that King Lunalilo in his last days, embittered by the greed of his *alii* (chieftains), who were obviously waiting only for his death to seize upon his private property, suddenly determined to leave it for the benefit of the aged of his race. Whether this be true or not, it is certain that King Lunalilo, reigning only thirteen months—from 1873 to 1874—and dying prematurely of consumption, foresaw the decline of his race, already foreshadowed in their unsuccessful competition with the white race; and that in providing for the aged Hawaiians, he has left one of the most useful as well as permanent monuments of any of the Kamehamehas.

Until the middle of the century the great body of Hawaiians were living their original simple life as yet almost unaltered by contact with white people. Piety, morality, the habits of decency and industry—the New England ideals of

civilized life—though not incompatible with the hospitable, simple habits of the early Hawaiians, had been impressed upon only a small proportion of them by the missionaries. Where fish, taro, poi and bananas, the principal articles of food, were to be had with a small amount of labor all the year through; in a climate which required slight shelter only for the greater part of the year, and one garment only for decency at any time, one or two more in the family was of no consequence. Unlike many semi-civilized peoples, the Hawaiians neither abused the aged nor made them unwelcome. Their universal spirit of hospitality is shown as well in the adoption and exchange of children; the earlier custom of infanticide testified rather to the excessive sexuality characteristic of tropical peoples which make the burden of child-care irksome to the indolent Hawaiian woman, than to any lack of native generosity. Cheap and abundant food, shelter and clothing requiring the minimum of labor, and a natural overflowing kindness of character combined to prevent the early Hawaiian family from

¹Mrs. Smith, sometime associate professor of social science, Leland Stanford Junior University, spent a year in investigation and study in Hawaii. She is at present research assistant in sociology to the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

disintegrating, in spite of unchaste and indolent habits.

When, however, the city-ward movement was inaugurated by the growth of seaport towns and the immigration of white people, the Hawaiian family began to fall to pieces. Curiosity, the fascination of city excitements, and the short-sighted notion that a living could there be had more easily than by fishing and growing taro, drew the simple country Hawaiian to Honolulu and Hilo and all the seaport towns. Seldom could the whole family go—for the families with all their collaterals were very large—and thus the domestic disintegration began. A mobile population everywhere precipitates a sediment along its road: women, old people, superfluous children are left behind, while the more energetic and adventurous members of the race, magnetized by the novelty of urban conditions, hasten on, only to be in turn precipitated to the bottom of the mass.

But in addition to this inevitable social disruption, the Hawaiian has been losing the few arts and industries with which he had eked out his happy-go-lucky existence. Gradually the sandal-wood, lavishly cut and as ingenuously sold to the trader for a fraction of its value, died out. Within the last twenty years the *kou*, a wood as beautiful and as valuable as mahogany, of which household utensils were made, has also died out. In the vicinity of cities and towns, the materials for making mats and tapa are no longer available, and these really skilful and artistic industries will probably die with this generation. Among all primitive peoples the woman is perforce more industrious than the man, but when the material for carrying on the domestic industry of mat and tapa making was lacking, the Hawaiian woman had no initiative to help her to turn to another field. Moreover, with the breaking of family ties, the newly acquired habits of morality and industry were broken too. And thus it happens that the Home for Aged Hawaiians founded by King Lunalilo when there were few Hawaiians not already provided for by their own relatives or by the charity of some missionary family, has come to fill a very real and increasing need of his people.

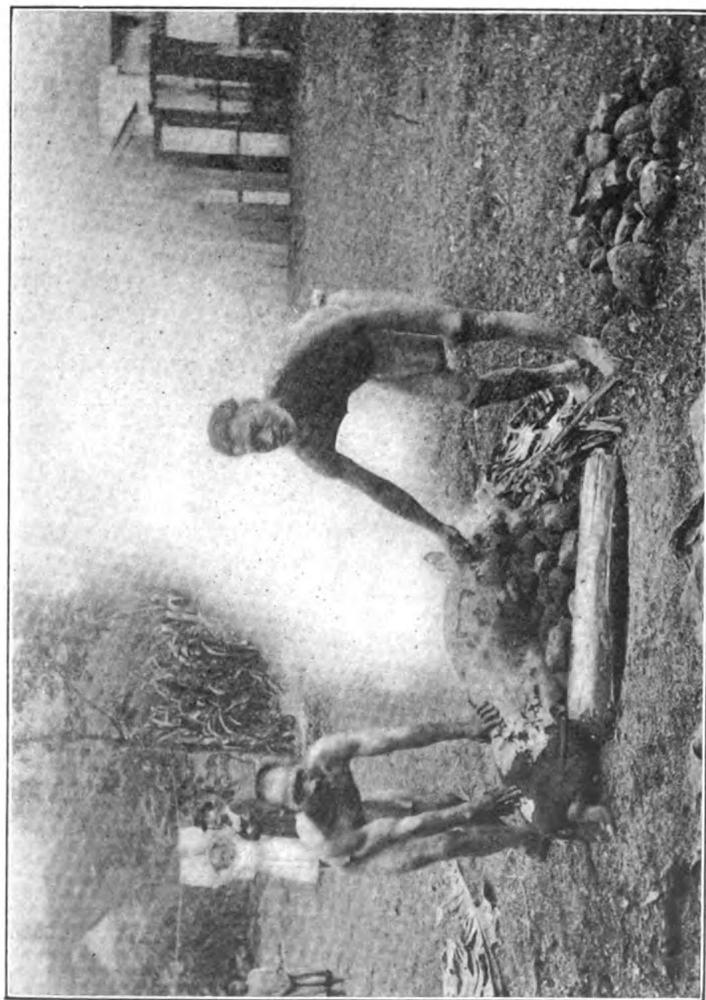
The estates, with shrewd management and increase of land values, now provide an ample income to sustain an institution population of sixty persons. The buildings of gray stucco are built with reference to the hot climate and are, on the whole, unusually well adapted to their purpose. A central, two-story block provides the public and private rooms of the superintendent and a dining-room for the inmates; and has a picturesque tower affording a wonderful view of Honolulu, Diamond Head, Punch-bowl, and Tantalus. On either side are long, one-story wings, divided into rooms for two inmates each, extending for a hundred and fifty feet in both directions and ending in hospital wards and nurses' quarters. For perfect ventilation these rooms open at both ends upon a covered veranda. In the rear, the arcade veranda is exactly on a level with a large grassy court into which the decrepit inmates can creep every day. Separate bath-houses at the right and left of the court, and a kitchen, laundry, and milkroom connected by a covered way, complete the group.

The institution stands on the upper edge of Honolulu, overlooking the city and the harbor and in the midst of sixty acres of land lying on a beautiful slope at the foot of the mountains. The few acres immediately about the buildings are set in lawns with ornamental shrubbery and form the most charming grounds in the city. The rest of the estate is farmed, except where assigned as taro and banana patches to the old men who are still able to work a little and who like to earn pocket money by selling the product.

The Hawaiian rarely begs, but retains a semi-filial dependence on the missionary families, or when detached from them, feels no repugnance at being sent to Lunalilo because he feels that it belongs to his race, having been founded by his king. The Hawaiian indigent shows far less of the pauper taint than the inmates of any American almshouse. He seldom finds fault with his food or clothing; he almost never runs away to get drunk

The Home and Its Surroundings.

The Hawaiian Indigent.



TAKING THE ROAST PIG OUT OF THE IMU.
THE GREAT FESTIVAL OF THE YEAR—KING LUNALILO'S BIRTHDAY.



SAMUEL PUALOA—OLI SINGER AT LUNALILO, WHO
CHANTS THE OBSOLETE SONGS OF HIS PEOPLE.

and return *via* the police, as the Irish-American pauper frequently does; and when he falls into voluble argument, rising sometimes to a quarrel with a fellow inmate, he is very readily quieted by the half-humorous, firm, yet motherly discipline of the superintendent. Indeed, he is the least objectionable of paupers; cheerful, polite, comfortably and uncomplainingly sure that he will be taken care of and that it is the business of these energetic and benevolent "ha'ölè"—white people—to do it.

With the exception of the debauchee of the upper classes, the usual almshouse types are all represented here. The larger part are decent, decrepit

of the early missionaries, who was later commissioner of education under Kings Kamehameha III. and IV. Mrs. Weaver was for seven years matron of the San Francisco almshouse and speaks the Hawaiian language. The kindness, energy and executive ability which she, like her remarkable brother, General Armstrong of Hampton, inherited from their New England missionary parents, have greatly endeared her to the inmates. The visitor is struck not merely with the cleanliness, comfort and picturesqueness of the institution, but with the friendliness of the atmosphere and the prompt attention to small concerns which means so much to infirm old people. .



SURF RIDING—THE ANCIENT HAWAIIAN PASTTIME.

old people, but there are also the blind, the adult imbecile, the harmlessly demented, the paralytic, and the incorrigibly lazy able-bodied. Among such as these the death-rate is high and medical attendance and nursing a very important part of the care required. Hawaiian women have been found to make the best nurses, for they can be trained to be cleanly, and yet not too squeamish, while they are uniformly trustworthy, and have kindly dispositions.

The institution is controlled by three unsalaried trustees, two men and a woman, appointed by the Supreme Court from among the best known citizens of Honolulu. The chairman of the board receives a commission for the management of the property and has so administered the estate as to provide a good income from increasingly valuable investments. The trustees appoint a superintendent, who is, since 1900, Mrs. Ellen Armstrong Weaver, the daughter of Richard Armstrong, one

*The Keeping
of the
Old Festivals.*

The great festival of the year, King Lunalilo's birthday, is celebrated after the ancient Hawaiian custom, with a *luau* (feast), in which all the inmates and employés, and a large number of invited guests, take part. Except that it is eaten at tables rather than sitting on the ground, it is prepared and decorated much as it might have been fifty years ago. The principal dish is pig, roasted in an underground *imu* or oven. Early in the morning two Hawaiians heat a quantity of small stones to a red-hot temperature; the hole in the ground is lined thickly with banana and other greens, the dressed pig and yams laid in, surrounded with the hot stones, covered with green leaves and burlaps, and then buried under a mound of earth. After six hours of roasting and steaming, the *imu* is opened, the coverings taken off, and the meat and vegetables taken out most delicately and perfectly cooked. With it is

served *poi*, *luau* or greens, relishes of peppers and *kukui* nut, fruit and soda water.

On this day the inmates all have new clothes; according to the Hawaiian custom, all wear *leis* of bright-colored flowers about the neck and on the hat or hair. These aged wrecks would delight the eye of an artist, with their bronze skin, black or grizzled hair, bright *leis* and clothing, and expression of beaming hospitality.

On such days as these, too, the old *oli* and *mele* singers chant the obsolete songs of their people, in a language almost unintelligible to a modern Hawaiian, recounting the deeds of heroes and the genealogies of their kings. The songs are accompanied by the graceful gestures and rhythm of body possessed by most Hawaiian men as a result of their national sport of surf-riding. Keoana, who was once court musician to King Kaukeauli, plays a curious nose-flute, producing the note by breathing into it from the nostril instead of the mouth. The language of the nose-flute was telegraphic, used to transmit messages over long distances by means of various combinations of rhythms and intervals.

Thus, once a year, at least, the old Hawaiian recalls what he was before the *haöle* came. Seeing him thus, rejuvenated with feasting and music, one recalls what a very lovable creature he must have been before he had added to his native unmoralities the subtle vices of civilization.

When day after day one sees these decrepit creatures creeping about the court or lawn surrounded by the loveliest tropical foliage, looking upon a rare landscape, fed and clothed abundantly, looking forward to nothing except to die in peace, one forgets the modern word "progress." A blind man wanders about picking red peppers from the shrubbery and eating them as if they were sweetmeats; a half-demented, quarrelsome old fellow sits against a sunny wall arguing violently with an imaginary opponent; the old women sit on the grass under the trees washing and ironing after the primitive fashion; the aged Hawaiian teacher—the "pupil of the missionary"—proudly reads aloud the morning newspaper in stentorian Hawaiian, to a group of old men in the arcade; and at twilight one hears the faint, melancholy piccolo notes of the old player of the nose-flute—he who was once court musician to King Kaukeauli.

After all, they are happy in their fashion, perhaps more truly comfortable than ever before. Certainly nowhere else except on the outlying islands can the original Hawaiian be seen so little tainted with civilization: lazy, happy, kindly, courteous; not troubled by the decimation of his race of which the eager *haöle* (whites) talk so much, passionately fond of music, taking the world as it comes, and above all pious—the old-fashioned Hawaiian passes away as he lived, comfortably.

To Country and Cottage

THE EFFECT UPON INSTITUTION CHILDREN OF A CHANGE FROM CONGREGATE HOUSING IN THE CITY TO COTTAGE HOUSING IN THE COUNTRY

R. R. Reeder

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In the training of children anywhere, whether in home, school or institution, the degree of individual freedom that may be permitted, or of individual attention given, are in inverse ratio to the number cared for. It is a case in which a mere

¹This is the first of a series of articles by Mr. Reeder based upon the experiences associated with the moving of the New York Orphan Asylum from a "barracks" type of institution in Manhattan to the present site overlooking the Hudson.

increase of quantity necessarily produces a change in quality. Two or three curious pedestrians may stop when or where they please along the street, but if two or three hundred should avail themselves of such a privilege at the same time and place, they would be ordered to "move on." One or two boys may ascend or descend the stairway by leaps and bounds, but if

a hundred or even fifty boys should attempt such freedom of locomotion the result would be appalling to all who haven't strong nerves. And we would call it disorder.

So it happens that where large numbers of children are cared for in one place, system and order regulate and control the spontaneous exuberance of childhood. The program for every day is definitely planned, the child's life is under constant surveillance—or coercion—and but little opportunity is given for initiative or natural reaction. In most institutions the system is so precise and mechanical, the daily routine so simple, and the space boundaries so contracted, that a roll-call might be taken at any hour of the twenty-four and all heads accounted for.

Under such conditions there is little or no opportunity for the natural feelings or motives of the children to express themselves; all is artificial and conventional, not to say forced. Even the play hour is a period of restraint—if not on the part of the teachers or caretakers—at least by the mass of children and the narrow quarters allotted for play space. No two or three or small group of children can control for their pleasure any little game or play without molestation from others not in harmony with the sport. The result is that only the simplest, emptiest plays, such as sliding down a board or rolling a hoop are indulged in. When toys or play apparatus adapted to a higher order of play are presented to children thus situated, the play value cannot be extracted and the toys are quickly disposed of because of the loose tenure of property rights. One of the earliest and most cherished interests of the child is possession and one of the first words he learns to say is "mine." But this right and interest are rudely trampled upon by the dead levelism of the mass.

Institution life need not be so barren, and ought not to be. Much of the child's lost heritage can be restored to him, and ought to be.

Play Life. It would not be so bad if this tyrannical evener of individual qualities dominated the study, or work hours, only, and the child were left free to express his natural self in play, as is the case with the child of the public

school. The importance of freedom, spontaneity and richness in the play life of the child can scarcely be overestimated. The kitten chases its tail, the puppy tears its master's slipper and the little lamb skips in the meadow, that they all may be better prepared for making a living and for self-protection in adult life. Play is the preparatory school of life. The play life passes through successive stages and runs a definite course. It is the natural and experimental school of childhood. The most important thing for a little child to do is to grow, and the next most important thing for him to do is to play. But these two are very closely related. There cannot be healthy growth of both mind and body without healthful play.

Play is the first form or stage of most of the serious purposes of later life. The beginnings of language, literature, art, domestic and scientific interest, common industries, etc., are all play forms. They are the foundation and foreground, the true microcosm of adult experiences. Other foundation can no man lay than is laid in the nature of the child. To ignore it, or to fail to build upon it will surely arrest the development of the child and stupefy his mental faculties.

It is a well-known fact that children pass through successive stages of play development. Young children from four to eight years of age enjoy plays that are highly imaginative. Their delight is to rear most imposing and fanciful superstructures upon very slight foundations of material and fact. The dramatic and make-believe qualities are largely in evidence. These fancy flights are the purest spiritual activity—the very poetry of childhood. To condition or environ the child so as to inhibit this free expression of the imagination is to clip the wings of a bird just learning to fly, and thus arrest a natural development. The condition of play is a maximum of freedom for the child with a minimum of interference on the part of older people. Jean Paul says, "I am afraid of every hairy hand and fist that paws in among this tender pollen of child flowers shaking off here one color, there another, so as to produce just the right carnation." But this is just what we do when we mass under one roof hun-

dreds of children, and then provide through system or organization a routine of activities for almost every hour of the day.

"Playing House." One of the greatest delights of children is "playing house," which involves so many of the interests of later life, such as the location and building of the house, the improvised furniture, the various departments of home industries, cooking, sewing, laundry, care of dolls, receiving calls from neighbors, long dresses, ladylike manners, care of the sick, calling in of the family doctor, etc. To carry out such a series of imaginative experiences, along with the building and planning and the various associated industries, requires several days, and sometimes weeks. The child will return to the play house again and again, adding a new touch each time, tearing down here, and building up there, enriching the original conception with each change, and all the time enjoying the fairyland of his own creation. Such rich, life-giving, mind-expanding play-development is impossible to children massed in great numbers and within narrow bounds. Where there are several hundred with equal rights on the common playground, the group for such a continued and co-operative play interest could never get together, nor maintain their integrity as a group, even if once selected by a natural sympathy of interests. Again, older children on the same common grounds might not be in favor of such a performance and would be liable to break up the whole undertaking if once begun. The same restrictions that prevent the children in one stage of development from indulging in a rich and interested way their play instinct, will operate in a similar manner against those in other stages of development, and thus the plays of children so situated are brought to an impoverished dead levelism, empty of all richness of content and void of inspiration—a mere bodily exercise that profiteth little.

The First Response. The first response of the children of the New York Orphan Asylum to the changed environment which the cottage plan and rural location brought about was manifested in the new-found freedom of play. Play

houses began to spring up here and there on the spacious grounds like Jonah's gourd. Building material of all kinds and furniture, including everything from old pieces of carpet to leaky tea kettles, were in great demand. Children who were old enough to have passed this stage of play interest let go their pent-up enthusiasm in these plays of younger children. It was as though the wings of their imagination were suddenly given the power of flight and they essayed at once to soar.

There was no common ownership in these play houses. Each one represented the combined purpose, labor and self-sacrifice of two or more proprietors. Property interests and rights were sharply drawn and respected. This interest alone as a by-product of the play-house enterprise is of great value to institution children—a point which will be developed more fully in the discussion of the economic training of children.

Playhouses, like kites and marbles, come and go with the seasons. It is a little late in the season for them now, but a dozen or more are at present tucked away in obscure corners of the Orphanage grounds. Some are mere lean-tos against the fence, others only sheds, while one I just visited is furnished with seats, carpet on the floor, pictures on the wall, some kitchen utensils, and a rude weapon or two showing the pioneer spirit of the proprietors. It was only the other day that a little boy told me with glowing interest how he had been an invited guest to one of them and had partaken of its hospitality in the form of roasted apples and chestnuts. No doubt many a royal feast has thus been enjoyed in these banquet halls of the children's own building—feasts of which I have not heard, for not every boy is as frank as the one above mentioned. Maybe it does occasionally lead to the indulgence in some forbidden fruit, to "special arrangements" with the cook, or the pantry boys and girls. That must be reckoned with. Enrichment of the child's life in any direction is sure to bring its temptations. But such evils are usually transitory, and are not to be weighed against the expansion of mind and growth of soul that arise out of the various centers of interest awakened by these plays.

Child Labor and the Law

Homer Folks

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New York

However great our admiration for the federal system of government, however profound our confidence in its future, we must admit that the progress of social reforms requiring legislative action offers peculiar difficulties in a nation in which forty-four separate states must act independently each of the other. From time to time the people become conscious of social evils which are plainly removable but only through legislative action. However clear and unmistakable the merits of the case for legislative action may be, however profoundly the evil may shock the moral sensibilities of the people, the collated statutory history of such reforms makes but a sorry showing.

As an illustration, we may refer to the legislation concerning the removal of children from almshouses. It would seem that nothing which could possibly carry weight with any reasonable being, had ever been, or ever could be, said in favor of the retention of children in almshouses. Yet, what a halting, hesitating, blundering course the history of legislation to this end presents. As early as 1856 a select committee of the senate of New York, having given five months to an investigation of the charitable institutions of the state, reported that the almshouses were "for the young, the worst possible nurseries," and esteemed it a great public reproach that children should be permitted to remain therein. Eleven years later the State Board of Charities was established, and nine years after that a statute was enacted forbidding the sending of children to poorhouses. Meanwhile, Michigan, in 1870, had passed legislation for the establishment of its State Public School for Dependent Children (removed from almshouses), Massachusetts, in 1872, had abolished the almshouse department at its State Primary School, separating adult paupers from children in its state institutions, but leaving them associated seven years longer in city alms-

houses and twenty-one years in town almshouses. The subject was given much prominence at the National Conference of Charities and Correction, in the public press, and in many other quarters. One state after another enacted legislation until the casual observer might have considered the question as practically settled. Nevertheless, in 1902, over thirty years after the passage of the first law on this subject, barely a dozen states—about one-quarter of the whole number—had passed such legislation, and even where enacted, the laws were far from adequate enforcement. In states so enlightened as Illinois, provisions for the removal of children from almshouses were eliminated from bills pending before the legislature in 1897 and in 1899; Connecticut took a backward step in 1897, and Iowa actually refused to pass such a statute in 1904.

A somewhat more favorable showing has been made in the movement for juvenile courts. A great awakening on the subject of children's courts and the probation system dated from the establishment of the Chicago court in 1899. The probation system had been in successful operation in Massachusetts for thirty years but had not been adopted elsewhere. The publicity attending the earlier work of the Chicago court, coupled with the active propaganda undertaken by the *Juvenile Record*, the organ of the Visitation and Aid Society of Chicago, ably seconded by CHARITIES and other organs of social progress, resulted in the adoption of similar legislation in a number of states. At each recent national conference we have been able to congratulate ourselves on the extension of this very important reform to additional states and cities. Nevertheless, when we stop to consider those to which the system has not been extended, we must admit that even with the aid of a definite and conscious, though unorganized, movement

for its extension, it will be a very long time at the present rate of progress before the benefits of a separate court for children and the opportunities of the probation system are extended to anything like a large majority of the neglected and wayward children of this country.

Shall a similar history be written in regard to child-labor legislation? The subject is not a new one on the statute books of the American states though, as yet, it has found no place on the statute books of some of them. The past three or four years, however, have seen a widespread and almost startlingly sudden consciousness of the evils of child labor, and corresponding efforts to secure its regulation by legislation. Notwithstanding the fact that the cause is particularly touching in its appeal, it must be admitted, that to the present, the history of legislation pertaining to child labor is far from encouraging. Those who have interested themselves in all parts of the country in this subject—and pretty nearly all organizations having any social purpose have become interested in it—expect doubtless to meet persistent opposition, but may they hope that when the history of their efforts is written, when perhaps a score of years have passed filled with consistent and self-forgetting work, may they hope that then they may point to something like an adequate set of laws on the statute books of all the American states? This would seem to be a reasonable minimum to anticipate, and yet the history of other social reforms does not in itself afford hope that even this modest result may be obtained.

*The National
Child-labor
Committee.*

The one fact which encourages hope that a more satisfactory result will be secured in the child-labor movement than in any preceding movement is the existence of the National Child-labor Committee. The agitation for the removal of children from almshouses, and, to a less extent, the juvenile court movement, have suffered from the absence of the constant opportunity for the exchange of opinion and information and for the development of interest in the subject in all parts of the country. The

lack of continuity thus far in the child-labor movement in some states, and a failure of the friends of the movement in neighboring states to present a united and steady front to a common enemy, may perhaps be thus accounted for. The National Child-labor Committee represents a new phase in legislative effort for a social reform. To Edgar Gardner Murphy of Montgomery, Ala., is due the primary suggestion for the organization of such a committee, the first public announcement of which was made in CHARITIES of April 29, 1904. To him, to Mrs. Florence Kelley, Felix Adler and William H. Baldwin, Jr., belongs the credit for having, during the past year, secured a membership for that committee of commanding influence, which must command a respectful hearing in every state in the Union. It is not an unimportant event that with a full knowledge of the delicacy of the task to be undertaken, the opposition that must be encountered, the misrepresentation of motives that must be met, such men as compose this committee have given their adherence to the plan, and have definitely undertaken to assist in every state in the Union in securing reasonable protection of children. That such persons as former President Grover Cleveland of Princeton, N. J., Cardinal Gibbons of Baltimore, Hoke Smith of Georgia, Clark Howell of the *Atlanta Constitution*, Miss Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, ex-Commissioner Robert W. de Forest of New York city, Bishop Greer of New York, Judge Lindsev of the Juvenile Court of Denver, Mrs. Emmons Blaine of Chicago, John Graham Brooks of Cambridge, Isaac N. Seligman of New York, Bishop Wilmer of Atlanta, Dr. Kirkland of Nashville, Talcott Williams of the *Philadelphia Press*, John S. Huyler of New York, Mr. Devine, the editor of CHARITIES, President Cassatt of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, Mrs. Decker of Denver, president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, J. W. Sullivan, the labor leader, Senator B. L. Tillman and others should be willing to stand responsible for a continuing body devoted solely to the question of child labor, is in itself a most significant and encouraging fact.

This committee has been most fortu-

nate in securing as its secretary Samuel McCune Lindsay, who has recently returned from a successful administration as commissioner of education of Porto Rico. Dr. Lindsay has for some years held the chair of sociology in the University of Pennsylvania, and has a wide acquaintance with public men and public affairs. The committee plans to have two assistant secretaries, one of whom will give his attention especially to legislation in the Southern states, and one to the Northern and Western states. A. J. McKelway of Charlotte, N. C., hitherto editor of the *Presbyterian Standard* and the *Charlotte News*, has been secured for one, and will devote his entire time to the work of the committee. An office has been opened in room 512, of the United Charities Building, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city. Agents of the committee have already made some preliminary observation of conditions in several states.

The committee will aim to supplement the work of local child-labor committees, and in those states in which committees are not already in existence it will aim to promote their organization. It will be a medium for interchange of information concerning existing or pending legislation and its enforcement, and concerning the existing conditions as to child labor in different localities. It will aim to utilize, and give the widest publicity to the results of authentic investigations. It will aim to inform interested persons in all parts of the country of the progress made in each locality, of new legislation secured, and new steps in its enforcement; in short, it will aim to make the fruits of the experience of each the common possession of all.

Further than this, and perhaps most important of all, it will undertake original investigations of the conditions of child labor in particular industries and employments in various localities. In the works of Dr. Adler, "investigation, and then fresh investigation, and always fresh and further investigation," will be one of the prime objects of the committee. Its work will be conservative, constructive, directed toward certain definite ends, and it will expect, whatever temporary obstacles it may meet, to continue its efforts

until at least a reasonable success is attained.

The National Child-labor Committee has not considered anything in the nature of a uniform or a standard child-labor law, and it is not upon its calendar. It will aim rather to stimulate interest and to disseminate information, feeling confident that in each locality there will be sufficient public sentiment, when the facts are made known, to demand and, ultimately, to secure adequate remedies.

The women's clubs throughout the country have taken an active part, during the last three years, in the child-labor movement. The General Federation of Women's Clubs at its biennial convention, held at St. Louis, Mo., last May, for the information of its constituent members, adopted resolutions in favor of a definite national program throughout the United States. The program adopted by the federation and recommended to its members is as follows:

- (1) That no children under sixteen years of age shall be permitted to work at night; that is, between the hours of 7 P. M. and 7 A. M.
- (2) That no children shall be permitted to be regularly employed who cannot read and write simple sentences.
- (3) That in states in which these two provisions are already secured, we should secure the enactment of the Standard Child-labor Law, as outlined by the National Consumers' League (see Handbook for 1904, pp. 11 to 13), and the Newsboys Law.

As these resolutions represent, so far as we are aware, the only attempt to state a definite national program of child-labor legislation based upon a study of all legislation and efforts to secure its enforcement up to the present time, it will be of interest to examine them somewhat closely.

The subject of child labor at night is one which is already the subject of agitations in several states which have not yet been brought to conclusion and is likely to occupy a large share of attention in various communities during the coming season. Looking at the matter broadly, it seems to be recognized everywhere that night labor makes peculiar and unusual demands even upon adults. In

*General
Federation
of Women's Clubs.*

*Child Labor
at Night.*

institutions in which regular night labor is necessary—such as hospitals and kindred agencies—it is very common to so arrange the work that no individual shall be called upon for night service continuously for a long period of time, but that there shall be rotation in certain groups in assignment to night service. It has been observed in such institutions that night labor has peculiarly insidious evil effects, even upon healthy adults, and that there are few who can perform it continuously for a considerable length of time without impairment to bodily or mental vigor. If such are the facts among adults, how much more serious must these results be among children whose bodies and minds are so much more susceptible to any unfavorable influence. Aside from the physical exposure in going to and from places of employment at night and the great moral dangers—especially to girls—involved in night work, the case against night labor may be rested upon the broad fact that regular employment at night is everywhere abnormal—an unusual tax upon the bodily and mental activities, a severe test of the resisting power of the strongest and most mature, and, therefore, a thing from which children should be relieved.

The Educational Test.

The second proposition adopted by the Federation of Women's Clubs, that the ability to read and write shall be a condition precedent to the regular employment of any children under the age of sixteen years, is probably but the beginning of a much greater differentiation and refinement of child-labor regulation. It must have occurred to everyone that the prohibition of child labor up to a certain age is a very crude, even though fairly effective, method. The thing which we care about, of course, is that the child shall not be required to labor until his bodily and mental development, including his store of reserve nervous energy, are such that he can be employed in the manner proposed without injury to his full development. If he attains this at an age earlier than the one in the proposed statute or regulation, there is, so far as he is concerned, no reason why he should not be permitted to work. On the other hand,

if he fails to reach this stage of development at the age mentioned, there is no reason why he should be permitted to labor; and if he is permitted, the results—though strictly within the law—will be just as serious as though they were without the law's sanction. The difficulty in the enforcement of a law vesting much discretion in local officials in such matters, the difficulty of framing statutes which will secure a real test of a child's physical and mental abilities, is so great that we shall probably always find it necessary to accept more or less rough and ready restrictions, knowing that as to some few children the law may possibly work hardship in both directions.

The test of ability to read and write is, however, so simple a one and so easily applied that it has already found place on several statute books.

The Consumers' League Standard Child-labor Law.

The limits of this paper prevent anything like a detailed examination of the child-labor law suggested by the Consumers' League as a desirable measure for general adoption wherever practicable. In general, it includes the features of the existing law of Massachusetts, with certain features of the laws of New York and Illinois, which are considered as in advance of those of Massachusetts.

It is evident that there is one very substantial basis upon which the cause of substantially uniform legislation may rest its case. While different industries exist in different states, while the conditions in any particular industry may differ slightly in different states, children are pretty much alike in all parts of the country. The age at which they attain the minimum physical development consistent with the ordinary number of hours of steady labor per day is about the same everywhere. There is much to be said, therefore, in favor of an effort to place upon the statute books of as many states as possible reasonably uniform laws for the protection of very young children, these laws being drawn not with reference to existing evils in particular industries in those states, but with reference to what we know of the degree of development which children must attain before they can be ex-

pected to perform steady labor without injury to their physical or mental development. We may be sure that if in various states the temptation to utilize child labor in violation of such provisions does not already exist, it will be likely to appear as industries spread from state to state under changing economic conditions. From this point of view the movement takes on a broader, sounder, more comprehensive form, in proceeding, not against particular employers in certain localities, but for the purpose of securing a minimum of protection for all children in all parts of the country. Without attempting to count the numbers or forecast the location of the prospective opponents, their fire will be developed soon enough; the friends of protective legislation may be the stronger if they do not seem to be the attacking party.

Enforcement. Before those who have been or may be successful in securing the enactment of child-labor legislation, there lies the greater task of securing an efficient enforcement of such laws. The community which has a child-labor law which is disregarded is probably in a less desirable condition than that which has no law on the subject. The teaching of experience in this, and other similar questions, seems to be that enforcement is possible only when adequate governmental machinery is provided for the purpose. Voluntary and continual compliance on the part of the industries affected is but an idle dream. Enforcement through the efforts of voluntary and casual inspection is almost equally hopeless. Humanly speaking, the only way to enforce the child-labor law is through systematic inspection by public officials selected for that purpose, giving all their time to the work, held to strict accountability, and receiving reasonable remuneration. The next step after securing the restrictive law, unless such provision can be incorporated in the restrictive law itself, is to secure legislation requiring the appointment of the necessary staff of inspectors, and providing for their salaries and expenses. Here again, we must ordinarily expect to meet and overcome the same opposition that is to be met in securing the restrictive legislation, with

perhaps some reinforcements, for the number of those who are in favor of righteous laws, but against their enforcement is quite remarkable.

Even when restrictive laws and a provision for inspectors with an appropriation for their salaries, have been secured, the work is far from completion. It is just at this point that the wary opponent is likely to attempt to administer an opiate to the entire movement by securing the appointment of inspectors who will fail to carry the law into effect. Only those who have been close observers of public administration understand to how large an extent, in the absence of constant effort on the part of right-minded citizens to the contrary, those public officials, whose duties include some oversight, supervision or regulation of private interest for the public good, become the very bulwark through which such interests are enabled to operate the more effectively. Thus, the policeman appointed to preserve order becomes at the worst a promoter of disorder and sharer in its revenue. Thus, the branch of the state administration created to control railroad interests for the public good, becomes the body through which such interests the more effectively promote their schemes and secure meanwhile a certificate of good character. Thus, it happens over and over again in municipal, state and federal affairs that the very machinery created to correct abuse is captured bag and baggage by the interests sought to be regulated, and practically becomes a part of their own machinery. Thus, even factory inspectors have become, at times, agents for

*Seeing it
Through to the
End.*

concealing or condoning violation of factory legislation. To prevent this result it is necessary that those who take the responsibility of starting the movement shall see it through to its logical end, by arranging either that all these positions are included in the competitive lists of the civil service, or, when this is impracticable, that the appointing power is left no possible excuse for making bad appointments, the names of suitable persons willing to serve having been urged upon him by those who had a right to be

heard. Should any timid voice urge that this is "going into politics," then I reply, if we are afraid to go into politics to that extent, we may as well not take up the matter at all. If it is "politics" to prevent the appointment of persons to public positions who will seek to nullify the laws, it is the kind of politics from which no right-minded American citizen has the right to try to escape. Those who are interested in progressive legislation oft-times have the most inadequate, I was about to say grotesque, notion of the manner in which most appointments are made. They conceive of our executive officials, mayors, governors, and presidents, as sitting in some lofty altitude, remote from human intercourse, and endeavoring in the calm light of reason and patriotism to select the most suitable men for office. The facts are, almost without exception, that whenever an office carries with it any authority intended to protect the public well-being as against private interests, those very interests are stirring heaven and earth, though often concealing their course most adroitly, to secure the appointment of those who will not carry the law into effect. In those states which have anything like a well-organized, fairly-administered competitive civil service, the factory inspectors, and perhaps also the chief factory inspector, should be appointed in this manner. While it may not always insure the best possible appointment, it is likely to prevent the selection of candidates either from purely partisan considerations, or upon the request of the opponents of the law. When so appointed the inspectors should have the protection of the civil service system to prevent their removal for partisan reasons, or because of doing their duty. In other words, they should be removed only after the receipt of a statement of the reasons therefore, and a full opportunity to be heard in their defence. We cannot always penetrate into the human mind far enough to discover the real motives for public acts, but if we prevent removals except after written notice of the proposed cause and an opportunity to be heard, experience has shown that this is usually sufficient. There is one further condition, however, that is re-

quired, and that is the continuance of an alert watchfulness on the part of private citizens over the operation of the entire system, and a consistent effort to interest public opinion in the adequate enforcement of the law. If the child-labor movement fails in any locality through lack of such sustained interest, then it is we, ourselves, who must be blamed, for it is ourselves, the citizens, who create that public opinion, which, in the long run, dictates the laws that shall go upon the statute books and the manner of their enforcement.

**Compulsory
Education.**

The advocates of child-labor legislation are frequently met with the statement that they are attacking the problem at the wrong end; that instead of seeking child-labor legislation they should seek to secure compulsory school attendance. What then is the logical connection between compulsory attendance laws and child-labor legislation? It is perfectly obvious that in those states in which the public schools are inadequate to permit the attendance during the full school year of all children, it is idle to suggest a compulsory attendance law as a remedy for the evils of child labor. The fact that it is just these localities that the suggestion is most frequently made, creates grave doubt, to put it mildly, as to whether the suggestion is made in good faith. By all means, so far as actual school facilities permit, let us have compulsory attendance laws, but in their absence shall we postpone factory legislation? Because we have not yet provided adequate facilities for the child's education, shall we permit him to work through long hours of the day or night at labor that must tend to unfit him for future usefulness? The suggestion is preposterous. Compulsory attendance laws and child-labor laws should be carefully adjusted, one to another, but the compulsory attendance law is the natural sequel. The natural course of such legislation seems to be, first—the law forbidding the employment of the children; second—the machinery for its enforcement; third—the law requiring the children, when removed from the factories, mines, stores and elsewhere, to be in attendance upon regular instruction.

A National Responsibility.

I would venture to say that this question of elementary education is to my mind a national question; that is, national in that it bears an essential relation to the quality of our future national life, to the character of our citizenship, to our dealings with federal questions, and particularly with the intricate problems involved in our new possessions. In those states, therefore, wherever they may be, in which, owing to the rural character of the population, and hence its diffusion over wide areas, or the necessity of a double system of schools to provide for white and black children, or the inadequacy of the revenues, or any other reason, it is impracticable at present to maintain an adequate elementary school system for all children from local taxation, I would strongly favor the assumption of the remainder of the task by federal authority, and from the federal funds.

It may be that at some time, a generation or so hence, conditions may have so changed that local authorities can provide adequate school systems, but why wait a generation or more? In every other direction we are doing large things in a large way and are getting results quickly. In industry, in transportation, in commerce, we are not content with the slower methods of earlier years. Why should we be in those things which deal with educated citizenship? We are a nation of vast resources, fully adequate to every task that can legitimately be imposed upon us, and for one I would hail with delight the day when a reasonable proportion of that income should be devoted to the preparation for citizenship by elementary education of all the children in all parts of the country who otherwise would not receive it.

The Task Will Be Difficult.

Those who have read of the long-continued efforts of Lord Shaftesbury and his colleagues, of his repeated defeats, and final victory, may have felt inclined to congratulate themselves that no such prolonged struggle would be necessary in this later day and in this democratic country. Let us not deceive ourselves. The history of the past two years has some chapters of encouragement, but more of disaster. In several states with the issue distinctly and clearly drawn, with public sentiment apparently aroused, with nothing like an adequate argument against their proposition, our friends have gone down in inglorious defeat before the plain brutal strength of industrial interests. It is to be no child's play; human nature and economic conditions have not changed as much as we may think. The business interests that, mistakenly, as I firmly believe, consider their interests menaced, must be expected to fight and will not be easily overcome. It may not be difficult to secure laws preventing child labor in factories—in states which have no factories; it may be possible to secure a law preventing child labor in all factories except glass factories—in states which have only glass factories; it may be possible to secure laws preventing child labor in factories during school sessions—in communities where the school sessions are exceedingly limited or altogether absent; but when it is a question of actually removing children who are in factories, mines, stores, telegraph offices, and so on, we must be prepared for a long and persistent effort, perchance for repeated defeats, but we may reasonably expect that, if we stand by our colors and remain faithful to our tasks, we shall everywhere win in the end.

Vacant Lot Gardens vs. Vagrancy

R. F. Powell

Superintendent Philadelphia Vacant Lots Cultivation Association

Ten years have elapsed since the late Hazen S. Pingree of Detroit boldly announced that "if we will give the members of Coxey's Army the privilege to cultivate the vacant lots in our cities

and have what they produce as a reward for their labor, we can stop this tramping instantly."

The assertion was received by the general public with a good deal of doubt and



THE STORE THROUGH WHICH THE PRODUCE OF THE PHILADELPHIA VACANT LOT GARDENS IS SOLD—THE BOYS WITH THE CARTS GO THROUGH NEIGHBORING RESIDENCE STREETS TO TAKE AND FILL ORDERS—THE WAGON CARRIES SURPLUS VEGETABLES TO THE CITY MARKET.

some derision, perhaps, because they did not see how such results could be achieved. Although no general or systematic effort has been made to try the plan throughout the country, it has been tried most thoroughly in a few cities, especially in Philadelphia, and through it results have been achieved that prove beyond question that Mayor Pingree was right in the main.

First, it need scarcely be said that farming is a great industry—so great that more than half the working people of America are engaged in it. It is the most primary and most essential of all the industries. The demand for farm produce is almost unlimited in extent. It is the one and only industry in which men could all engage and not starve. It is the only industry not already apparently overcrowded. It furnishes more than one-half of all exports shipped beyond our ports. These facts, standing out boldly and undisputed, were, perhaps, the basis of Mayor Pingree's belief. At any rate, the success of the work in Philadelphia and the phenomenal results obtained go to prove that what the great majority of men out of work want is—*opportunity*. In the Philadelphia work, the board of managers have

endeavored at all times to impress this idea, not only upon the general public, but upon the "out-of-work" class as well. This year about eight hundred families have availed themselves of the opportunity to cultivate gardens. The aim of the board of managers has ever been to bring the work as quickly as possible to a self-supporting basis so as to free it from every possible pauperizing influence, and there have been interesting developments showing that that end is rapidly approaching.

From year to year, the cost of each quarter-acre garden has been reduced to the contributors, until this year it is believed that not over five dollars per garden will be necessary to complete the year's work, whereas the first year each garden cost the association \$18.25. But it is not this reduction in cost per garden alone that causes the board to think that the work can be brought to a self-supporting basis. Every year since the work began the more efficient gardeners have been encouraged to undertake some kind of self-employment on their own account. Small farms near the city have been encouraged, and many families have not only tried the plan, but have succeeded in many cases far better than when they

had regular employment in the shops or factories. It was not, however, until this year that a decided effect upon the gardeners resulted.

Early in the season, a group of fifteen families who had cultivated gardens from three to five years under the association, formed themselves into a club and jointly rented nine acres of land. They subdivided it among the members of the group. Some families adhered to the quarter-acre garden, others took half and some three-quarters of an acre, and still others worked for the president of the club for wages and he in turn undertook the cultivation of all the land that had not been parceled out. They have paid every expense in connection with the work, including the rent (\$15 per acre), and the season is now so far advanced that success of the enterprise is fully assured. Those who worked for wages have received at the rate of from \$9 to \$12 per week, according to their skill.

The gross return from the nine acres will not fall far short of \$3,000 in value, or \$200 per family. When it is considered that the men engaged in this enterprise are largely men who could not find other steady employment at scarcely any price, and that they are here engaged but about half their time, and then for only about seven months in the year (April 1 to November 1), and that even thus only partially employed they are able to make more than half the average wage of the able-bodied younger men engaged in other pursuits, it is clear that if sufficient land had been placed at their disposal to fully employ their whole time they would earn a far better subsistence than the ordinary laborer can at current wages.

D. F. Rowe, who is manager of this graduate's farm, was a helpless paralytic when he came five years ago to the association to ask if his two little grandchildren might cultivate a plot. He helped them by sitting on a stool and pulling the weeds



A GLIMPSE OF VACANT LOT GARDENS IN PHILADELPHIA—THE AVAILABLE LAND IN THIS SECTION FAILED TO SUPPLY PLOTS FOR ALL WHO APPLIED—ONE FAMILY, DECLINING TO ACCEPT THE REFUSAL OF THE OWNER OF NEARBY UNUSED PROPERTY, LAID OUT GARDENS, AND OTHERS FOLLOWED; LATER THE OWNER BECAME MUCH INTERESTED IN THE SUCCESS OF HIS UNWELCOMED TENANTS.

from among the little plants, showing the children (one seven years old and the other eleven) how the work should be done. He immediately began to improve in health and at this writing is the manager of this nine-acre farm and is cultivating more than five acres of land on his own account. The proceeds of his last year's work on the vacant lot gardens was about four hundred dollars. This year it is perfectly safe to say that he will do much better. But the family look upon the improvement in his health (for he now walks without even a cane and does much of the work on his five-acre plot) as being of far more importance to them and to him than the proceeds from his garden. Mr. Rowe fully expects that next year four or five of the ex-gardeners of the association will join his group.

In another section of the city, the demand for gardens was so great that more than seventy-five families were left on the waiting list for want of sufficient gardens, notwithstanding the fact that there were more than two hundred in that immediate section. Adjoining the association's gardens, was a tract of eighteen acres not in use, but its owner was unwilling to loan it to the association. Many of the families begged for gardens on this plot, saying they would not in any way injure it, etc., but not having authority to use it the board declined to touch it. Then one of the applicants on the waiting list decided not to wait longer, boldly staked off a little plot on this eighteen acres and began digging it up, saying that if the owner drove him off, well and good, but he was going to take his chances. He had scarcely begun work when others began digging and then others, each staking off what he wanted. In two weeks, the whole eighteen acres were taken up, and more than sixty families were at work. The owner was notified, became interested and allowed them to proceed. No finer gardens could be found in the city and every expense connected with them has been paid by the cultivators. The result will amount to at least twenty cents per hour for every hour devoted to the work.

The association gives no alms, but it

stands ready to give all out of work employment on demand, at a wage of \$1.25 per day. The produce cultivated by this class of labor is sold and the proceeds are turned into the treasury. The first year there was some doubt as to whether sufficient returns could be secured from the crops to pay such a rate of wages, considering that most of the men knew nothing about farm work, and that they were, as a rule, otherwise deficient on account of age, ill-health, etc.; but when a balance was struck at the end of the first year, it was discovered that had a wage of twenty-eight cents per hour been paid, there would have been no loss.

At the end of the second year, it was shown on a somewhat larger operation that a wage of forty cents per hour might have been paid without causing a deficit in the association's account. This is the fourth season that this feature of the work has been in operation and at this writing there is every prospect that the experience of the previous years will be repeated.

As an educational force, vacant-lot gardens and school gardens have no superiors. The keynote of the Portland Conference of Charities, if any one phase of helpful endeavor was emphasized more than another, was that of "settlement work"—"the opening of opportunities to men for both work and play, and kindly advice or instruction as to how to put these opportunities to their best use." The injunction, "by the sweat of thy brow shalt thou eat bread," is being interpreted more and more to mean that to eat thy bread by the sweat of other people's brows is wrong and sinful in the eyes of both God and man. Every charity worker and teacher seems to have become fully imbued with the idea that a life of usefulness is the only honorable life that one can lead—an idea which has permeated educational work as well—in the kindergarten, manual training, domestic science and agricultural schools. But men cannot do if no opportunity is open to them.

It is this idea, that it is better to give men an opportunity to work where they can make good wages, than it is to give them soup or shelter, that brought forth vacant-lot gardens in Philadelphia and has made of it a growing success.

The Reciprocities of Social Effort¹

Samuel M. Crothers

Cambridge, Massachusetts

We follow the course of a great river and are impressed by its triumphant progress. The current has carved its way through every obstacle. But when the river meets the sea, and contends with its tides, it drops the burden which it has so long carried and the bar is formed. It is as if the river were itself building a barrier against the ocean which it has so long sought.

As we ascend a mountain we see a cloud cap on its summit. As we draw nearer we feel the keen winds that are driving across the peak. We see the particles of mist hurrying by, but the cloud remains. The warm air from the valley when it has reached the summit reveals its burden. The bar forming at the river's mouth; the cloud forming at the mountain's top are symbols of the experience which comes whenever our individual efforts reach that which is universal. So long as a man is following only his own plans and comes in contact only with those engaged in the same work, all seems plain. There is no mystery, no occasion for doubts. But when his personal work comes into relation with the larger work, when it must be tested by universal laws, then comes the cloud. He feels that, somehow, he has through his very zeal, been making a barrier against that which he has all the time been seeking.

The members of this conference have come as specialists. Each has had his own plan for the betterment of human conditions. But to-day we come as worshippers. We are facing the Universal. We ask: What should be our relation, not only to our own special work, but to the larger world of which we are a part.

I know no better way by which to point out our true attitude than to turn to the example of Jesus. We are told of His attitude to the young man who came to ask him the most serious question of life. We are told that Jesus, "looking

upon him, loved him"; and only after His love had found expression did He begin to say: "Yet one thing thou lackest." First, loving appreciation; then plain-spoken criticism; this was the method of Jesus.

Most of our worst mistakes come from our reversal of this order. Our first instinct is to find fault, or at least to have a full consciousness of the fault to be corrected. We are dealing with the defective and delinquent. What more natural than that the defects and delinquencies should be in the foreground of the mental picture which we form. We fail to see the finer side of those whom we attempt to help.

No wonder that our approach is resented. There is something in human nature which rejects mere pity. St. Augustine long ago, commenting upon the text, "Let brotherly love continue," said that brotherly love—that is, the love between equals—is the only kind which we should wish to continue. A relation that involves perpetual condescension on the one hand, and continued gratitude on the other, is unnatural and painful. The rule for the philanthropist, he said, was, "Wish him to be thine equal." True philanthropy means the equalization of opportunity, and the distance between the benefactor and the beneficiary becomes less through the process.

An English reformer has declared that the church should be "A union of those who love in behalf of those who suffer." The defect in the definition is that it takes for granted a permanent division: on the one side, the prosperous and loving; and on the other side, the suffering who are passive recipients of bounty. A clearer view of the state of individuals reveals us all as sufferers, and the possibility of all as helpers. The relation is that of reciprocity.

He who would help another must see what has already been done, what is already worthy of commendation; he must be able to rejoice in the victory already

¹ This paper is, in substance, the conference sermon at the Portland meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Dr. Crother's sermon, even more brilliant and searching in its expanded form, will be published as part of the conference proceedings.

achieved over unfavorable conditions. Only then is he able to point out the defects that still exist.

But, we come in contact not only with those classes whom we are trying directly to help, but with those who are trying to do good in other ways than ours. Here we find endless occasions for misunderstandings. How often we lose sight of our true objective. We fall into useless disputes and recriminations. It is so easy to see the defects of other people's plans, and the shortcomings of their endeavors.

In one respect especially are we in danger of misunderstanding. There are two great types of disinterested activity. One is constructive, peaceful, prudential. It accepts the present conditions of society as a basis for further effort. It aims at amelioration rather than revolution. Of such a character are the various interests represented in this convention.

When we go from such a meeting to a gathering of radical reformers, to a political convention or to an assembly of labor agitators, we seem to enter into another world. Here are men bitter in their arraignment of the present order of things. They are impatient of the slow processes of evolution. They are militant, aggressive, insistent.

Those who are at work on conservative lines often look upon all political and social agitation with unsympathetic eyes. They are appalled by the destruction involved. "Why this waste?" they cry. Why not await the healing influences which are sure, in time, to make themselves felt? Instead of orderly progress they see only a haste which hinders.

But criticisms that are without sympathy produce only fresh exasperation. The philanthropist is mistaken for a time-server, an apologist for "the existing order."

Is it not possible to attain another attitude? When we get at the heart of the matter, we see that one process cannot wait upon another. Each has its place. There is a place for those who emphasize mercy and do the works of mercy. But, there is need also for those who cry aloud for justice, and are fighting the battle for justice. They are often rude, one-sided, fanatical; but, when we look upon them, we love them and admire the heroic stuff that is in them. When we

have come to see and acknowledge the divine element in them, then we may be able to point out their limitations. "Here and here you are wrong. You have not fully taken account of all the conditions. You are lacking in the patience that brings final victory."

In proportion as we understand the pressure of necessity under which they live and work, we are able to point out their real defects.

Still another class of people must be met. There is a world which is not so much hostile as indifferent to the things we have most at heart. Many an earnest worker grows bitter and cynical when he thinks of the great mass of respectable, well-to-do people whose help he needs, but who seem so difficult to awaken to a sense of social responsibility. Such bitterness of spirit is fatal to success.

Here again we must learn the method of Jesus. We are unjust when we think of all the indifference, which, in the aggregate, is so deadly, as wilful. A great part of it is necessary. When we come to know the ordinary man who attends to his own business, pays his honest debts, cares for his family, attains to the standard of respectability, we become conscious of the load he is already carrying. He is no Pharisee; he has no opportunity to become very conceited. He is already doing much, and we must appreciate this. Only then can we justly ask for the something more.

The task of building up a nobler society and a higher manhood is too great for any one of us. The plan is too intricate for any one mind or group of minds. We grow disheartened so long as we take a narrow view. Our great necessity is the ability to recognize our friends and to co-operate with them. This is the greatest result of such meetings as this. It brings together men and women who are attacking special forms of evil. Here, they come to see how manifold are the influences at work. "Like a mighty army moves the Church of God." This is inspiringly true when we think not of some specific ecclesiastical body, but of all the organized efforts through which the passion for righteousness is manifesting itself. It is a mighty army, and it is a high privilege to belong to it.

Buffalo Tenement-Houses

HOW THE MUNICIPAL BROOM HAS BEEN BROUGHT INTO EFFECTIVE ACTION

George W. Gillette

The Tenement and Tuberculosis¹ Committee of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo was organized in the spring of 1904, and began work May 1. Its members are: Dr. P. W. Van Peyma, chairman, Frederic Almy, Giovanni Banchetti, Henry Bull, George W. Gillette, John D. Larkin, Jr., Dr. John H. Pryor (advisory). This committee succeeded the former tenement-house committee, formed in 1882, of which Dr. Pryor was for many years the chairman.

In so far as the general sanitation of the city's tenements was the committee's object it had a little history to aid it. The crusade was the second of its kind in late years. Dr. John H. Pryor, now superintendent of the State Tuberculosis Hospital at Raybrook, N. Y., had conducted a vigorous movement for the improvement of tenements in 1902-03. While the efforts of his committee resulted in no immediate and general cleaning up, they aroused public sympathy and impressed officials with the strength of the sentiment that backed up the demand for action.

Under the existing statutes (the state tenement-house law and the city ordinances), the success or failure of the movement depended almost wholly upon the attitude and the efficiency of the health commissioner. By an ordinance he is authorized to vacate, after a hearing, any tenement-house which for any reason he deems unfit for habitation or dangerous to health. Upon the removal of such unfitness or danger he may revoke the vacating order. Obviously the exercise of this power cannot fail to compel adequate improvements.

The law provides, to be sure, for the punishment of its violation as a crime.

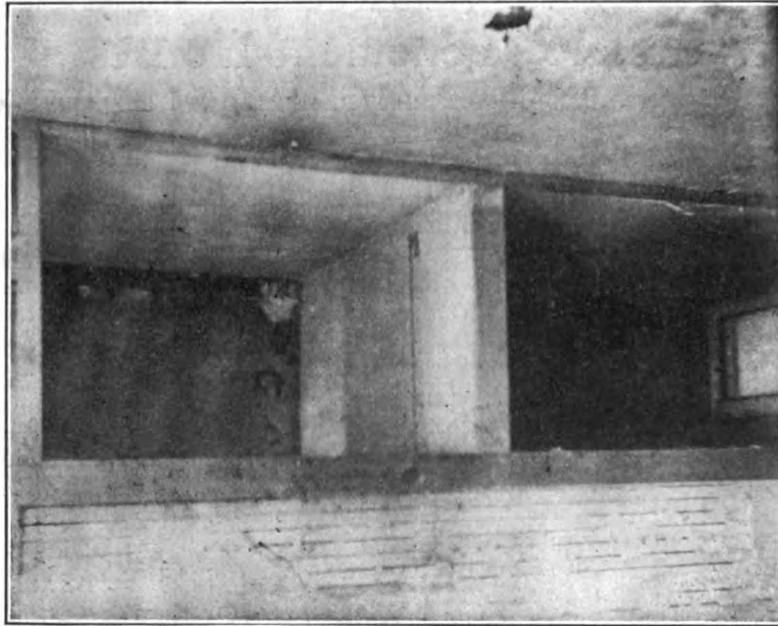
¹ On the tuberculosis side, the work of the committee has so far consisted of the publication and distribution of many thousand copies, in English, German, Italian and Polish of cards and pamphlets similar to those issued by the New York Charity Organization Society. Assurances have been received that matter, to be prepared by the committee, will be introduced into the curriculum of the public schools next winter. Prizes of ten and five dollars have been offered in each high school for the best essay on the prevention of consumption.

The courts, however, have jurisdiction only through indictment by a grand jury and the proceedings are cumbersome and slow. The penalties are small fines. A landlord with a considerable investment would, therefore, in the absence of aggressive administration on the part of the health authorities, pay his fines cheerfully though pursued by an energetic prosecuting officer, and continue collecting rents from unsanitary premises without serious inconvenience.

This situation was apparent at the outset. The committee consulted with Dr. Walter V. Greene, the head of the health department, and found him thoroughly in sympathy with the movement and heartily glad to accept the aid of the committee. A report upon some fifteen of the worst tenements in the city was prepared from data gathered by its inspector, Dr. William H. Callahan, and after a number of trips through the poorer neighborhoods in which members of the committee took part. The form of the report was effective. It described conditions in the houses with reference to the statute and city ordinances under the following topics: fire-escapes; basements and cellars; water-closets and plumbing; light and ventilation; repairs; cleanliness and miscellaneous. Then followed a tabulation of violations of the laws, referring to them by sections, and in conclusion, a history of all action taken by the Department of Health, with reference to these special houses in the past eight years, which had been compiled with care from the public records. It was a strong document.

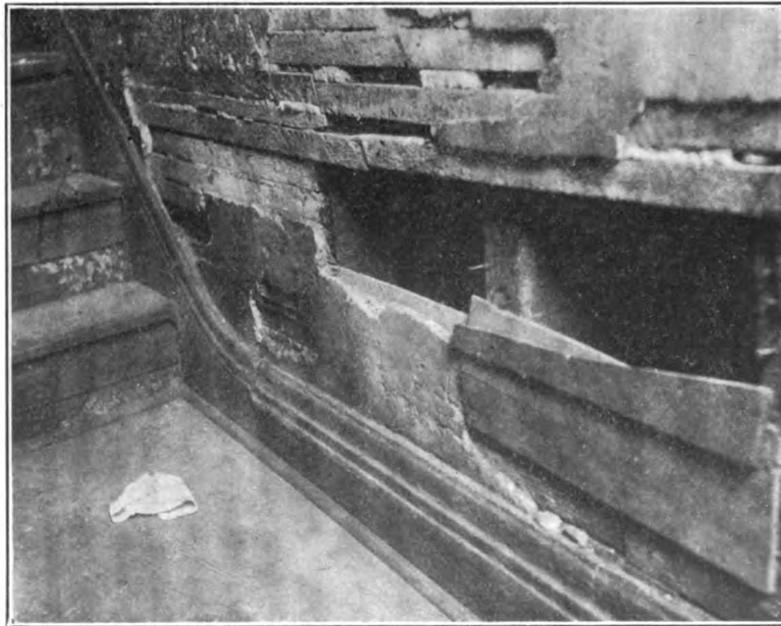
Dr. Greene visited the premises described in the report with several members of the committee and expressed himself as freshly impressed with the need of a cleaning up and as determined to effect it. The demands of other branches of his work as a city official made the co-operation of the committee most welcome. Im-

The Spread of the Movement.



No. 1.

SHOWING WINDOWS CUT IN DARK ROOMS, OVER-CROWDED.



No. 2.

HEAD OF FIRST FLIGHT OF STAIRS, HODGE BUILDING.



No. 3.

VACANT ROOM, THIRD FLOOR, 120 ERIE STREET.

No. 1.

Not much to see—but it tells a story. These two windows have just been cut into two tiny rooms, each 6 x 9 feet and 8 feet high. The left room was a dark bedroom without light or air, except from the door. On August 20, 1904, after midnight, a committee of the Charity Organization Society found *six* persons sleeping in this room of 432 cubic feet, which under the tenement-house law in Buffalo is not big enough for one. There were two men in cots, and in one large bed were two young men and two girls. The larger girl was thirteen years old. In the right-hand room of the same size a man and wife and three lodgers were sleeping. A large room adjoining was also full of lodgers. Every lodger has been obliged to leave, and the building is being made fit.

No. 2.

The front stairs of 32 families in a five-story tenement house in Buffalo. On every floor of this building there is almost more plaster off than on. In the halls there are yards of lath without a vestige of plaster. It would be condemned as a stable, and has now been condemned as a tenement. The building was to be vacated by October 1.

No. 3.

A typical vacant room on the third floor of a five-story tenement which is now occupied by 73 children and 52 adults. Notice in the picture that the adjoining room is in the same condition. On the different floors of this fire-trap, which has one unfit fire-escape, are 32 rooms filled with wood and rubbish, and the halls in places have wood stacked to the ceiling on both sides, together with old furniture and bags of rags, leaving little passageway, or play room for the 73 children. The closets are few, foul and out of order. There are head-high partitions dividing small rooms into pens for separate families, and everything is wretchedly dilapidated. After 23 notices and inspections with little result it was ordered summarily vacated by October 1.

mediately notices of hearings were served and eight houses vacated. These contained about one hundred families, or five hundred people. Those who know Buffalo will be glad to hear that the Allen Block, part of the Waverly Block, and several houses in the Barker Block, were vacated. To meet possible suffering to the families evicted, the Charity Organization Society consulted the real estate agents and made a list of available rooms to let. It also told its agents to pay moving expenses where necessary. In almost every case, however, the families took care of themselves without aid.

An interview with the district attorney was similarly gratifying. He turned the matter over to Assistant-District Attorney John W. Ryan who investigated some of the worst conditions and digested the committee's report; he thereupon turned up his sleeves and promptly secured forty-one indictments under the state law against seventeen owners.

The editors of all the local papers were seen. They were interested and promised assistance. A party of reporters was taken through the tenement districts and the evil conditions were written up. The steps taken by the health department and district attorney were closely followed by the press and fully published.

The Bureau of Buildings caught the spark and within its limits inaugurated a little crusade of its own.

The vacating of houses, the arraignments of indicted owners and their publicity through the aroused press cannot fail, as has indeed already been demonstrated, to add great force to the department's authority in requiring the betterment of unsafe and unsanitary conditions. The health offices are filled each day with alarmed and protesting tenement owners and agents. They are firmly dealt with in every instance and extensive repairs and improvements are under way. Notices of hearings were sent to the owners of some forty of the worst houses which had been located and written up since the work of vacating the first lot was completed. More than twenty of these houses were vacated, and with the rest time was given after a guarantee of prompt, full repairs. This treatment of

some one hundred and fifty cases should clean up the entire city.

A successful outcome of the undertaking is thus probable. The energy and fearlessness of the health commissioner and of the district attorney and the favorable attitude of the press have made success possible. The entire absence of friction between the different departments and the committee has subjected the movement to no delays.

*Housing Evils
in Middle-sized
Cities.* The evils whose existence inspired the crusade are probably typical of the middle-sized cities of the country.

One encounters, except in occasional isolated one-family cases, no such spectacular squalor, filth and unsanitariness as the worst districts of New York present. Indeed, one is impressed with the individual cleanliness of the Italian family, the chief occupant of Buffalo tenements. Clean floors and beds, snowy linen and bright ornaments are common. The seat of the trouble is in the construction of the buildings and secondarily in their state of repair. The commonest type of the larger tenement is a three to five-story brick building sheltering twelve to thirty-five families. Hardly a half dozen in the city have any fire-escapes whatsoever. One water-closet, always dirty, almost constantly out of repair, commonly placed in a dark and unventilated compartment, answers the needs of from three to six or eight families. The dark bedroom where the tubercle bacillus thrives is an ever-present feature. At these three evils, the efforts of the committee are particularly directed, first, because of all tenement evils they are the chiefest; second, because they are structural defects whose eradication cannot be accomplished between the serving of a notice and a hearing held five days later.

Proposed reforms often antagonize an intelligent community and fail through lack of conservatism. The committee and the Department of Health were careful to act reasonably and evict tenants only where evil conditions were substantial. Wherever, in a house to be vacated, one apartment, or six, was found whose conditions complied with the law, its occupants were allowed

to remain. This policy has made and will make the progress more laborious, but it gains public approval and sympathy.

Overcrowding, encountered out of company with other unlawful conditions, is difficult to handle because it is well-nigh impossible to establish how many occupants a building or a room has, or to keep watch of it to prevent a recurrence of the evil if once removed. The presence of lodgers in tenements which the law prohibits, is a similar problem. The committee made a midnight trip through several tenements and found both overcrowding and lodgers. At present, as has been said, other accompanying violations of law make it possible to strike at the seat of overcrowding without threshing out the evidence upon this point. In time to come, however, it may prove a difficult point, constantly recurring and giving rise to no little embarrassment. With existing tenements, more precise legislative language defining exactly a room, requiring a specified number of cubic feet to each room, and prohibiting the use of any room by more than a certain number of persons *for sleeping purposes* would simplify the situation.

Broken windows, leaky roofs, shaky and broken stairs and floors were found in plenty. Leaking pipes with accompanying broken plaster and wet filth were common. In two instances privy vaults were in use instead of water-closets. An occasional basement or cellar was found occupied for living purposes contrary to law.

In the three, four and five-story tenement-houses, six in number, owned by the Barker estate on Seneca street, there were nearly fifty dark bedrooms, thirty-five of which were in one building; there was no fire-escape except one which communicated with only about

*Further
Needs.*

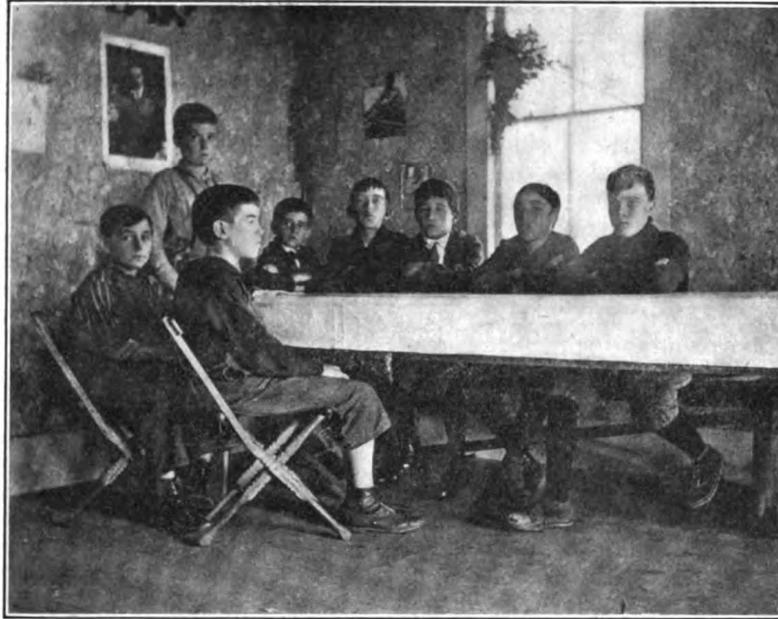
one-quarter of the apartments in one house, and not a single properly lighted or ventilated water-closet. Unfortunate features of the existing tenement-house law will prohibit compelling a removal of two of these defects. The statute permits the continuance of existing unventilated closets, as well as sleeping rooms lighted only by three

by five sash windows leading not necessarily to the open air, but to another room which communicates with the outside air or with a still additional room so lighted. When, then, the three by five sash windows have been placed in these bedrooms and fire-escapes provided, tenants must be permitted to resume their occupancy. There is immediate need in Buffalo for the modification of the provisions of the statute permitting such evils to exist; need that should be urged before the next state legislature.

In a city like Buffalo, the great tenement evils, through a careful supervision, can be very largely prevented. Few large tenements have been constructed since the state law went into effect. The problem now is to render the existing houses proper for occupation. The more important question is to attend to houses hereafter built. Concerning them, the law is most exacting and admirable in its provisions. Plans must be filed and approved before your tenement can be reared. Once build it with the important structural defects guarded against and a watchful health department can make your city a city of model tenements.

Watchfulness is needed to require that building be carried on in conformity with the plans filed. Already it has been found that owners have filed plans of proper buildings and in construction deliberately deviated from them. This has been the case only with small houses, cottages, for the most part of two stories. It is a warning and awakened as the city seems to be, there should be no difficulty in controlling the construction of future tenements.

The tenement crusade is not a visionary movement. It is a sane means of saving life and preventing suffering. Accomplishment in it is not, unfortunately, always proportionate to the amount of labor expended. It has a very large "practical politics" feature. The public officer's aid is a *sine qua non* of success. If he is with a movement, it is a sure winner. If he is against it, all the labor of winning him over or of beating him is between you and a permit to start out with your broom. If he is with you, nobody can prevent your sweeping all the dirty places clean.



"COURT IS IN SESSION. ANY COMPLAINTS?"

Self-Government and "The Bunch"

AN EXPERIMENT IN HANDLING UNRULY AND DELINQUENT BOYS

Frederick A. King

Is it practicable to give a modified form of self-government to a group of unruly boys who are to live together during a summer vacation? This was the question which presented itself to the writer for solution at the beginning of the present summer. Through the generosity of several New York people, a farmhouse had been rented on grounds adjoining the George Junior Republic at Freeville, N. Y., and had been fitted out in simple camp style. Here the ten prospective citizens, all between ten and fourteen years of age, were finally installed at the end of June.

The boys were a miscellaneous lot. Four were of Jewish parentage, one English, one German, two Irish, one Italian, and one American. One boy had been for six months in a reform school where strict discipline and stone walls were the principal features. Another had just been expelled from a small church home because of general disobedience of the rules. A third had been sent from a small home for children conducted on the institutional plan, where he had been for six years.

This boy came to the camp in poor physical condition with unclean habits and stunted personality. Another member of the camp, a Jewish boy, had been arrested for picking pockets and had narrowly escaped being committed to an institution. He was the only one known to the writer previous to the summer's experience. The remaining six boys had been subjected to bad street influences and, for the most part, unfavorable home surroundings. One of this latter group was a persistent liar and petty thief—not a group of boys to work well together, but in the main full of life and plenty of initiative.

The first step in giving the boys self-government was to hold an election of officers a few days after their arrival, and much after the manner in which a self-governing club is organized. A president, or mayor, and judge was elected, the two positions being given to the same boy. A board of health consisting of one citizen was also chosen, this officer having charge of all the work done by the boys about the house, such as making beds, wiping dishes, etc., as well as having care of the



SHINE FIVE CENTS, PAPER—THE PRESIDENT HAS HIS SHOES SHINED—THE OUTCROPPING OF A CUSTOMARY INDUSTRY IN A NEW ENVIRONMENT.

rabbits, ducks, guinea pigs, etc., as live stock accumulated. A chief of police was next in rank, and following him, a sergeant-at-arms, who kept order during sessions of court, at the dining-table, and in the sleeping rooms at night. All these officers held their positions for one month and received small weekly salaries. The salaries were paid in pasteboard money which had already been made legal tender in payment on the one hand for work done for the writer, and, on the other, in payment by the boys for meals and lodging. The writer acted as advisor to the president when he took charge of "town meeting" where laws were made, or when, in his capacity as judge, he held court. At times the writer himself acted as complainant against citizens.

The process of law-making was very simple and the laws few in number. At first they were added to rather arbitrarily from time to time by the writer and with the assistance of the officers as some new emergency arose in keeping the boys under proper discipline. Later on, during the last month of the vacation, more liberty was allowed the citizens in their law-making. A summary of some of the laws passed by the boys is as follows:

Against robbing apple trees, apples to be taken only from the ground.

Against cruelty to animals and robbing birds' nests.

Against having matches in one's possession.

Against smoking or having in one's possession tobacco, corn-silk, or other material used in making cigarettes.

Against destruction of property.

Against swearing or using indecent language.

Against making threats without justification.

The punishments inflicted for breaking the laws consisted mainly in fines of from ten cents to two dollars, the boys paying the fines in cardboard currency; in cutting off special privileges for a given length of time, such as going in swimming or visiting the Republic boys; and in making the boys work two or three hours a day for the government without receiving any pay for themselves. In some cases a defendant was required to furnish bonds of \$1 or \$2 for one or two weeks' good behavior, and such a penalty was attended generally with very good results.

With Court in Session. Court was held each morning and the procedure was somewhat as follows: After the boys have gathered about the table, James, the judge, calls out, "Court is in session. Any complaints to be made?" The chief of police gets up and says, "Max makes a complaint against Charlie for swearin'." Max gets up and says, "Charlie went fishin' yesterday an' he swore." "Any witnesses?" asks the judge. "I hav'nt got any. I was fishin' with him alone," says Max. The offending word which Charlie used is written

arrested immediately after the offence had been committed. "Private court," as the boys called it, would then have been held. The judge would have gone into the facts of the case far enough to determine whether the offender should remain "in bounds," and lose his privileges until his trial in court next morning.

Perhaps Charlie is feeling in a defiant mood the morning of his trial, and knowing that a complaint will be made against him, refuses to attend court. The chief of police is directed by the judge to go out and arrest the culprit and bring



"BUFFALO," CHIEF OF POLICE, AS FERRYMAN.

on a slip of paper and handed to the judge by the complainant. Charlie pleads guilty. The judge finds from the court record that this is the second offence and doubles the previous fine, making it sixty cents. If Charlie has not the money and cannot borrow it, he is made to work out his fine at the rate of twenty cents an hour, under supervision of the chief of police. If he refuses to work and to pay his fine, he is sent to his room in disgrace.

If Charlie had committed a more serious offence than swearing, such, for example, as larceny, he would have been

him into court. The chief may find that Charlie refuses to go with him. Then the whole court rushes out of doors. The chief shouts to Sidney and George to come and help him make the arrest. Sidney rushes to his aid at once, but George has not yet become sufficiently impressed with the dignity of court proceedings, and only laughs at the efforts of the officer. Finally, the writer is obliged to seize hold of the struggling Charlie and to carry him bodily to his room, a prisoner. The next morning Charlie is fined for resisting arrest as well as upon the original complaint of swearing made by his fellow citizen.

George, the scoffer, is also fined for refusing to assist the chief of police in making an arrest.

There were only two or three occasions, however, when it came to a hand-to-hand fight between the chief of police and his prisoner, and where the writer was obliged to interfere.

In answer to a critic who may imagine that the court proceedings were only in play and that the judgments of the court were not taken in earnest by the boys, it may be sufficient to say that it was not an unusual thing for a boy found guilty of a serious offence, or series of small offences, to burst out crying in court, or at least to look decidedly tearful. On one occasion, during the third week of the boys' stay at camp, one of them had been given what was then considered severe punishment, namely, two weeks in bounds with a loss of all his privileges. The offender had been tried by a jury of three boys for an offence which was a serious one against the morals of the little community. This offence had been committed, by the way, in the presence of only a few boys, and at a time when the writer had no possible chance of discovering that such acts were being committed. The offending boy in the case pleaded not guilty. Yet the morning after he had received his sentence he got up in open court, without any previous prompting from any one and with eyes moist and voice a bit shaky said, "Fellers, I got ter say that I did that thing I got punished fer yeste'day. I want the fellers ter excuse me an' I ain't goin' ter do it again as long's I'm here." Then and there, by vote of the citizens and consent of the writer, the culprit was paroled for the remainder of his sentence on his good behavior. This was the last offence of the kind, the writer feels practically certain, that was committed during the summer.

*Fendalism vs.
Democracy.*

That the punishment of the court and the unaccustomed amount of surveillance to which a boy was subjected under self-government were not only taken in earnest, but were very burdensome at times, was fully evidenced in the case of Joe, the worst offender. His outburst of wrath against the "government" came finally

after an experience of his at Freeville. Joe had ventured on that particular day to knock down apples from a tree conveniently situated for his purpose. This was against the law, but as the writer was a safe distance away, Joe, as usual, thought he would "take a chance." Crash! went the stone from his hand through the branches. One mean little apple fell to the ground and Joe stooped to pick it up. "You're pinched (arrested)," shouted the chief of police from the other side of the street where he had stood unnoticed. That night Joe argued with all his eloquence for an hour and a half against having "court" any longer, and for going back to the style of discipline to which he was accustomed in the city. "Do yer think I'd get pinched fer one lousy apple," he fairly shouted. "Ther court's no good. I'd rather take a beatin' (to the writer) off yer when yer catch me doin' anythin' crooked. Yer can't do nothin' around here now." Joe's arguments, however, were of no avail. The chief of police still continued with his "pinchin'" and the citizens with their complaints.

Regarding the further success of the court system, it may be said that a growing respect for law and order among all the boys was very noticeable during the last few weeks of their stay. This was evidenced in the falling off of the number of offences heard each day in court. Moreover, in the eyes of the boys, a "snitcher," or a boy who makes complaint against another, was no longer looked down upon for violating rules of honor which formerly held good in the city, either at school or in the street gang. Then, too, the persistent liar found himself decidedly out of place in court proceedings, especially when a serious charge was made against a boy and backed up with witnesses. The shout of derision which went up from the other boys when the culprit attempted to deny his guilt, and lie out of the scrape, was an object lesson of no small moment.

Of course, there were a number of amusing incidents connected with the court proceedings. George made complaint against Harry. "I was up outside 'er the bakery (on the Republic grounds) yeste'day aft'noon and Harry come along an' said, 'Come on over ter the bakery an' get somethin'.'" This, the complainant

stated, was nothing more nor less than an invitation on the part of Harry to join him in "swipin'" (stealing) something from the bakery. Some evidence was given by another witness to the same effect when James, the judge, broke in with, "I don't think there's nuthin' to this case." Then he grinned and said rather sheepishly, "I been up all around ther bakery meself an' I know there ain't nothin' there, a feller can swipe," and he discharged the defendant on the spot. Surely the writer, with all his superior wisdom, could hardly have judged the case more to the point. It may be said in vindication of the president, who was twice re-elected to the office, that he was never caught "swipin'," although he was tried for various smaller offences. In his case, the "board of health," the officer next highest to the president in rank, acted as judge.

At another time the writer himself was fined for an offence unwittingly committed. Joe had been charged with unlawfully eating candy which had been purchased for "Alabama," another of the boys, and which had been handed by the writer to Joe to carry home. Not only was the principal offender punished by a fine, the proceeds of which went to the owner of the candy, but the writer was also fined in a similar manner for giving the candy into such unreliable hands.

James, the judge, showed on more than one occasion great tact and generalship in keeping in line his political supporters among the citizens, and it was just before one of his re-elections to office and when the canvass for votes between himself and his rival was on that the following incident occurred. He happened one day to be standing beside the rabbit pen in company with the writer. Suddenly he let out a whistle. "Gee," he said, "those rabbits ain't been fed terday. Charlie ain't been takin' care er his rabbits very well lately. I'll have ter do somethin' about that" (i. e., have a complaint made against Charlie for failure to properly care for his charges). Then he thought for a moment and finally said very positively: "But I can't do nothin' erbout it now, it's too near election."

*The Fiscal Side
of the
Experiment.*

As has already been indicated, at about the same time that a government was instituted the boys were told that they must work for their meals and lodging at the rate of ten cents each, or forty cents a day. The writer at first attempted to arrange for a weekly payment of board and lodging by the boys. Immediately there were a few slight attempts to earn money from odd jobs; but as the end of the week seemed far off, the whole matter was practically forgotten in a day's time and little work was done. The plan was at once changed, the boys being required to pay from day to day. Then it was that they went to work, and from that time on the problem was solved fairly satisfactorily. Such complaints as these began to come in, "Say, haven't yer got some work fer me ter do?" "Say, you're givin John work, why can't yer give me somethin' ter do?" Then, not unfrequently, came the complaint, "Max went and bunked (hid) the axe. He wants ter chop all ther wood himself." Soon, however, there was work enough for all. Fuel had to be obtained from drift-wood found at a neighboring creek. The grounds about the house had to be raked up, the floors scrubbed, beds made and dishes washed. The small gardens, which several of the boys bought at public auction from the writer, required considerable attention. One boy, who had been a great idler at home, grew so zealous at chopping wood that on one occasion, when the supply of material was running rather short, he tore down four or five lengths of a neighboring board fence, split the wood up and brought it to camp. Indeed, it became necessary for a boy who had brought wood to be chopped from the near-by creek to the house, to place it in a pile and to put up a written notice warning others from taking the wood for their own use.

There were lazy citizens inevitably to be dealt with. For the first three or four weeks several of the boys lived more or less by their wits. One, as was afterward found out, stole paper money from the others. Another lived largely on borrowed money which he secured from some by promises and by threats of violence from the weaker ones. Finally, in a month's

time, the test came. Three boys owed over a dollar for board and lodging, and they were warned on a Monday that on the following Wednesday some action would be taken against them. Tuesday came and they were still idle. On Tuesday afternoon, a meeting of the government officers was called by the writer and it was finally agreed that the lazy ones were only making fools of those who were industrious, by living without work. The following measure was agreed upon by the officers and passed the next day—that any citizen who owed forty cents for board and lodging should be declared a vagrant and committed to prison, *i. e.*, his privileges taken from him and himself placed under the care of the chief of police; that he should remain a prisoner until he had worked off his indebtedness at the regular rate of twenty cents per hour; and that he must have in his pocket before his discharge the sum of twenty cents, outside of his indebtedness. That

*Nothing
Without Labor.*

evening, Tuesday, there was considerable worrying done by the lazy ones. The

government officials, backed up by the writer, were prophesying, half in fun, all sorts of punishment for them in the morning. They were pictured as wearing striped clothes and digging ditches or picking stones as they had seen the vagrants at the Republic do. Finally, the strain was too much for Izzie, the principal offender, and late in the evening he so announced himself to the writer: "Yer ain't a goin' ter have the satisfaction 'er seein me a pris'ner. I'll get ahead of yer all right." The next morning Izzie and one of the other offenders got up at 5.30 o'clock and could be seen laboriously at work picking stones in a neighboring field until nearly court time. At the close of court, these two were able to settle up their indebtedness and only one boy was made a prisoner. The citizens were not infrequently made prisoners in single in-

stances later in the summer for not working, but the strength of the opposition had been broken, and the problem of handling such cases was no longer troublesome. On the whole, very few boys lost their meals because of lack of funds; and it was found that swimming, fishing and baseball for the boys, together with long walks through the country, went far toward keeping them contented and willing to work.

At the rate of twenty cents an hour for work done, a boy was obliged to work at least two and one-half hours a day, one hour being for school for which payment at the regular rate was given. However, with the infliction of fines as penalties and with taxes at forty cents a week to be paid for the salaries of officers, the amount of work done was considerably more than two and a half hours in each case.

Selfishness on the part of individual boys, it cannot be denied, is a danger which comes from introducing the money standard for work done. One is apt to find that the proposition, "Nothing without labor" brings with it the spirit of "Nothing done without pay." However, this difficulty can be corrected in the main and in view of what can be accomplished by means of such methods, the evil is but a small one.

Of course, the fact that the George Junior Republic was near at hand had much to do with the success in carrying out the scheme of self-government. The boys felt their responsibilities much more after attending sessions of court at the Republic and through contact with the Republic officers and citizens.

In any case, however, the experiment made clear to the writer that the self-government idea had developed a most important educational force which could be put to immediate practical use; and that a longer continuance of such methods would have a tremendous influence for good upon the lives of the young citizens.

Among Prints and Publications

*Social Service in the Salvation Army*¹

Reviewed by Lucy Wright

There is much of suggestive interest to social workers in other fields in both the matter and spirit of the 1903 report of *Social Service in the Salvation Army*. The form of the report itself is unique and effective; a characteristic introduction by "General" Booth, followed by a succession of letters from officers representing the different institutions included in the "Darkest England Social Scheme;" letters intended to bring out the power of the personal equation in social work and to keep ever before the reader the dominant aim of the "Army," the saving of "ship-wrecked" souls. Incidentally, they describe the institutions which have grown out of their earlier missionary work and now number 493, scattered throughout the world, and including food and shelter depots, rescue homes, labor factories, children's homes, farm colonies, etc. The letters are characterized by the same keen understanding of the weaknesses of human nature, which has ever marked the work of the "Army." In fact, the success of their best as well as of their less admirable methods may be said to be very largely due to skilful use of this knowledge. It is this which at its best leads them to grasp the opportunity of a crisis in the affairs of weak men and women; brings them inside the gate to meet the discharged prisoner, finds them represented at court, finds them at midnight on Piccadilly, and again, in an effort which scarcely deserves to be mentioned in the same category, finds them giving indiscriminately 65,000 substantial meals from Blackfriar's Shelter, free to homeless men.

The institution known as the "Elevator" illustrates many of the favorite ideas and methods of the most patient work of the "Army." This institution at Bermondsey, "a combination of workshop, home and religious retreat," where paper and rag-sorting afford employment to 145 men, is said to be typical

¹ *Social Service in the Salvation Army*, with an introduction by General Booth, London, winter of 1903, published at 101 Queen Victoria Street, E. C. 120 pages.

of eighty such institutions scattered throughout the world, and sending out nearly twelve thousand men yearly. Here a fallen man, or man out of work, is allowed from six to nine months to regain himself. Each man is allotted a task "which earns for him his food and lodgings and he is allowed cash payment for all work in excess." The need of immediate incentive for such men is recognized by the following system of classification in sleeping arrangements:—"The first class sleeping accommodations consist of a dormitory where each man is supplied with a comfortable spring mattress, bed and locker; the second class, a superior spring bunk with sheets and pillow-cases; the third class, an ordinary bunk with American leather cover. . . . The staff of foremen, who have also been submerged men, but are now ascending the social ladder, occupy seven small cottages, four living in a cottage. . . . Great desire prevails among the men to get into one of these 'Suburban Residences.'" "On an average," the letter states, "200 men a year find the 'Elevator,' a stepping-stone to higher things."

Whether or not we choose a widely different method of attack upon social problems, whether or not we believe that the means used by the "Army" are always justified by their ends, all who come in contact with their abler workers find profitable lessons in unselfish devotion to purpose and cheerful, patient study of the hard facts before them. Here is the right spirit—"Think of teaching a wild thing to sew! I have had to put my hands over their's and hold the needle between their fingers, then dig it into the jerseys we taught them to mark, and count with them the lines and stitches, slowly, patiently again and again and again before they even grasped the idea of taking a stitch." In boundless confidence in their own methods and uncompromising zeal in advancing them, the "Salvation Army" offers a study well worth reflection.

*The Problem of the Children and How the State of Colorado Cares for Them*¹

Reviewed by Florence Kelley
Secretary National Consumers' League

A most valuable work is the newly issued report of the Juvenile Court of Denver published under the above title. Rarely has a volume of 228 pages afforded so much useful information in such readable form covering the subjects of child labor, compulsory education, juvenile delinquency, and the relation of adults thereto; probation, detention, dependence, the reenforcement of parental effort for the welfare of children and the duty of the community to its coming citizens.

Since Colorado has now effectively superseded Massachusetts in the front rank of the states in the matter of the protection of childhood, it is most useful to have at command this authoritative statement of the laws and the methods of administering them in the most progressive state in the Union.

The court is now conducted under laws prepared in November, 1902, and passed by the legislature of January, 1903. With the exception of the substitution of the detention school for the jail and the enactment of the law for holding parents, *and all other citizens*, to a rigid legal responsibility for any faults of children to which they may have contributed, no other substantial changes have been made in the juvenile laws of Colorado. It is found much more convenient, however, in dealing with cases affecting children to embody in definite statutory form the definition of delinquency and dependency, and to provide many details by statute, the working out of which without the statute would depend upon the co-opera-

¹ *The Problem of the Children and How the State of Colorado Cares for Them*. Being the report of the Juvenile Court of Denver. Judge Ben B. Lindsey. 25 cents.

tion of various officials, which might not be so easily obtained, and which would be largely voluntary.

The most important feature of the Colorado children's law is "An act to provide for the punishment of persons responsible for or contributing to the delinquency of children," which is as follows: SECTION 1—"In all cases where any child shall be a delinquent child or a juvenile delinquent person, as defined by the statute of this state, the parent or parents, legal guardian or person having the custody of such child, or any other person responsible for, or by any act encouraging, causing or contributing to the delinquency of such child, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon trial and conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not to exceed one thousand dollars (\$1,000), or imprisoned in the county jail for a period not exceeding one year, or both such fine and imprisonment. The court may impose conditions upon any person found guilty under this act, and so long as such person shall comply therewith to the satisfaction of the court the sentence imposed may be suspended."

Under this law the person who sends a messenger boy to a disreputable place, or the conductor of a coal train who connives at stolen rides, the mother who sends a lad to fetch beer, or who lets him read dime novels until he is led to run away—one and all may be brought into court and placed under suspended sentence. And many persons have been thus dealt with in Colorado. Every reader of CHARITIES should own this valuable report which may be obtained by sending twenty-five cents in stamps to the Juvenile Court of Denver, Colorado.

*Vacation Schools, Playgrounds and Settlements*¹

Reviewed by Archibald A. Hill
Secretary Tenement-house Committee, New York Charity Organization Society

While it is true that these are only advance sheets, still it is difficult to review

¹ *Advance sheets, chapter 1. Report of United States Commissioner of Education for 1903*. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., Henry S. Curtis.

this report issued by the United States Bureau of Education in moderate language for the defects are such that they cannot be remedied if the report is used

at all. The neglect by government departments of an unmatched opportunity to present accurate, systematic and up-to-date information on the various matters on which they make reports, is a distinct disappointment to those who desire such information. The settlement movement is surely of enough importance to warrant the securing of an article by one who is thoroughly in touch with it through long experience, and able to interpret it. But the nature of this report plainly shows that it was written by one who knows settlements only in the most superficial way. For example, under the heading of settlement activities he reports "Legal Aid Society," "Provident Loan Society" and "probation work." Because one or two settlements give room in their buildings to these two societies, and because a resident may do probation work, this should not be given as an authoritative statement of settlement activities. Or, in a serious report, of what value is the assertion that all settlements have window boxes.

But the most serious objection lies in the fact that the writer has wholly misrepresented the settlement movement. The democracy, fraternity and economic protest back of the settlement do not seem to have dawned upon the author, though he quotes Miss Addams and Mr. Woods in three phrases. Settlement residents do not go down into the "homes of the poor

and wretched" in order that they may be "imitated" by their neighbors. Nor is the settlement a sop thrown to the laboring classes in order that, seeing "the vast sums of money which are being given by the rich to raise the condition of the poor," they may "never again regard society as their enemy." In fact, throughout the article the settlement is so misrepresented and misinterpreted that it is difficult to choose the specific matter to mention.

Again, under the headings on vacation schools and playgrounds, one looks in vain for accurate, definite and modern statements. For example, when speaking of the growth of these two movements the author does not state how many cities and towns are supporting such schools, but says "the number would probably exceed two hundred." As to how he arrived at this more or less definite statement, unless it was evolved from his own inner consciousness, readers are left in ignorance. Over and over again occurs the phrase "so far as the writer knows." Such statements may be admissible in a hastily prepared article for a Sunday newspaper, but certainly a government report requires more exact knowledge. In fact, the whole publication is so badly constructed, its facts so carelessly secured and its matter so poorly digested, that it is not only valueless, but harmful. It behooves the department to recall its advance sheets.

*Social Justice.*¹

In *Social Justice*, a critical essay of nearly four hundred pages, Dr. W. W. Willoughby has subjected the current conceptions of justice, equality and property to a searching inquiry; has examined and found fatally defective the socialist theory of the exploitation of labor, and has given a qualified assent to Herbert Spencer's thesis, "that the interests of humanity are to be best subserved by giving full effect to the law that each individual shall receive the benefits and evils of his own nature and its consequent conduct."

Dr. Willoughby incidentally pays his respects at length to Benjamin Kidd's *Social Evolution*, agreeing with Mr. Kidd

¹ *Social Justice: A Critical Essay* by Westel Woodbury Willoughby, Ph. D. New York. Macmillan. 1900. Cloth.

that the absolutely competitive state is the ideal one; but totally disagreeing with him as to the impossibility of securing general individual welfare thereunder. Our author believes that competition is not necessarily on the plane of the sub-human animal; that it may be maintained on high planes where the interests of society and of future generations become reconciled with the individual interests of the present competitors. Individual and race interests are, therefore, not as Mr. Kidd teaches, irreconcilable.

Dr. Willoughby, at the same time, admits that there are some—how many he does not undertake to estimate—for whom this reconciliation does not appear. The

existing social system is not rationally justified for able-bodied men or women seeking work earnestly and not finding it, or for individuals deprived of such means of education as are fairly needed to bring to light abilities which they possess, or for individuals endowed with peculiar talents in particular directions and unable to obtain opportunity for their application or development.

A final chapter on primitive justice closes with an excellent quotation from T. H. Green, whose influence is discernible throughout the volume. Funda-

mentally, the author himself concludes, any social system is unjust in so far as the necessity for it might have been avoided by proper social conduct, adding to this Green's words, "The justice of the punishment depends on the justice of the general system of rights, not merely on the propriety with reference to social well-being of maintaining this or that particular right which the crime punished violates, but on the question whether the social organism in which a criminal has lived and acted is one that has given him a fair chance of not being a criminal."

Loose Threads in a Skein

In a colored family there were four lank, miserable-looking children, the oldest about five years of age, the younger ones being what to the poor is the questionable blessing of twins. The master of the family was what he called a "kilsimin'er," the mother took in washing, and the children evidently brought themselves up. Seated on the floor was the second child, a girl, running her finger around the inside of a cup that had held molasses, showing considerable energy in rescuing every suspicion of remnant.

"Stop that, Mickie," said the mother.

"Why do you call the little girl Mickie?" was asked.

The father's face beamed as he said—"She's named for the president's wife, Miss McKinley. We've never heard her front name, only Miss McKinley, so I told my wife if it's good enough for her, it's good enough for us."

As nature had not been in her kindest mood when she fashioned "Mickie," the attention seemed a dubious compliment to the first lady in the land. After Mickie's introduction, it was announced that the oldest child was "Trilby," the twins were "Dewey" and "Hobson" and the vacancy of some months between Trilby and Mickie had been caused by the death of Grover Cleveland."

Despite the fact that the frosts are here, and water getting nipping cold, there is a timeliness about this essay on swimming, written for the *Messenger*, the little paper gotten out at the New York Orphan Asylum, which makes it delightful:

"The greatest fun of the summer is swimming in the Hudson. We read in the papers that Judge Parker, the Democratic candidate for President, takes a plunge into the Hudson every morning. We take ours whenever it is high tide whether in the morning or afternoon. If swimming in the Hudson is an part of preparation for the presi-

dency, several of us boys are going to become candidates after a while. But we'll wait till after the first week in November before erecting air-castles on the White House lawn. We should think that swimming in the Hudson would be better suited to a politician than a judge, for the current changes every six hours.

"Our bath-house, built last summer, was never so dear to us as it is now. It only takes about two minutes to get to it from the cottages. But oh! how long it does take to get back after the swim is over. It is just like dressing and undressing. When you are going in swimming you unbutton as you go down the hill and almost by the time you reach the bath-house you have your bathing suit on. Some already have it on under their other clothes before they leave the cottage so that they can get into the water first. But the dressing up again! My, how everything sticks! How easily you get tangled up in this or that garment. You forget that you turned it inside out in getting it off, and feel as though you needed a map of it to help straighten it out.

"More than sixty of us can swim—about thirty each of boys and girls. Half of that number have learned this year. What fun it is go off the raft head first! It is the same old raft we built last year, and will soon become historic, for several of the boys who helped build it, and first plunged under water from it, are now over fifteen hundred miles away on the prairies of Kansas."

In Boston, some curiosities in the way of nomenclature have recently come before the Associated Charities. The postman brought a letter addressed to "Mr. X—, care of the Boston Ancestral Charts,"—who was finally located as secretary of the Geological Society. Of course, in a bad hand writing, there was similarity, between "Ancestral

Charts" and "Associated Charities," but charity workers, who had mulled over the ancestral trees of the "Tribe of Ishmael," and Dugdale's "Jukes," could not but marvel at the whimsicality of the mails that had brought a letter so addressed to the registration bureau of the society.

A woman asked at a district office if it was "The Associated Cruelty to Animal Place." She was asked her problem and found to have come to the right quarter for solution after all.

Another, an Italian, whose wife had given birth to two sturdy bambinos, asked if there wasn't some society "for those afflicted with twins." He seemed to appreciate the idiosyncrasies of donors as well as the varied needs of the afflicted.

The child had spent a happy day visiting at the home of a settlement worker. On her return she wrote the following letter about her visit:

"Miss — lives in a big beautiful house. There are three floors and lots of rooms. I should think it would be hard for them to find each other. There are so many rooms. It is not so hard to find each other when you live in part of one floor. The floors were hard and shiny with little pieces of carpet on them. No piece was big enough to cover a whole room." M. F. B.

MRS. MALAPROP UNDER ECONOMIC STRESS.

Here are a few odd and original uses of the English language that occurred in one of the Chicago district offices:

An old colored woman announced with evident pride that she had been suffering from two diseases at once, *viz.*: the "Lay-grip" and the "Inflooenzy."

A man of the same complexion said that his boy had first had the "Brown Kiteus," but now had "Lubergalosus."

Another woman had "Information of the stomach and consumption of the liver," but a "description" from the doctor had effected a complete cure.

A German, whose knowledge of English was somewhat limited, met with an accident which incapacitated him. He said that he had spent the year following the accident in the hospitals, the second year in the "Boor House," and that since that date the "suicides" had taken care of him. "De German suicides and the American suicides haf boat ben very goot to me." (He is supposed to have meant the "societies").

A red-nosed, crippled philosopher probably came nearer the truth than he knew when he said to the district agent, "I think you will find that most cripples are adopted to drink, but as for myself, I never drink to success."

About a year ago the Bureau of Charities

assisted a young colored boy to reach his home in Georgia. Recently the following letter was received from him:

BETHEL, GA., June 6, 1904.

CHICAGO BUREAU DISTRICT,
Chicago, Ill.

Dear i am a brown colard Boy with brown eyes 5 ft. High Last time . wayed i 135 Lbs and i gined meath Church when i was Quite Small and am 17 years old And beg you to Send me The names and address of two or three 14 or 15 or 16 years old ladyes nice of you please and can I wounts good prety corespondence

Yours Turly

JOHN SHERMAN.

She had been looking for work for some time and the district agent of a charitable society had also been trying to find it for her. She was old enough to secure her "affidavit," yet was so small a girl that it seemed best not to have her work downtown, and any sort of a job for so tiny a worker proved difficult to find just then. Sickness at home made the child's earnings a necessity, so they kept on trying.

One day she burst into the district office with the good news that she had found a steady job. Her little face was radiant as she answered a question as to what it was.

"Oh, it's a fine job! Not a bit hard! Just opening and shutting the doors!"

"Opening and shutting doors? I don't understand—is that all you do? Where is it?"

"It's four nights a week over at Murphy's dance hall on Wentwort' avenue. All I have to do it to stay by the dress-room door and open and shut it and help the ladies! It is a fine job, and it's *steady!*"

The small girl's joy was not fully reflected in the face of the agent who asked mechanically, and to gain time:

"How much will they pay you, Katie?"

"Oh, I'm not paid anything in *money*. Miss X—, I'm to take out my pay in dancing lessons!"

So much for the "steady job."

A. W. S.

Hyman and Lee Joseph, aged ten and seven respectively, were fighting two Louisville negroes of about the same age. The latter were getting the worst of the battle and decided to emulate General Kuropatkin's masterly retreat. Naturally Hyman, who was larger, outstripped Lee and was about to pounce on the smaller of the two colored boys. This presented a serious problem to Lee who thus might be left to cope with "superior forces." He took in the situation at once, and between labored breaths managed to cry out, "Save the little one for me Hymie."

A. A. H.

CHARITIES

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*The Work Before
the National
Child-labor
Committee.*

With a meeting of its executive committee Oct. 3, at the office of Isaac N. Seligman, New York, the definite work of the National Child-labor Committee has begun. Samuel M. Lindsay, the secretary, who has spent the past few weeks rounding out three years' work as commissioner of education of Porto Rico has made his permanent headquarters in the United Charities Building, and two assistant secretaries, one for special work in the southern states, one for the northern states, have been appointed. For the first, A. J. McKelway, of Charlotte, N. C., was named. Mr. McKelway is known as one of the most effective journalists of the South, having a large knowledge of affairs and acquaintance extending throughout the southern states. He has been for some time editor of the *Charlotte Daily News*, and editor also of the *Presbyterian Standard*.

The special work in the northern states will be taken up by Owen R. Lovejoy, for the past six years pastor of the First Congregational Church of Mount Vernon, N. Y., and general secretary of the New York State Conference of Religion. Two years ago, during the anthracite coal strike, Mr. and Mrs. Lovejoy were sent by citizens of Mount Vernon and vicinity to make an investigation of conditions in the strike region, and at the time made a tour of the entire district affected. Interest in social and industrial reforms led Mr. Lovejoy to undertake some special work desired by the national committee during the present summer, and it is probable that as soon as arrangements can be made to sever his connection with the church at Mount Vernon, he will ac-

cept the permanent position offered by the committee.

The special work taken up during the summer by Mr. Lovejoy in behalf of the committee was in the nature of a preliminary investigation of conditions in the mining, textile and other industries of Pennsylvania and New Jersey for the purpose of gaining a general impression of conditions, and to test various methods of gathering information, rather than for the collection of specific data. He was, however, able to make a somewhat thorough examination of conditions in several localities, and his report contains a study of the operation of the child-labor law in both these states, with suggestions as to needed amendments and possible plans for the proper enforcement of the law. It was the judgment of the committee that this brief study suggests the advisability of undertaking an investigation on a larger scale.

Dr. Lindsay submitted a report on this and other work carried forward since the committee was organized early in the summer. A bibliography has been collected on the subject of child labor, which will be published shortly in CHARITIES, correspondence has been opened with organizations and people interested throughout the country, and the committee is now prepared to co-operate with any local movements for the improvement of child-labor conditions. Mr. McKelway is expected in New York within a few days, when plans for investigation and other work in the southern states will be outlined. It was definitely decided also to undertake at once, in co-operation with local committees, investigations in several northern states of conditions under which children are at work.

The committee plans a series of publi-

cations, concrete and practical in their suggestiveness. Their object will be threefold—the development of public opinion, the guidance of persons interested in the enforcement of such legislation as now exists in the different states, and the securing of needed improvements in present laws.

A Well Rounded Membership. Several important additions have been made since the last meeting, and the general committee is now constituted of the following persons:

Homer Folks (acting chairman), New York city, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, and formerly commissioner of the Department of Public Charities, New York city.

Jane Addams, Hull House, Chicago.

Felix Adler, leader of the Society for Ethical Culture, professor of Political and Social Ethics, Columbia University.

Neal L. Anderson, Montgomery, Ala., one of the active members of the Alabama Child-labor Committee.

William H. Baldwin, Jr., New York city, president Long Island Railroad.

Mrs. Emmons Blaine, Chicago, founder Emmons Blaine School for Teachers, University of Chicago, and member of the Chicago City Homes' Association.

John Graham Brooks, Cambridge, Mass., president National Consumers' League.

Alexander J. Cassatt, Philadelphia, president Pennsylvania Railroad.

E. E. Clark, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, president Order of Railway Conductors of America, and member National Anthracite Coal Commission.

Grover Cleveland, Princeton, N. J., ex-President United States.

Robert W. deForest, New York city, president Charity Organization Society of the City of New York, formerly commissioner of Tenement-house Department, New York city.

Edward T. Devine, New York city, general secretary Charity Organization Society, editor CHARITIES, and director New York School of Philanthropy.

Mrs. Sarah S. Platt Decker, Denver, Col., president National Federation of Women's Clubs.

Judge N. B. Feagin, Birmingham, Ala., one of the Southern leaders in penal and humanitarian reforms.

Hugh F. Fox, New York city, president New Jersey Children's Protective Alliance.

Edward W. Frost, attorney, Milwaukee, Wis.

His Eminence, James Cardinal Gibbons, Baltimore.

David H. Greer, Bishop Coadjutor, Episcopal Diocese of New York, New York city.

J. B. Gaston, Montgomery, Ala., member of the Alabama Child-labor Committee.

Clark Howell, Atlanta, Ga., editor *Atlanta Constitution*.

John S. Huyler, of John S. Huyler & Company, New York city.

Florence Kelley, secretary National Consumers' League, New York city.

J. H. Kirkland, chancellor Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.

Ben B. Lindsey, judge of the Juvenile Court, Denver, Col.

Stanley McCormick, of the McCormick Reaper Company, Chicago, Ill.

V. Everit Macy, New York city, treasurer People's Institute, and treasurer University Settlement.

Beverly B. Munford, Senator, Richmond, Va.

Edgar Gardner Murphy, New York city, secretary Southern Education Board, and chairman Alabama Child-labor Committee.

Adolph S. Ochs, New York city, publisher, *New York Times*, *Philadelphia Public Ledger* and *Chattanooga Times*.

Clifford S. Pinchot, Washington, D. C., chief of the Division of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture.

Isaac N. Seligman, New York city, banker.

Hoke Smith, Atlanta, Ga., ex-secretary of interior, and member of the Georgia Child-labor Committee.

J. W. Sullivan, New York city, editor *Weekly Bulletin of the Clothing Trades*.

Graham Taylor, Chicago, Ill., warden Chicago Commons, editor *The Commons*.

B. R. Tillman, Trenton, S. C., United States Senator.

Paul M. Warburg, New York city, banker.

Lillian D. Wald, New York city, founder Nurses' Settlement.

Talcott Williams, Philadelphia, editorial staff *Philadelphia Press*.

C. B. Wilmer, Atlanta, Ga., secretary of the Georgia Child-labor Committee.

John W. Wood, New York city, corresponding secretary Domestic and Foreign Missionary Society of the Episcopal Church.

The New York School of Philanthropy opened October 4 with an enrolment of nineteen students and the probability of registration that will bring the class up to a membership of thirty-five—a number which will tax the facilities provided and the time of the directors and instructors, to the limit of usefulness. Many of the class are college graduates who have taken courses in economics and sociology, and others have had an amount of experience, either in social service of various kinds, in the actual duties of life, or in both, which

The New York School of Philanthropy.

satisfies the directors that they are ready for the serious and thoughtful work that is before them for the next few months.

More than half of the students enrolled so far have come with the avowed intention of preparing for professional work. The others wish to equip themselves as volunteers in the army of philanthropy.

The lectures and class work for the first two months are in the required courses. The students are advised to take time for consideration before electing which of the special courses they will make their major. While all are urged to take the year's work in its entirety as far as possible and while all the studies should be useful to each no matter what his specialty, the curriculum divides itself into four departments, namely:

The Care of Needy Families in Their Homes (*Organized Charities*).

The Work of Child Helping (*Children's Aid, Orphan Asylums, etc.*).

Work with the Delinquent (*Probation, Reformatories, etc.*).

General Social Service (*Welfare Secretaries, Institutional Church Work, Almoners for Private Benevolence, Club, League and Mission Work, etc.*).

The first and the last of these departments require so nearly the same preparation, that except for the specialized work of the charity organization societies, the courses are identical.

So far as choice has been indicated, there are more who will take the course which prepares for the work of organized charity than for any of the others. There is no social work which requires a wider or more thorough preparation and none for which the school is better equipped.

The settlements will be well represented in the school. Several of the enrolled students are already residents, and others plan to go into residence during the term. The present heads of several settlements in New York are former members of the summer school and know what may be gained from the combination of settlement work and professional study. There is a distinct and positive advantage in such an arrangement.

The first lecture of the introductory course was by Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer,

associate director. It was a presentation of the ground for all work of philanthropy, namely, the people with whom the philanthropist is concerned. The lecturer gave the key to the whole problem when she said that the individual, not, as is often claimed, the family, is the social unit, since every man, woman and child, even the child unborn, has rights which the state recognizes and to which the family's rights are not superior; but that the individual must be dealt with as a member of a family, so that in our practical methods the family and its rights must be considered. In the words of Dr. Josiah Strong, "The family is the organ to which the socialization of the individual is entrusted." Mrs. Spencer contrasted the ancient, patriarchal family, in which the head was supreme and the members had no rights recognized by the state except through the head, with the modern family consisting of members each possessed of inalienable rights as individuals. The gradual changes in law and custom, which have resulted in the modern ideas of individual and family rights, were traced and made clear.

The lectures for the first two weeks are as follows: The first period, daily, from nine to eleven, a continuation of Mrs. Spencer's introductory course; the second period, eleven to one, to be occupied by Samuel McCune Lindsay on *Social Reformers of the Nineteenth Century* (Thursdays and Fridays); C. C. Carstens on *Bequests and Endowments* (Tuesdays and Wednesdays), and Edward T. Devine whose first lecture on *The Literature of Charity* will be given on Monday.

So far the hopes of the promotors that they might found a distinct professional school, seem in a fair way to be realized. If such be the case, the importance of this modest beginning and the future usefulness of what may grow out of it, can hardly be estimated.

The current *Forum* contains a thoughtful and temperate article by Champe S. Andrews on *Private Societies and the Enforcement of the Criminal Law*. The article is suggested by a meeting in New York of some thirty or

"Subordinate Governmental Agencies."

forty citizens held to ventilate their grievances against a society which is engaged in the enforcement of the laws for the protection of animals, or rather by an editorial comment referring to this meeting which raised the question whether there is a real need for private corporations to execute this or that law, or even to see that this or that law is executed.

Arguing chiefly from the services rendered by the Legal Aid Society, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, and the County Medical Society, Mr. Andrews reaches a conclusion which is, on the whole, entirely favorable to the existence of the societies, and to their financial support from the public treasury, in whole or in part. In one respect only, in the opinion of the writer, has the city of New York gone too far in its recognition of such private corporations. This is in the laws permitting fines to be paid to the society instituting the prosecution. One extreme case is cited in which one of the New York societies is said to employ an attorney with the understanding that his fee is to be paid out of the excess of fines over expenditures. This is presumably not one of the societies above mentioned. Mr. Andrews thinks that the charter of such an organization should be repealed, and quotes Dr. Parkhurst as saying "that there is enough money being made out of crime without societies getting into the business themselves."

In support of the general contention that private corporations should be encouraged rather than frowned upon, Mr. Andrews refers to the large number of societies actually existing in the great cities as *prima facie* evidence of their usefulness, and will not even admit that their existence has a bad effect on the regular representatives of the law, by relieving them of their natural duties. He considers that it would be fairer to say that the activity of the private corporation in suppressing particular classes of criminals, instead of giving the police an excuse for ignoring abuses, gives them more opportunity to pursue a relentless warfare on those more violent criminals to whom they must give their first attention.

Aside from the obvious advantage of a private society in the creation of records which are of value, there are one or two

incidental advantages to which attention is called, such as the advantages arising from specialization and the willingness of members of private societies to give confidential information to their own officers and agents.

The writer, however, appears to us not to give sufficient weight to the most serious objection to the system which he advocates. "If private societies," says Mr. Andrews, "are to be frowned upon, there is placed in the hands of the regular officers of the law a monopoly in the enforcement of crime." It is, however, precisely because the present recognition of private societies, coupled with liberal public subsidies, does, in fact, create just such a monopoly in the enforcement of the particular crime for which the society is responsible, that many citizens have become apprehensive in regard to the system. If the societies in question possessed no powers except such as are conferred by statute, there would not perhaps be such a monopoly; but when to special powers conferred by the legislature there is added a well-established custom on the part of the magistrates, prosecuting officers, police officials, and others to consider no complaint except those which come through this recognized channel, we have the anomalous situation of a monopoly in the enforcement of crime which is beyond the reach of local municipal administrations, and which, unlike municipal judges and administrators, cannot even be reached by citizens at the polls.

The *Independent* publishes an article by J. G. Phelps Stokes in which a new interpretation is given to the words of Jesus, "Ye have the poor with you always." These words Mr. Stokes considers not prophetic but merely descriptive of the generation in which they were spoken. They are in the present and not in the future tense and the "ye" are not the non-existent people of the future, but those who are directly addressed. It must have occurred to many that Jesus could not have intended to discourage efforts for the abolition of poverty by pronouncing so depressing a doom as that such efforts should be unavailing; but it is well to have this alternative render-

"Ye Have the
Poor With
You Always."

ing thus emphasized. Mr. Stokes, however, glides too easily from the discovery of what is undoubtedly the fact that much suffering is due to remediable social conditions, to the very different position that with the disappearance of such poverty as is due to remediable and immediate causes, but little will remain.

Defective or undeveloped personality is, perhaps, responsible for as large a proportion of our poverty as Mr. Stokes ascribes to it, but this is to give another name to our problem rather than to analyze it. How shall the defects of defective personality be supplied, and an undeveloped personality be developed? Partly, no doubt, by removing the unfavorable elements of the environment, but partly also, it is equally certain, by strengthening the moral fibre, and changing for the better the character of individuals. Mr. Stokes goes so far as to say that the poverty that is commonly ascribed to drunkenness, and to the various forms of vice and crime can be traced, in most instances, to remediable causes. Defective training and other vital influences in the environment are the causes which the writer has in mind. This is very good doctrine for teachers, school boards, boards of health, and others who are responsible for training and for the character of the environment. It is somewhat dangerous doctrine to preach to the poor man.

A simpler and more direct cure for poverty is to turn the back upon vice and crime; to put drunkenness under foot, and to exercise those personal qualities that were so much in the mind of the old-fashioned exhorters to thrift and sobriety. We are in hearty accord with the plea of Mr. Stokes for wholesome recreation and enjoyment, but only wide-spread disappointment would come, it is to be feared, from the wide-spread acceptance of the idea that by creating a pleasant environment a substitute will be found for personal integrity, industrial efficiency, and the right use of wealth.

"The Bread Line."

C. C. CARSTENS.

The recent death of Louis Fleischmann again calls attention to the New York "bread line," a unique institution that

has been in existence a dozen years or more. Many thousands have become recipients of the nightly dole of a cup of coffee and a half loaf, and the length of the row which forms long before the midnight hour, when the distribution takes place at Tenth street and Broadway, has many times been looked upon as a rough measure of the industrial conditions existing in the city and nation.

It was Mr. Fleischmann's sincere belief that a man who would stand for two hours before midnight on a frosty night awaiting a gift of a half loaf of bread, had satisfied all the requirements of a work test. The personal interest which Mr. Fleischmann took in individual men, and the efforts that were made to place them in permanent employment, are commendable and by no means to be disparaged because of their direct relation to the dole. It is, however, neither hard-headed nor kind-hearted to place before able-bodied young and middle-aged men, of which "the line" is mainly made up, the means of continuing a hand-to-mouth existence when industrial conditions are good and employers are clamoring for laborers. The same day's issue of the newspaper that announced Mr. Fleischmann's death also published an appeal for ordinary laborers which read as follows:

"Here, in the state of Connecticut, within an hour of these homeless men, I have barrels of apples rotting on the ground, corn to cut, potatoes to dig and wood to cut, and I am willing—aye, more than willing—to pay good wages for ten hours' labor doing this work, and cannot find man or boy to be hired. I drove all over this section to find an unemployed man or boy, and could not find one. All my neighbors are in the same condition—want good help.

"Last evening a lady came to me to know if I could tell her where she could get a man to cut her corn that was being ruined by the frost. She did not care about wages; all she wanted was to get a man to work.

"It is true we are in the country—back from the railroads, no saloons—so if we do get a man he works a few days and then becomes discontented, and back to the free lodging house he goes. And this sort of thing will continue just so long as charity maintains men able to work. There is plenty of work in the country, good beds, good food and good wages for honest, decent men who are willing to give a fair day's work for a fair day's pay.

"Some will say there is no work in the country in the winter. There is plenty of

wood to be cut. I wanted one hundred cords of wood cut and was willing to pay one dollar per cord, but could not get it done, and so with thousands of cords of wood. I must buy coal and haul it eight miles."

Clearly the institution of the "bread line" is justified only on the supposition that there are able-bodied men for whom no employment is available. Granting for the sake of argument that there is no work in New York city, a supposition contrary to the fact, the situation in Connecticut that has been described is sufficiently typical of city and country conditions to justify the conclusion that an institution which enables a homeless unemployed man to fall back upon a "bread line" and the fifteen-cent lodging house, or, per chance, the free mission shelter, is doing him and the community at large no kindness, but rather positive injury.

[The Brooklyn *Eagle* presents a metrical and contrasting view of Mr. Fleischmann's charity, which is printed on page 62.—Ed.]

Professor Conrad and the Neighborhood Workers.

A dinner was given Thursday evening at Clinton Hall by the New York Association of Neighborhood Workers to Prof. J. Conrad of Halle—distinguished among continental university circles not only as the teacher of more American professors of economics than any other of the European economists, but also as a man keenly alive among the many professional interests which claim him, to the spirit of the settlement movement in this country and England, beginnings of which merely have manifested themselves in Germany. Gaylord S. White, of Union Settlement, presided and a group of Professor Conrad's old pupils were among those present.

Professor Conrad was received warmly and spoke in English a few words of appreciation for his hearty welcome in various cities and of his opportunity on such occasions as the present for becoming more intimately acquainted with Americans whom he had heretofore met chiefly as students and especially with women interested in social work who have naturally not been very much represented at the University of Halle.

In German the guest of the evening then gave utterance to frank and thoughtful contrast between the social and industrial conditions of Germany and America, and insisted upon the enormous progress made in this country since his visit of eight years ago—progress not only in material matters, but even more noticeably in the field of social welfare and the higher life.

Tracing the growth and analyzing the significance of socialism in the Fatherland, he showed that there is little in common between the revolutionary program of the social-democratic party in Germany and the comparatively moderate demand in this country for the nationalization of particular industrials such as the railways, and that, on the other hand, the number of social-democratic votes in Germany is no accurate indication of the number of persons who would really wish to overthrow completely the existing system. There are reasons for discontent with many features of the existing system, and the social democracy has been the most effective means for voicing this feeling of dissatisfaction and a desire for change. Within the ranks of the workingmen, there is a recent counter-movement of very considerable magnitude. In the trade unions, for example, about seven hundred thousand votes have been cast for social democracy and almost an exactly equal number against it.

Professor Conrad showed himself, as in the lecture room at home, the dispassionate and profoundly interested student, the patriot of deep conviction, and the sympathetic friend of all practical movements for social uplift.

Of the introductory speakers, preceding Professor Conrad, it was appropriate that Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman of Columbia University should take up the relation of the university to the settlement—a relationship which Professor Seligman pre-eminently is seeking to make closer and more vital. This relationship, he maintained, in fact the relation of the university to the whole social problem, as manifested in America to-day, is the product of our democratic development. In the middle ages, although poor men often attended the university, there

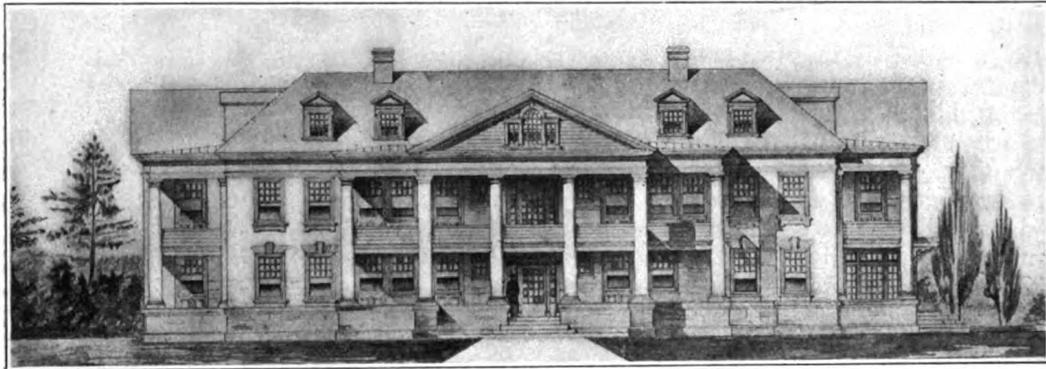
was a subtle tendency for it to develop as an aristocratic institution—to produce a class of gentlemen—the gown as against the town. This rift was later widened by the attitude of the social teachers of the universities to the social problem, owing to mistaken methods and approach. Even to-day, in New York, we still find a remnant of the old idea that science, or pseudo science, is opposed to the workingman. But that has changed—a change due to the growth of the democratic spirit—a change which has made the scientist more tolerant, more willing to receive as well as give. So that we have in English-speaking countries the precise opposite of the situation of two centuries ago—a constantly closer relationship between the universities and the people. The whole settlement movement was started by a university man. It has seemed at times an attempt to do in modern democratic life what was sought in the old monasteries. We are unable to shelter ourselves behind stone and bolt; we go forth boldly to grapple with the problem; that is the difference, but much of the same spirit is there. It is its democratic expression. Much more than is true in this country, life in Germany to-day is circumscribed by the survivals of by-gone ages. For that reason the settlement movement has not met with the same success there. Within the next few decades, it will develop as it has here and in England. And some of the impulse is coming from Professor Conrad, Professor Seligman believes, who more than any other German he has met shows this infiltration of the democratic spirit in modern life.

Professor Conrad next listened to two women settlement residents prominent in the field of social betterment. Mrs. Florence Kelley brought home the fact that it is congestion which is the underlying problem beneath many of the city and social problems of the day. To confuse this with the immigration question leads nowhere; it is a problem of migration, and one with which social workers should sit up nights. A national movement—a unified plan is needed. Dr. Jane Robbins spoke of the change of front since the earlier stages of the settlement movement

when people went into it with the idea of bridging a gulf. Several happily-put instances brought out her thought tellingly.

Edward T. Devine spoke of Dr. Conrad as professor, author, editor, but more of him as guide and friend, his simplicity and directness, and those faculties which get at the heart of a matter, and sift out the original qualities of whomsoever he comes in contact. In turn, the speaker told Professor Conrad of the larger living for which the settlements stand—the seeing life sanely and seeing it whole.

District Attorney Jerome followed and with engaging breeziness told settlement workers and professors and all, in exaggerated way, what he thought of their failings and their real excellencies. A mistake, he said, is made in trying too closely to determine the quantitative value of such work. The architects can say "There's my building." But not so with accomplishment through these other crafts, which looms big or dwindles to nothing in our minds as the fit seizes us. "There was a time," he said, "when I thought with some professors that settlement work was like sprinkling rose water on the Bowery. But that has changed. Cleveland was right when he said it is a condition and not a theory which confronts us. You are up against it and its no use bothering too much as to the philosophy of the thing. Its bang the first head you see, and be very sure there'll be another in its place when that's disposed of. Don't be too much excited as to whether the Lord God will get his sun up at four o'clock in the morning. He'll tend to that. Your business is different. Work away and bring about things, and then when you've got your data together these wise men will come from Germany and East Twenty-second street and tell what it all means. No one except academicians and old people have anything to do with theories. You work because your heart is in your job. Conditions as they are get on your nerves. If you make life sweeter and cleaner, then all right, and forget to make a quantitative analysis of the value of what you are doing."



The Reception Hospital at Saranac Lake, N. Y.

While the Reception Hospital at Saranac Lake, N. Y., is a purely local institution, designed especially to meet peculiar requirements, it has nevertheless certain features which would naturally commend themselves to those who have under consideration the erection of small hospitals for the treatment of tuberculosis, and more especially may this hospital serve as something of a model when it is known that its plans have stood the test of competition, and that they have had the personal supervision of those who have been pioneers in this country in the open-air treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis.

Explaining the origin and scope of the hospital, Dr. Edwin R. Baldwin, physician in charge, writes:

“For a number of years patients with limited means have been drifting into Saranac Lake with the vain hope of being admitted to the Adirondack Cottage Sanatorium, in spite of acute or advanced illness. Through the generosity of Miss Mary R. Prescott, a cottage has been maintained for three years where from ten to twelve patients have been nursed and cared for during the acute stages of the disease while awaiting admission to the sanatorium. This was not intended to be a home for incurables, but to provide temporary care for those who otherwise would have had very little chance of improvement, to say nothing

of recovery. The great increase in applications for admission to the Adirondack Cottage Sanatorium has made it necessary to be more and more strict in receiving only those who could be treated most successfully in the shortest time; and thus many patients who would not be actually unfavorable if properly cared for, have been obliged to get what care they could in boarding-houses. In addition to those patients, others who have been taken suddenly ill, often require temporary care. There have been so many of this class that it has been the rule of the Reception Hospital not to receive applications from outside of the town.

“The increasing need of such an institution made it apparent that a suitable building should be constructed, and through the liberality of the Prescott family, together with subscriptions from the townfolk and guests in Saranac Lake, a building fund nearly enough to cover the cost of the new hospital buildings has been provided.”

The new hospital building stands on an elevation of about sixty feet above the village of Saranac Lake, faces south by east, commanding pleasant mountain and valley views in all directions. The soil is sandy, percolation is very rapid, and there is no ground water anywhere in the vicinity. A fringe of pine and birch trees on the northwest acts as a wind breaker.

The architects of the hospital, Messrs. Scopes & Feustmann, describe the building as follows:

"The plans were developed by the architects with the purpose in view of providing modern sanatorium accommodations for twelve acute or advanced and eight convalescing cases of tuberculosis in individual rooms; however, owing to the fact that the deficit is borne by one person, but fifteen patients will be accepted at present. The acute or advanced cases will be treated on the first and second floors in rooms ten feet by thirteen feet six inches, having two windows. Each patient has direct access to a porch by means of a combination of door and double hung window through which a bed may be wheeled. The patients in a convalescing condition may be accommodated on the third floor and will use the lower porches for the outdoor cure. Although ample porch room is provided (100 square feet per patient) every effort has been made to arrange the piazzas in such a manner as to shade the patients' rooms as little as possible. To this end the porches have not been made continuous, but are placed in three sections, respectively, on the south front and in the southeast and southwest angles of the building. Furthermore, the two ends of the south porch have been recessed to introduce sunlight into such patients' rooms as would otherwise be entirely shaded by the deep porches. It should be noted that the latter blanket only unimportant rooms. All patients' rooms have southern exposure and by the above arrangement will receive sunlight during some portion of the day. By placing the street entrance at the extreme east end of the building, the privacy of the patients on the first floor is assured. Sliding sash are used at the exposed angles of porches as a protection from draughts.

"Transoms have not been used over windows for ventilation, but all windows have been placed close to the ceiling; outside transoms are difficult to operate and are costly. However, transoms are placed over all bedroom doors to be used in connection with corridor and bedroom windows for continuous natural ventilation, but all openings are placed in such relation to the bed as not to expose the

patient to draughts when indoors. Each corridor is in itself carefully ventilated and lighted at either end by sash doors and transoms and laterally by large windows, making possible frequent flushing with fresh air; it is hoped in this way to reduce to a minimum the annoyance from the usual hospital odors.

"As the advantages of sanitary towers are largely illusory the plumbing is placed in well-aired angles of the building and in every instance is separated by two doors from the main corridor. The heating is by a simple system of direct hot-water radiation with radiators under windows. Electric lights are provided throughout the building. Annunciators are placed in nurses' rooms and office, connecting with all patients' rooms, baths and porches.

"The walls of all bath and toilet rooms are finished with Keene's cement and painted with white enamel. For acoustic reasons all other walls are plastered with common lime mortar. All internal angles are rounded into ceilings and walls. The bases are of special design perfectly rounded against floors, which are of narrow comb-grained Georgia pine.

"Wardrobes and closets have been purposely omitted from patients' rooms; all outer clothing is cared for in ventilated locker rooms on each floor. These rooms are provided with double doors and windows made air-tight by the use of gaskets, thus permitting frequent disinfection.

"Reducing the cost of service no diet kitchens are provided on the several stories, but all diets are prepared in the large pantry next to the kitchen and distributed to the other floors by means of a dumb-waiter in the service wing. An hydraulic elevator large enough to receive a wheeled chair is provided for patients.

"The exterior walls are of rough dark red brick having wide white mortar joints, bonded every fifth course with black headers. The exterior finish is of wood painted cream white. It has been considered that this treatment carried out in the spirit of the Georgian period offered the best architectural expedient for a building requiring two-storied porches.

"The cost of this building complete, exclusive of furnishings, is about \$21,000.

It might be well to add that the hospital is connected to the excellent water supply and drainage system furnished by the corporation of Saranac Lake, obviating the necessity for expensive individual water supply and sewage disposal plants."

The nominal term of treatment has been placed at two months, and during the summer and fall months there has always been such a considerable waiting list that very few have been kept beyond this nominal term. The charges have been \$7 a week, the deficiency averaging \$4.25 a week per patient being met in each case by Miss Prescott. There is also

a free bed fund maintained by interested friends, to which subscriptions and contributions are very much needed.

Dr. E. L. Trudeau is one of the board of trustees of the institution, the visiting staff of physicians being composed of Dr. Lawrason Brown, Dr. Charles C. Trembley, Dr. Hugh M. Kinghorn and Dr. Edward R. Baldwin. Quoting the latter once more:

"Institutions of this character are much needed in the vicinity of all large cities; perhaps this building though designed for a special purpose would serve as a model for these others."

The Other Side of the World's Fair

W. H. McClain

General Manager St. Louis Provident Association

The Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis is a concrete showing of the world's work in all its phases, from Then to Now, and a parade of all its working forces, whether of brain, brawn or instinct.

From Patagonia to Greenland, and from every great circle of the sphere have been gathered not only the inhabitants themselves, but their products and peculiarities. One may learn there by ocular demonstration, how the world has lived in the past and how it lives to-day; what it has done and is now doing, and what are its dreams for the future.

To the sociological student it affords an ample field of research and to the scientific charity worker it has demonstrated anew how improvident and uncautious the ordinary mortal is prone to be. The exposition has attracted not alone a horde of dependents from distant parts of the world but a multitude of "home-grown" pilgrims have made of it a mecca, with no precautions as to keeping open their line of retreat.

The statistics of the St. Louis Provident Association show that while, the applications for relief from families previously resident in St. Louis, compared with 1903, have decreased during the Fair period ten and one-half per cent (recurrent applications fourteen and two-thirds), the applications from transients have increased fifty-four and one-third per cent. Among these the inevitable and persistent

tramp has not been so much in evidence as the incautious and ill-advised adventurer who, with his family, has forsaken home and moderate income to come to St. Louis and "get rich quick" by the imaginary opportunities of the Fair. Without capital, without friends and unacquainted with city ways, these have come by hundreds to find the Fair a veritable "Port Arthur" with every avenue to success occupied or blockaded and destitution imminent. Many of these cases are pitiful. The home has been broken up and its belongings sold and the bridges leading back are gone. The wife is in tears and the children hungry.

Ordinary foresight by way of a preliminary inquiry or a previous trip by the head of the family alone might have prevented many of these "emergencies" but, alas, they "read it in the papers." And so they are stranded.

It is anticipated that the close of the Fair will leave many such families in real distress and that the applications for relief will be numerous and pressing during the coming fall and winter.

This was the case at Chicago and at Buffalo, and will probably be repeated at St. Louis when the reactionary period, which usually follows such enterprises, sets in and the demand for workers in every department declines to the normal condition.

It is a fortunate thing that the chari-

ties of St. Louis are well organized and will probably be able to give relief and counsel to these unfortunates.

A few sample cases of the Provident Association will indicate the general trend of the appeals of the past summer:

Case of a Spaniard with a French wife and three children; raised at New Orleans and making a fairly good living; husband conceived the idea of taking a live "sea-lion" from Havana to exhibit at the Fair; spent all his savings (about \$600), in getting the animal to St. Louis where it died in a short time; he then had it stuffed, expecting to sell it as a specimen, but found no purchaser; having run entirely out of money and being in arrears for several weeks' room-rent he was notified to vacate his room; applied for transportation back to his home for himself and family.

Case of a German woman, quite deaf and speaking little English; has three little boys, two, five and seven; husband a musician who came to St. Louis from their home in Iowa; found employment at the Fair and wrote for his family to come on, but sent them no money; when wife and children arrived and went to his address they found he had been on a spree, had lost his job and had gone to Memphis without leaving word or money; woman had wandered around looking for work without success and appeared at the office tired, hungry, dirty and deaf with the three children clinging to her skirts. Asked for shelter and food.

Case of man, wife and girl about nine. all fairly well dressed and the picture of health; asked to be cared for until they could locate themselves in the city and get work; stated that they left New York state three months ago to come to the Fair and had walked all the way to St. Louis; had about \$50 when they started in cash; had been three months on the road and had subsisted on the public for the most part; had just arrived in the city and came direct to the office of the Provident Association to

report. When asked why they did not come by rail and reach their destination in a few hours they said they preferred the other method. When it was suggested that they had wasted three months in traveling and that they might have been at work earning good wages during that time, said they did not come to us "to be insulted and that we did not know our business and they would go to the mayor of the city and report us"; they then left giving a specimen of their accomplishments in profanity as a parting shot.

Case of a well-dressed young man carrying a ten-dollar silk umbrella, who said he was a hardware salesman in New York; came to St. Louis three days before to seek work at the Fair; had been unsuccessful and wanted to be sent back to New York; said he could get plenty of work in New York, but could not tell why he left his good opportunities there to seek a new field; had only \$12 left (the charity-rate being \$11.75). Evidently a case of pure economy.

Case of two runaway boys from Chicago, aged fourteen; came down to see the Fair and were picked up by the police and placed in the "detention-room" by the Juvenile Court; correspondence was had with their parents who sent the money for their return home; parents had not known their whereabouts.

Case of a single man, aged twenty-two, who gave up a job of eighteen dollars a week in Pittsburg; expected to do better and see the Fair; had been in the city five weeks, no employment and out of money; wanted to be sent home.

Case of a single man, aged twenty-four, a clerk from Kentucky; thought he would have no trouble in finding work at good wages, which would pay his expenses and enable him to see the Fair; wrote a good hand and is fairly educated; had failed to get employment and was out of money; had been doing dish-washing for his board; wanted transportation back to his home in Kentucky.

England's Double Problem of Migration

AN INTERVIEW WITH SIR HOWARD VINCENT, M. P.

After studying for some weeks the administration of the United States immigration laws, Sir Howard Vincent, M. P., on a private mission to this country, has come to the conclusion that Great Britain could not do better than adopt the American laws as a whole and set up similar machinery to put them into effect. He found Ellis Island, he said, an almost perfect piece of mechanism.

Our visitor has been studying general effects and tendencies rather than statistics. Before coming, he had found the United States laws to his liking, and the trip was to watch them, unofficially, in the working out with a view to adapting them to British conditions.

To a representative of CHARITIES, the English parliamentarian said: "It is not for me to give any opinion concerning the legislation America deems desirable for the welfare of her citizens, and especially any that pertains to further restriction of immigration. But I can gladly say that from an extended personal inquiry at Ellis Island, the system in force in New York harbor under the direction of Commissioner William Williams is admirable in all its bearings, medical, humanitarian, social. I was greatly struck with its thoroughness and at the same time with its thoughtfulness for the comfort, the feelings and the welfare of the immigrant; especially through the barriers raised against the 'land shark.' I only wish that we had in England a law approximately as useful.

"Ours is a double problem. Not only do we have a large and increasingly unwelcome immigration, but at the same time we have an emigration that is increasing in volume and in the character of the men and women who leave us. For the year ending June 30, 1904, England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales sent to the United States over 87,000 immigrants, who were largely of sturdy stock, useful citizens for either country. This was an increase of over 18,000 over the previous year. At the same time, we admitted over 68,000 aliens, who were very

largely from eastern Europe, a class we do not desire.

"It thus appears that relief from congestion in the large cities, which is the only use for emigration from England, was not accomplished last year, for we took in almost as many as we sent out. As a matter of fact, it is probable that the exchange of old for new residents in London, gave an actually larger population, because the emigration from smaller cities and the country very likely more than made up for the discrepancy of some 20,000 between the coming and the going.

"The net result for us, then, was an exchange of Englishmen for eastern immigrants of a low class.

"Our problem is similar to yours in the fact that the immigrants settle almost exclusively in the large cities—in London, Liverpool, Hull, Leeds and Glasgow. In London there are about 300,000 foreign-born Jews and 40,000 Italians, while in my own district, Sheffield, there are only three alien Jews. Immigration is seen to me almost entirely a city problem.

"For the past twenty years I have been actively interested in immigration, and for sixteen years I have endeavored to secure the passage of a restrictive law. It is a very hard thing to accomplish in England. You see that Radicals have taken a stand against it for prely political motives, and beyond them is the tradition that every man who flees to England for his conscience sake must be admitted. It is hard to see how this can be applied to much of the present immigration, but the feeling is played on by the Radicals and was the means last year of defeating my bill when it had been made a Government measure.

"Next session I have the promise of the Government that it will pass the bill. I have watched the application of restriction laws in New York, Boston and Canada, and shall prepare a detailed report which will be made an important part of the campaign for the act.

"Do not misunderstand me, and think that we grudge you the good immigrants sent to you. We are glad for relief from congestion in London. But when the English emigrant is at once replaced by the Russian immigrant, there has been a net loss to us in the man himself, and

his fellows who remained at home are subjected to the competition of the new-comer whose lower standard of living enables him to work for lower wages, and in general to drive down the already depressed standards of the London working classes."

Program of the Fifth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction

The program of the fifth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction has been issued and ensures for the meeting at Syracuse, November 15-18, a well-knit series of papers and discussions. Following is the program in outline:

TUESDAY EVENING.

8 P. M.—Addresses of welcome.

Alan C. Forbes, mayor of Syracuse.

Charles Andrews, chairman of the Local Committee.

President's address—Robert W. Heberd, Albany.

10 P. M.—Reception to delegates at Yates Hotel.

WEDNESDAY MORNING.

Subject: Preventive Social Work.

10.30 A. M.—Report of the Committee on Preventive Social Work, by the chairman, Prof. James H. Hamilton, head-worker of the University Settlement, New York city.

10.50 A. M.—Paper, *Juvenile Delinquency as Affected by the Practice of Democracy in the Schools*, by principal Charles R. Drum, Prescott School, Syracuse.

11.10 A. M.—Discussion opened by William R. George, superintendent of the George Junior Republic Association, Freeville.

11.40 A. M.—Paper, *Child-labor Legislation*, by Myron E. Adams, Welcome Hall Social Settlement, Buffalo.

12 M.—Discussion opened by James K. Paulding, secretary of the Child-labor Committee, New York.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

Subject: Treatment of the Criminal.

3 P. M.—Report of the Committee on the Treatment of the Criminal, by the chairman, Julius M. Mayer, New York.

3.20 P. M.—Paper, *Religious Influence in Prison Work*, by the Rev. Thomas J. Mulvey, Brooklyn.

WEDNESDAY EVENING.

Subject: Dependent, Neglected, Delinquent and Defective Children.

8.30 P. M.—Report of the Committee on Dependent, Neglected, Delinquent and Defective Children, by the chairman, Mornay Will-

iams, president of the New York Juvenile Asylum, New York.

8.50 P. M.—Paper, *The School as a Training Place for the Home*, by Charles D. Hilles, superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum, New York.

9.10 P. M.—Discussion opened by Porter R. Lee, assistant secretary, Buffalo Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.

9.40 P. M.—Paper, *Legislative Interference on behalf of Children*, by the Rev. Thomas L. Kinkead, St. Francis' Home, Peekskill.

10 P. M.—Discussion opened by Dr. Lee K. Frankel, manager, United Hebrew Charities, New York.

THURSDAY MORNING.

Subject: Institutional Care of Destitute Adults.

10.30 A. M.—Report of the Committee on the Institutional Care of Destitute Adults, by the chairman, Dr. Daniel C. Potter, chief examiner of Accounts of Institutions, Finance Department, New York.

10.50 A. M.—Paper, *The Care of the Dependent Blind*, by Dr. F. Park Lewis, president of State Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Adult Blind in the State of New York, Buffalo.

11.10 A. M.—Discussion opened by William B. Buck, superintendent of inspection, State Board of Charities, Albany.

11.40 A. M.—Paper, *Improved Methods of Caring for Dependent Adults*, by James E. Dougherty, deputy commissioner of Public Charities, New York.

12 M.—Discussion opened by the Rev. William J. White, D. D., supervisor of Catholic Charities of the Diocese of Brooklyn, New York.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

Subject: Care and Relief of Needy Families in their Homes.

3 P. M.—Report of the Committee on the Care and Relief of Needy Families in their Homes, by the chairman, George A. Lewis, Buffalo.

3.20 P. M.—Paper, *How to Aid Deserted Wives*, by C. C. Carstens, assistant secretary, the Charity Organization Society, New York.

3.40 P. M.—Discussion opened by Frank E. Wade, chairman, committee on wife de-

sersion, Buffalo Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.

4.10 P. M.—Paper, *The Control of Volunteers*, by the Rev. D. J. McMahon, D. D., supervisor Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York, New York.

4.30 P. M.—Discussion opened by the Rev. Max Landsberg, D. D., secretary, Jewish Orphan Asylum Association of Western New York, Rochester.

THURSDAY EVENING.

Subject: Politics in Penal and Charitable Institutions.

8.30 P. M.—Report of Committee on Politics in Penal and Charitable Institutions, by the chairman, Prof. Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University, Ithaca.

8.50 P. M.—Paper, *The Civil Service Law as Applied to Penal and Charitable Institutions*, by Charles S. Fowler, chief examiner, State Civil Service Commission, Albany.

9.10 P. M.—Discussion opened by John Lord O'Brian, of the Civil Service Reform Association, Buffalo.

FRIDAY MORNING.

Subject: The Mentally Defective.

10.30 A. M.—Report of the Committee on the Mentally Defective, by the chairman, Dr. Eugene H. Howard, superintendent of the Rochester State Hospital, Rochester.

10.50 A. M.—Paper, *Importance of Recognition and Appropriate Care of Distinct Phases of Mental Defect*, by Dr. William L. Russell, medical inspector of Institutions for the Insane, Poughkeepsie.

11.10 A. M.—Discussion opened by Dr. Robert B. Lamb, medical superintendent of the Dannemora State Hospital, Dannemora.

11.40 A. M.—Paper, *Duties and Responsibilities of Managers, Visitors and Trustees of Institutions for the Care of the Mentally Defective*, by Daniel B. Murphy, member of the Board of Managers of the Craig Colony, Rochester.

12 M.—Discussion opened by Dr. Charles Bernstein, superintendent of the Rome State Custodial Asylum, Rome.

California Camps and Tramps

James H. Rogers

Institutions in San Francisco are now fully convinced of the value of summer outings and their effect upon the character and conduct of boys. The history of the past summer's experiences undertaken by the Columbia Park Boys' Club, the South Park Settlement Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Telegraph Hill Boys' Club are typical of the methods and scope of the work undertaken.

The Columbia Park Boys' Club sent out about one hundred boys during the summer. A group of twenty-five under the leadership of the head-worker, Sidney S. Peixotto, with two other workers, tramped from San Francisco to Los Angeles by way of the famous El Camino road, a distance of over five hundred miles. The boys gave vaudeville and minstrel shows at the principal towns along the route, earning not only their own expenses but in part those of another group of sixty boys encamped at Carmel Point, Monterey County, in charge of John Brewer.

The latter was the third annual camp of the "State of Columbia," described in a previous number of CHARITIES. The government and daily routine were practically the same. The day was given up

to transacting the affairs of the state government. There were classes in flower-painting and bead-work, and the leaders tried to stimulate an interest in natural science by expeditions for the collection of insects and stones and the study of trees and shrubs. However, the main portion of the day was given up to a game, or to excursions to places of interest nearby as, for instance, to the old Carmel Mission, standing to-day as a monument of Father Junipero Serra. Both camps were uniformed, both played games with local teams, generally coming out the victors, and both pleased the people of the neighborhood with their well-acted performances.

A. J. Todd, of South Park, established the second "Boytown" at Sebastopol, among the berry orchards, where, as last year, the boys earned part of their expenses by fruit-picking, the rest of the cost being met by friends. The chores and duties of camp life were done by routine under a municipal form of government. There were twenty boys, ranging in age from ten to fifteen, each wearing a simple uniform. They tramped to the springs and geysers, and walked to the towns within a radius of twenty miles giving a minstrel show, thus earning sev-

eral hundred dollars. On the breaking up after two months of camp life, the boys marched over a hundred miles in less than four days.

Besides this boys' club, there are many others which meet at South Park. For these, a camp was also provided on the coast a few miles beyond Inverness. To this camp came in succession, each for a two weeks' outing, mothers' clubs, young women's clubs and young men's clubs. All paid their own traveling expenses (special rates had been secured) and cost of living, only the housing and furnishings being supplied by the settlement. The success of this outing is due to the untiring energy and inexhaustible resourcefulness of Miss Lucile Eaves.

The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, of which Herbert Lewis is superintendent, had a large group of boys working among the fruit orchards of the state, pleasing their employers and placing a good many hundred dollars to their credit.

The Young Men's Christian Association had over one hundred and thirty young boys encamped at Cloverdale, under the leadership of F. A. Jackson and his assistants. This outing lasted a month, from June 15 to July 15, each member contributing fifteen dollars which paid his expenses. No regular program was carried out, but the time was taken up in two daily swims, fishing and boating, ball games, tramps to the geysers and mineral springs, visits to the world-famous Asti winery and the large orchards about the country. The gathering about the camp-

fire in the evening with stories and games warmed their hearts and their toes at the same time.

The twenty citizens of the "City of Telhi," mostly Italians, had been members of the Telegraph Hill Boys' Club for only a month. Therefore, it made an interesting experiment, for it was to prove whether the boy of the street, unused to club rules and routine, would conduct a well-regulated and orderly camp such as those which had been carried on by boys from decent homes accustomed to years of club life and organization. The interest and spirit of the citizens of Telhi, their working-out of municipal affairs, their obedience to the laws and their generally manly behavior were cause for just satisfaction to those who had the camp in charge. As in the other clubs, the boys learned to give fairly good entertainments to interested audiences gathered from the surrounding country. They played games of ball and had their tramps and daily dips in the sunny pools. In fact, these lads from the foul-smelling, dirty alleys of the crowded city—lads who spend the best part of their lives in the narrow confines of one square block—went wild at the prospect of a daily swim, and broad fields for walks and sports, and demonstrated their appreciation of these larger opportunities in a ready willingness to please and obey. The camp at Telhi—so-called, by the way, because it was made up of Telegraph Hill boys—encouraged the leader to believe that even raw boys can be made happy and useful in the country if kept to a busy and regular life.

Fleischmann.

[From the Brooklyn Eagle.]

He did not pay big salaries to investigate
the poor;
That's why his light above the rest shines
like a Kohinoor—
Remembering, in simplicity, just what the
Master said,
He simply found the hungry, and he simply
gave them bread.

He did not help to raise the pile of granite
so much prized
By those who think that Charity's a sin
"not organized;"
And why a man was starving didn't much
disturb his head,
He simply found the hungry and he simply
gave them bread.

He did not pour more gall on Want with
myriad questionings,
Or hire other folks to do such questionable
things,
But, ere the famished mortals here were
altogether dead,
He simply found the hungry and he simply
gave them bread.

Ah, well, the experts call his course "un-
scientific, quite,"
And since they built this science up, of
course they must be right;
'Twould hurt them should his notions—or
Christ's—too freely spread;
He simply found the hungry and he simply
gave them bread. J. A.

CHARITIES

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In connection with Dr. King's description of the attractive "lean tos" in use at Liberty, an article in the October number of *The Outdoor Life* deserves attention. The writer, who is a New York man experienced in Adirondack camp life, describes an experimental camp built on an island in Lake Placid last year which has been successful in affording complete shelter in stormy weather and which cost less than \$200 per capita.

This camp was built around three sides of a hollow square, fronting a camp-fire. On each of the two sides of the square were constructed three bedrooms, thirteen by thirteen feet; at the back of the square, opposite the camp-fire, is a chimney and fireplace, and back of this, the one chimney serving for both the fireplace and the cooking stove, is the kitchen, which is open on one side and faces a brook about twenty-five feet away. The square in the center, which has a roof raised two feet above the roofs of the sleeping-rooms, serves as a dining hall and sitting-room. This camp has been found entirely satisfactory for six or seven months in the year.

The writer suggests that states which are building sanatoria for the tuberculous poor could, by adopting the plan he describes, provide accommodations for five or six times as many patients as could be cared for, with the same expenditure, in buildings similar to those of the recently opened New York state hospital. The construction cost of the Raybrook plant exceeded \$1,000 per patient, while the cost in the camp, as described, was less than \$200. The idea of the writer is that such camps should be used, grouped around central buildings. The only objection to the plan is that no provision is made for nearly half the year. Nor does the estimate of the per capita cost of this sort

of provision include the cost of the central buildings. As a suggestion, however, it is interesting, and deserves consideration, as does every plan for lessening the cost of providing for this large class of sufferers.

*The Almshouse
and Its Reform.*

The plan for state control of almshouses, as presented by Ernest P. Bicknell in his St. Louis paper, which is reprinted in this number of CHARITIES, is worthy of careful consideration. It ably presents one of the three plans for the improvement of our local public charitable institutions which may be regarded as practicable for adoption.

One of these plans—the only one which has actually been adopted anywhere—is to improve the almshouse by removing to state institutions all defectives, delinquents, and others in need of special treatment, thus leaving in the almshouse only the aged and infirm. While this is the aim in many states, it has been wholly realized in none, and even where state institutions exist for each class in need of special treatment of any kind, their accommodations are inadequate to care for every member of each of these classes, and so persons remain in almshouses who are unsuitable for almshouse care.

Another plan which has been advocated, though rarely, is that the state should assume the care of all the poor in almshouses, as it has done in the case of the insane and other special cases, establishing and administering a sufficient number of homes in different parts of the state for people of the almshouse class. It is certainly open to question whether the town and the county are not too small divisions of the commonwealth to form proper units of selection for public institutions, and the plan of complete state control of all public charitable institutions has many

arguments of economy and efficiency to commend it.

Mr. Bicknell's plan seems to be a cross between the complete local and the complete central systems. His plan differs little from that system of mixed local and state care with which we are familiar in the case of state institutions which care for inmates at the expense of the localities from which they come. The chief points of difference are that in Mr. Bicknell's plan the state would not own the buildings but would select the inmates, while in the ordinary cases of the mixed system the state owns the buildings but does not select the inmates. The mixed system of state and local care, as in ordinary use, is a logical one but seldom works well. Mr. Bicknell's plan is not so logical, but it might work better. Under the former, the localities select the dependents who are to be sent to state institution, and then pay the cost of their care. As the towns and counties often send the wrong people, or, more often, fail to send the right people to state institutions, the latter are hampered in their work. This is bad, but would it not be equally bad for the state to select public dependents and run up bills against localities without giving the localities any right to say whether they would or would not pay for those particular people? Such a plan seems somewhat of an invasion of the right of local government.

Mr. Bicknell's scheme seems to be devised largely with a view to getting trained men and women to take charge of almshouses. The question might be raised whether this could not be accomplished in other ways—through changes in the civil service laws, for instance, which would provide that these positions should be filled by appointment, never by election, and by candidates who had passed suitable examinations? If the local system, even with such improvements as it is capable of, is not satisfactory, then the question remains open: Would not a complete state system be better than a mixed system, with its inevitable opportunities for friction between local and central authorities?

The Profession of the Sanitarian. Among several valuable papers read in St. Louis in the Public Health section

of the International Congress of Arts and Sciences was one by Dr. Ernst J. Lederle, former commissioner of health of New York city, on the present problems connected with public health. Dr. Lederle, according to the summary of his paper in *American Medicine*, stated that:

A new profession had been called into existence in the person of the sanitarian. Medical men had had so much to do with the preaching of sanitary science that it had come to be looked on as their peculiar province, but the training incident to the formation of a physician did not tend to make a good administrator, and generally the accomplishment of results in sanitary science was likely to be best attained by a properly trained layman, aided by skilled medical advice upon purely medical points. The ideal Board of Health should consist of a medical man thoroughly proficient in bacteriology, a trained engineer, and a man of affairs selected especially on account of his breadth of view and his administrative capacity. The speaker strongly advocated the establishment of a national Board of Health, which would be able to settle such questions as national quarantine, and to secure the adequate training of its own sanitary officers. Sanitary inspection was left too much in the hands of men without adequate training and without sufficient theoretic knowledge. What the service needed was to attract a higher class of men into its service than many who at present took up the work; but in order to accomplish this it was necessary that a sufficiently attractive rate of pay should be offered. The establishment of a national Board of Health would quickly effect that. Its first business would be the prevention of the spread of preventable disease, though there were many other points to which its attention should be also devoted. But it must be kept clear of all party politics. Once the high sanitary officers came under the control of the politician he would eventually control the subordinates also, and then the efficiency of the service would be irretrievably hampered. Rigid inspection of the public schools was another matter that was urgently necessary, for they were the principal mediums for the spread of contagious diseases. With regard to smallpox, compulsory vaccination should be enforced in the public schools as a condition of entrance. While the bacteriologist had done more than anyone else to check the spread of contagious disease, the speaker urged that private laboratories should be put under the supervision and direct control of the Board of Health, even if the latter were not endowed with the function of the production of serums. Re-

garding tuberculosis, the speaker urged the foundation of sanatoriums and institutions on a large scale for the care of those afflicted with the disease, and maintained that the saving of the community through the service that would otherwise be lost to it by the incapacitating of so many workers would speedily counterbalance the cost of erecting and maintaining the institutions. Factory and child labor, water and milk supply, etc., were considered in their relation to disease, and co-operation between state and municipal authorities advocated. The wide and growing interest in public health problems was one of the greatest forces at work in this new science, of which men still in the prime of life in the United States had seen the beginnings. The bacteriologist, the sanitarian, and the engineer must work hand in hand to accomplish the solution of the important problems that faced them.

Edward Grubb, who succeeded Mr. Tallack as secretary of the Howard Association, visited the United States in February and March last for the purpose of studying penal administration. In a pamphlet just issued by the Howard Association he gives the results of his observations during these eight weeks.

Mr. Grubb finds that "the prisons of the United States are good and bad; there is no such uniformity as is found in England, where all are under one centralized management. I saw many varieties, from the palatial edifice that is being constructed by the Federal Government near Atlanta, Georgia, to the miserable dens that are still thought good enough for petty misdemeanants."

Mr. Grubb notes that it is characteristic of American life that the relation between officers and prisoners, are, as a rule, more humane than in English prisons. These humane relations, if discipline is maintained, appear to him to be good.

The idleness of prisoners in New York and other states owing to labor agitation, leads to the remark that, "it is neither just nor expedient that the curse of idleness should be imposed upon those who have gone astray, and for whose support society makes itself responsible."

His remark that the dietary of the Eastern Penitentiary, Philadelphia, "is not administered on scientific principles,"

would apply to nearly all American prisons. Mr. Grubb speaks highly of the Maryland Penitentiary, Baltimore, and also of the Indiana State Prison. Of political appointments and removals for partisan reasons, he says:

"It is difficult to conceive any plan more fatal to successful administration than is this practice, which seems to an Englishman peculiarly idiotic, of making these appointments a part of the spoils claimed by a party which has been victorious at a contested election."

Mr. Grubb finds our city and county jails, as well he might, far from satisfactory, but of our state reformatories he says: "No English institutions, I regret to say, are to be compared with the great reformatories which the progressive spirit of the Northern states has established, in the faith (which is now a fact of experience) that a large portion of the criminal population is, by proper methods, reclaimable." It is interesting to note that Mr. Grubb reverses an opinion which his predecessor, Mr. Tallack had formed in regard to American reformatories and which that gentleman himself afterwards corrected, on receiving more adequate information. Mr. Tallack in his *Penological Principles* assumed that our reformatories rather pampered the prisoner. Mr. Grubb says: "I looked carefully for anything to justify the common charge that Elmira and other reformatories that have followed it, are sentimental, and pamper the wrong-doer regardless of the victims whom he has wronged and the society whose laws he has outraged. I found nothing. Life in these places is very far, indeed, from being a perpetual picnic. Discipline is severe and incessant."

Mr. Grubb also devotes several pages to a discussion of Southern prisons, the lease system and lynching in the South, and shows from the testimony of American prison wardens and also by statistics, that negro prisoners are as capable of reformation as are white.

*England and
the
Parole System.*

Since writing this pamphlet, Mr. Grubb has sent a communication, nearly a column in length, to the *London Times* of September 28, 1904, giving a detailed description of the essential

features of the parole system of conditional liberation in the United States. He says: "The great advantages of the parole system seem to be (1) that it interposes a middle stage between the mechanical routine of prison life, where the prisoner has but little scope for the exercise of his own will, and the freedom of life outside. This transition, when abrupt, is usually quite too severe a strain upon the ordinary prisoner, even if on his release he really means to do right. (2) It assures him not in word only, but in deed, that the state has his welfare at heart, and will do all in its power by sympathetic agents to help him to recover his position in society."

The writer concludes: "I venture to urge the adoption of some system akin to this as the most pressing reform in British methods of prison administration. The state, I venture to urge, has too long left this work to voluntary agencies, under the theory that its only function in these matters is to see that an offender duly expiates his infraction of the law. The American states can show us the beneficial results that follow when not punishment merely, but the whole work of facilitating reformation in its widest sense, is felt to belong to the state."

Notes of the Week.

National Prison Association.—An interesting program has been mapped out for the meeting of the National Prison Association in Quincy, Ill., next week. In consequence of the death of the late Charlton T. Lewis, Dr. Frederick Howard Wines, first vice-president, has been named president by the executive committee. At the meeting of the Wardens' Association, October 17, there will be addresses by Warden J. T. Gilmour of Toronto on "Some Phases of Delinquency," by John Kenneth Fernier of Scotland Yard, London, on "Finger Marks as a Means of Identification of Criminals," and by Warden Charles E. Cox of the New Hampshire State Prison on "The Relation of the State to the Criminal." Massachusetts, Illinois and Kansas speakers will address the Chaplains' Association in the afternoon. Speakers before the prison association proper includes Judge Ben B. Lindsey of Denver, Eugene Smith of New York, Superintendent H. E. Allison of Fishkill and Dr. Robert B. Lamb of Dannemora, N. Y., Dr. Henry Hatch of Quincy, Bishop Samuel J. Fallows of Chicago and the Rev. Samuel G. Smith of St. Paul. The standing committees and a spe-

cial committee on recent changes in legislation and administration will report.

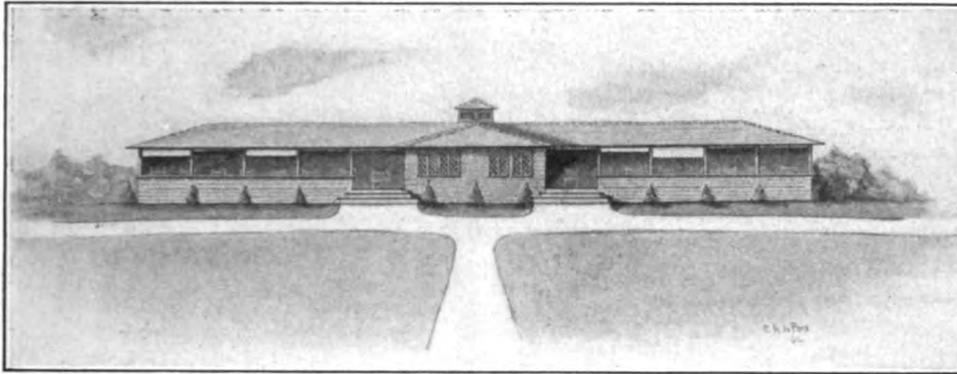
A Need Not Met.—Judge Sweeney, of the First Precinct Police Court, of Newark, N. J., deplors the lack of an institution for women with the drink habit. In connection with the arraignment of a woman for drunkenness, he is quoted by the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections*, as follows: "I want to call the attention of the public to the deplorable fact that the state of New Jersey hasn't the proper place for the care of unfortunate women of this class. This woman spends from ten to eleven months in the year in the penitentiary or county jail. From police records, it appears that there has never been a complaint against her except for drunkenness, which I am satisfied, in her case, is a physical disease. She can't help it. She has never been arrested for anything else, and yet in this great state of New Jersey there is no place to send her except to the penitentiary."

Religious Liberty in New England.—Though religious liberty has been well developed in Massachusetts among citizens at large, the Bay State has been much behind other commonwealths in allowing voluntary attendance at religious exercises in prisons and reformatory institutions. By a law passed at the last legislative session, an inmate is not required to attend any service or religious instruction, other than that of his own religious belief; provided that religious services or instruction in his own belief are regularly held at the institution.

Indeterminate Sentence Law, Michigan.—Owing to some ambiguity in the indeterminate sentence law of Michigan, attempts will be made at the next legislature to amend it in a way that will fulfil its purpose. Likewise in Connecticut, the indeterminate sentence law passed in 1901, has been administered by the courts with such small intervals between the minimum and maximum sentences imposed, that the value of the law as a reformatory measure has been practically nullified.

Monday Evening Club.—The first meeting for the season of the Boston Monday Evening Club will be held October 17, in the parlors of Trinity Church. The subject will "Vacation Lessons," by ten selected members of the club and volunteers. Dr. D. C. Rogers, of Harvard University, will also give a brief informal address on *The Chief Significance of the Social Science Exhibit at St. Louis*.

New Territorial Jail.—The new jail at Muskogee, the first of the four new jails authorized by the United States government in the Indian Territory has just been opened and 173 federal prisoners have been transferred from the old jail, which was one of the worst in the country.



“Lean Tos” at Loomis Sanatorium, Liberty, N. Y.¹

Herbert Moxon King, M. D.

Physician in-Chief at Loomis Sanatorium

As soon as it was demonstrated that the consumptive invalid could not only spend all of his waking hours out of doors with benefit to himself, but could sleep out as well and thus more than double the time spent in the open air each twenty-four hours, it became at once a study among those interested in the treatment of tuberculosis how to devise the best and most practicable scheme by which this could be accomplished.

Up to the spring of 1903, we had sufficient veranda room at the Loomis Sanatorium to accommodate all of the patients whom we wished to have sleep out of doors, but at this time an increase in the capacity of our Annex, without enlarging the veranda space, made it necessary for us to find means by which more of the patients could make use of this form of treatment. I had never been wholly satisfied with tents for this purpose. The ordinary army tent, so often used, is almost unavoidably stuffy and damp, and even the more elaborate modifications consisting chiefly in devices for increasing ventilation and for spreading the tent on a raised permanent wooden flooring designed to eliminate this fault, have never appealed particularly to me.

Having in mind the old-time Adirondack “lean to” camp, built of a frame

¹ This is the second of a series of articles on inexpensive sanatoria, suggestive to smaller cities and counties which wish to make provision for such patients. The series will be published in a pamphlet, with detailed bills of cost, by the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society.

work of poles covered with bark, in which the five or six of a camping party had sleeping quarters, it occurred to me that some such structure, built, of course, more substantially, would meet the requirements much better than would tents, and, moreover, could be erected at a considerably less expense. A rough sketch of such a “lean to,” designed to give sleeping accommodations to eight men, was given to our carpenter, who, without other instruction, erected the first “lean to” close by the main building of the Annex, the interior of which is shown in the accompanying illustration. It consists of a shed with an overhanging roof, open in front and with the ends so constructed that they can be opened or closed as occasion demands. Back of this building were left three openings in which were placed stationary blinds. These were intended to increase the circulation of air, but were found to be too direct for use in winter, and in our later constructions of this character an additional air box is placed over the openings conducting the draught up under the roof of the “lean to,” protecting the patient’s head from the direct wind.

This building has a floor space of 40 x 12 feet, giving room for eight 30-inch beds. The lumber used for its construction presents a plain surface on the interior, neither painted nor stained, and the exterior is covered with cedar shingles, stained green. The total cost up to this time was a little less than three hundred

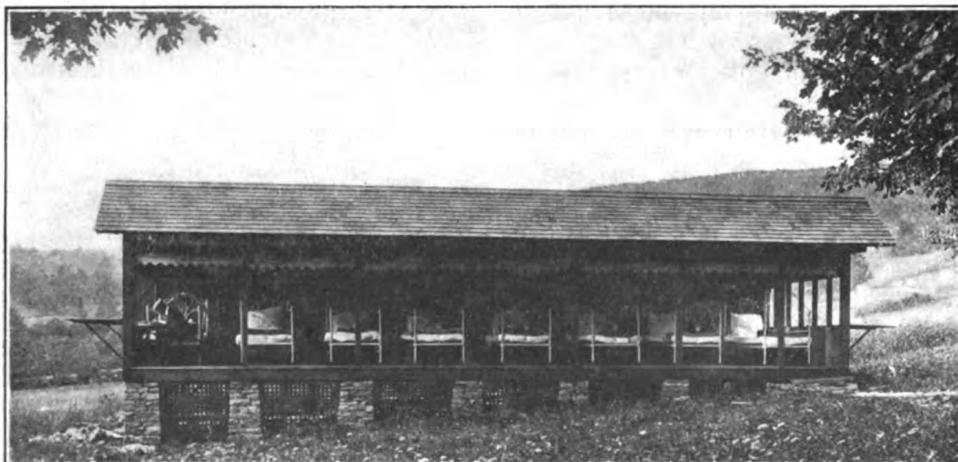


INTERIOR OF ORIGINAL "LEAN TO."

dollars. For obvious reasons, it became necessary to hang curtains between the stanchions along the front of the building. For this purpose, we procured a curtain made of awning material, weighted with a sliding rod with perforations at the ends through which wire guys were passed. These curtains were hung on two and one-half-inch Hartshorn rollers, and have proved durable and otherwise satisfactory.

Seven of these were required, costing complete thirty-nine dollars.

This structure was occupied all summer by patients who were, however, compelled to use their quarters in the main building of the Annex for dressing, bathing, etc. In order to make the "lean to" serviceable for the winter without too great exposure and inconvenience to the patients occupying it, it was necessary to provide a heated

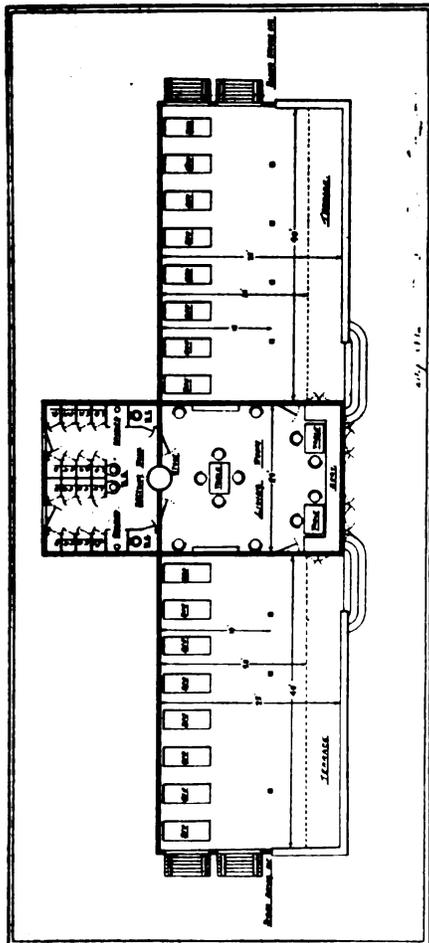


EXTERIOR OF ORIGINAL "LEAN TO."

dressing room. Accordingly I made a sketch for an addition which should provide eight clothes lockers, a shower bath and toilet, a hot water boiler and a round stove containing water coils which sufficed to heat the apartment and provided sufficient hot water for bathing purposes. A hand basin with hot and cold water taps was also included. This addition was placed directly back of the "lean to," the door opening to the latter replacing the middle ventilator. The cost of this ad-

dition, including labor and construction, plumbing, sewer connection and heating apparatus, was \$280, making the total of the building, exclusive of the curtains, \$580, or \$72.50 per patient. It has now been occupied more than a year with the most satisfactory results.

connection with the Annex of the Loomis Sanatorium. A clear idea of it can be gathered from the accompanying illustrations and floor plans. It really consists of two "lean tos" somewhat larger and more elaborately built than was the first, connected by a commodious sitting-room, which can be used in inclement weather, each "lean to" opening into this room by a Dutch door as shown in the plan. This room, as well as the double locker room directly back of it, is heated by a larger stove, which, as in the original "lean to," also supplies hot water for the baths and hand basins. The interior finish of the sitting-room and the locker room is hard pine, filled and varnished; the exterior is covered with cedar shingles and left to weather-stain. Exposed smooth surfaces, except the floor, are painted. All of the floor which is exposed to rain or drip is, at the suggestion of W. H. Scopes, of Saranac Lake, laid of three-inch material with one-half-inch spacing. The surface of each floor plank is slightly rounded, thus avoiding the "curling" which would necessarily occur in an ordinary plain floor exposed to the weather.



GROUND PLAN OF IMPROVED "LEAN TO."

The cost of this building, exclusive of curtains, is \$1,830, and provides accommodations for sixteen patients, thus making the cost per patient slightly more than one hundred and fourteen dollars. The only essential advantage which it possesses over the first building is that it gives ample space for each patient's rest chair placed at the foot of his bed and protected from the weather. Aside from this, it provides several unessential features which conduce to the patient's comfort.

It seems to me that this "lean to" plan meets the requirements for "open air cure" more completely and satisfactorily than most others designed for the purpose. Unquestionably buildings of this character providing outdoor sleeping accommodations and warmed sitting-room, locker rooms, bath and toilet, can be erected under favorable conditions at \$100 per patient or less. To make this plan possible it is, of course, necessary to have a central administration building in which are located the various offices, dining-hall, kitchen, infirmary and staff's and servants' quarters. A sanatorium of

dition, including labor and construction, plumbing, sewer connection and heating apparatus, was \$280, making the total of the building, exclusive of the curtains, \$580, or \$72.50 per patient. It has now been occupied more than a year with the most satisfactory results.

The latest modification of this simple structure we are now building, also in

this character with a capacity for 150 patients, under municipal, county, or state control, and designed to reach early ambulant cases of tuberculosis among the poor, would cost approximately as follows:

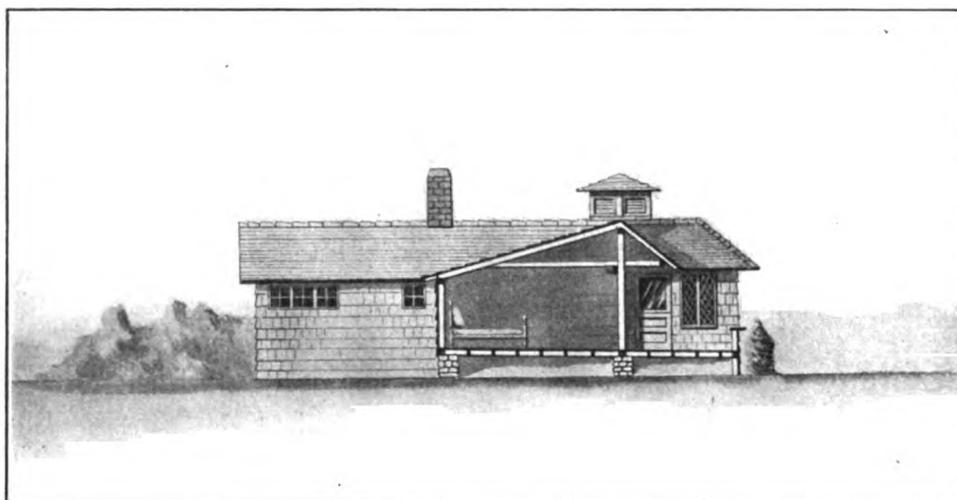
Main building, three stories and basement, the latter containing the kitchen, the first floor the various offices and the dining-hall, the second floor the infirmary, diet kitchen, etc., and possibly the doctors' quarters, and the third floor, quarters for the staff and servants, \$50,000.

Various outdoor buildings, such as cold storage plant, stables, etc., from \$10,000 to \$15,000.

"Lean tos" for the accommodation of 150 patients, \$15,000, making a total, ex-

clusive of land, of \$80,000 or about \$533 per patient.

Most of the existing sanatoria intended for this purpose have cost from \$1,000 to \$5,000 per patient, and fulfil the essential requirements for "open air cure" no better and probably not as well as does the "lean to" plan. If we expect to give sanatorium training and treatment to those of the poor who may be afflicted with early tuberculosis, it is necessary that we materially reduce the cost of construction, equipment and maintenance in sanatoria intended for this purpose; otherwise it seems to me that we are entering upon an utterly hopeless undertaking.



SECTION OF "LEAN TO," SHOWING CONSTRUCTION OF SLEEPING QUARTERS

The Battle Against Infant Mortality in France

A LECTURE BY SENATOR PAUL STRAUSS

Senator Paul Strauss, of Paris, lectured, October 5, in the library of the New York Charity Organization Society, before members of the School of Philanthropy and others. His subject was *The Battle Against Infant Mortality in France*. As an influential member of the French Chamber of Deputies, Senator Strauss is a member of the group of the French Parliament affiliated with the Inter-parliamentary Union for the Promotion of International Arbitration which has lately held its session at St. Louis. The speaker was introduced by

Edward T. Devine, who was associated with him as a juror in the Department of Social Economy of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Accompanied by Mrs. Strauss, the senator made the tour from New York to the Rocky Mountains tendered by the government of the United States to members of the Inter-parliamentary Union and carried out admirably under the direction of Dr. Samuel I. Barrows, to whom CHARITIES is indebted for a translation of M. Strauss's address.

To the readers of CHARITIES, Senator Strauss is especially well known as the

editor of the *Revue Philanthropique*, and as a trenchant writer upon social topics.

Senator Strauss begged the indulgence of his audience for speaking in his native tongue and expressed pleasure at addressing the School of Philanthropy as, for several years, he had delivered lectures in France to students upon the protection of children, the relief of the poor and other related subjects.

In all countries children die in too great number and from causes which may be recognized and prevented. Senator Strauss would not undertake to compare what has been done in France with that which has been done in the United States. Perhaps later, when he had an opportunity to consult the documents and statistics which he had been collecting in this country, he might, he said, have occasion to make a careful comparison; for one must always be guarded in making such comparisons and must take into account the differences of social condition and environment which modify results.

The causes of infant mortality are numerous. They may be divided into two classes, medical or pathological, and social.

These causes approach each other and sometimes mingle. A mother does not give her child good milk and the child contracts diarrhoea in the summer. That is a malady of a medical order, but its origin may be of a social order. That the mother gives to the child bad milk may result from poverty and want. Such terrible and disastrous consequences from social conditions are seen in every country of the world. The mother does not properly nourish or care for her child. Want of material care is the cause of the death of a vast number of children. When, owing to these social exigencies, children are taken to places far from their mother, the want of material care involves frequently moral results. Poverty is not the only social cause. Ignorance plays a large part in infant mortality.

On this subject of the care of the child by the mother, workers in France have found grounds for justifying legal or authoritative intervention. At an important conference at which this subject was discussed, the demand was made that

the mother should for a month after the birth of her child have the responsibility and opportunity to care for and nourish her infant. There is a double advantage in this provision. The mother is always liable to the temptation of abandoning her child to an institution immediately after its birth. To nurse and care for her child develops in her maternal sentiment.

The second result is that the child is carried through the most dangerous period of its existence; for the proportion of mortality is greater during the first month after birth than in the next eleven months. Whether by public or private charity, by legal or philanthropic means, something must be done, therefore, so that the poor mother shall be able in this month to give herself to the care and nourishment of her child.

But such provision in regard to extreme poverty does not remove the danger. A great majority of mothers are ignorant. They are without experience. A great majority of the cases of diarrhoea are occasioned by over alimentation, an excess of nourishment. The mother gives too much milk or gives solid food too soon. To avoid this result, preventive education is necessary, and here we have opportunity for an institution of great importance—that which provides, through trained nurses or otherwise, counsel and instruction to mothers. All women do not find themselves in the same condition. Babies are fed without consideration. The doctor is not called until the child is sick and then it is often too late. Children should be under regular and systematic surveillance. A brief and casual glance does not suffice. The child must be guarded with the utmost vigilance. It must be carefully weighed. If the child does not make an increase corresponding with normal standards, there is evidence that something is wrong. Medical counsel must be invoked.

Of all means of intervention and of prevention, the best is that which insures to the child the care and, when possible, the milk of the mother in this early period. Normal nourishment intelligently given is of the greatest importance.

Senator Strauss said he would not go into detail to suggest by what form of

charity, insurance or other means this care of the mother should be secured. The main thing is, however, that the child must be cared for by the mother. There are cases where the unmarried mother may wish to conceal her fault; but such will often accept the duty of caring for their children if they are properly supported.

Without undertaking to mention all the causes, medical or social, contributing to infant mortality, Senator Strauss emphasized congenital debility as one of the most important. Children are born prematurely. Our industrial system, with all its beauty and advantage, often brings on this misery. In a great many cases the mother have rest for two or three weeks before the birth. It is necessary, therefore, to give aid and attention to the mother before the birth of the child. In Switzerland, legal remedy is sought in the proposition that the mother have rest for two or three weeks before the birth of her child. The speaker said he had himself proposed a similar measure to the French Senate. He himself felt fully the force of objections to such a law, but some form of intervention seems necessary. It may take the form of an indemnity or allowance, to the mother, equal to that which she receives from her work. Another form of intervention is that of asylums and refuges where the unmarried mother may rest during that period. Her condition is often truly pitiable. If she has been a domestic, she is cast out; she is without a home. Various shelters are now provided where she may not be under the terror of publicity or abandonment with the danger of an early delivery. Without some such care, the child may be born too soon and sent to the foundling hospital and the mother

separated from it. It is important to avoid this separation.

In concluding Senator Strauss said he purposely wished to make his talk as brief as possible—one that would merely indicate a few important points—because he did not wish to leave disagreeable memories in his hearers through talking too long in a foreign tongue. He extended his congratulations to them upon the work in which they were engaged.

A member of the audience, who had been a former pupil of Senator Strauss in Paris, in speaking of preventive means, asked if it was not important to attempt to avoid the illegal birth by obliging the man, who had brought this misfortune upon the unmarried mother, to share the responsibility? Senator Strauss said that he was fully in accord with this view, but he had not thought it best to go into the whole field of social and economic reasons.

Dr. Joseph Kucher suggested that any one who had investigated the causes of infant mortality soon discovered that, social conditions abroad, are very often the cause, while in this country the predominant cause is ignorance. The Board of Health has done a great deal of good by trying to instruct mothers, who, as Professor Strauss had said, are apt to overfeed their children, giving them milk when they need water. In this country, milk is much cheaper than it is abroad and can be easily obtained, but it is not properly taken care of. Much must be done by instructing mothers.

Another speaker pointed out that milk poisoning accounts for a large proportion of the deaths of little children.¹ In these two directions, therefore, the education of the mother, and vigilance on the part of boards of health to protect the milk supply, lies the greatest hope of the reduction of infant mortality.

State Control of Almshouses²

Ernest P. Bicknell

General Secretary Chicago Bureau of Charities

After the special institutions in our American system of public charities have

¹ See *Milk*. E. S. Brush, M. D., Mt. Vernon, published by Wynkoop, Hallenbeck & Crawford, New York.

drawn off their particular classes of unfortunates there remains an un-

² A paper read before the Department of Social Science of the International Congress of Arts and Sciences, St. Louis, September 23, 1901.

classified residuum the poorhouse or almshouse is the "catch-all" to which this pitiful, heterogenous remnant is consigned. The special institutions, such as the hospitals for the insane, schools for the feeble-minded, the blind, the deaf, etc., are maintained and governed by the states. The almshouse is maintained by the county or town in which it is situated.

In an average almshouse are to be found two or three insane persons; a few epileptics; one or more eccentric, unbalanced persons, not considered insane; two or three cripples or deformed persons; a few blind men and women; one or two deaf; a number of imbeciles; a half-dozen men and women who are suffering the penalties of years of vice and depravity, some of whom are likely afflicted with loathsome contagious disease; several gentle, sorrowful old men and women who have been unfortunate, perhaps improvident, but have lived clean, self-respecting and industrious lives; three or four children, some bright and promising, others rickety, sore-eyed, stunted and stupid. All these inmates are thrown into enforced association. The women must occupy a common sitting-room and eat in a common dining-room. In a similar manner the men are brought into enforced contact. In small almshouses it is usual for men, women and children to eat together in one dining-room.

It is universally agreed that the almshouse is not the place for the able-bodied and capable. How are the able-bodied and capable kept out? The method is simple. The almshouse is maintained at so low a standard of comfort that ordinarily no one able to support himself is willing to live in the almshouse. It is a rule, constantly emphasized, that the almshouse must not be made sufficiently attractive to lead anyone to desire to enter it. What is the result of this policy? The unfortunate who *must* enter the almshouse, no matter how refined, how sensitive, how impressionable, pays the penalty, instead of the able-bodied loafer. The feeble and sick and helpless are punished in order that the unworthy may be frightened away at sight of their misery. Is it surprising then, that a stigma attaches to the almshouse and that self-respecting persons often dread its

shadow more than they fear privation and death?

These barbarous conditions are chargeable to various reasons. Political exigencies which lead to frequent changes in management and to the selection of unfit men for places of responsibility are one reason. A mistaken sense of economy in the expenditure of money raised by taxation is usually a factor. But the chief reason is to be found in the character of the almshouse population itself. The number of members of each class of inmates is too small to permit of segregation and specialized care for each, except by the maintenance of an establishment whose cost, in the average community, would be prohibitive.

The two most obvious needs of the almshouse are:

First, a classification and segregation of different groups of inmates; with specialized care for each class.

Second, the creation of a system for determining eligibility to admission, more scientific and humane than that of simply making the institution so uncomfortable and unattractive that no one will enter who can possibly manage to exist outside. In what manner might these and other reforms be secured through state control of almshouses? What relation should exist between the county or town and its almshouse, were the latter under state control?

The second question may be first answered. Each county or town would build and equip its almshouse in conformity with plans approved by a central state authority. The state would then assume control and would periodically render to the county or town a statement of the per capita cost of maintaining its almshouse dependents and this cost would be defrayed by the county or town through the proceeds of local taxation as is now the usual custom. Machinery for the proper operation of this plan need be neither complex nor costly.

With the state in control what improvement may reasonably be expected in almshouse administration? Places of responsibility would be filled by the appointment of trained men whose tenure

depended not on the fickleness of local politics but upon the fidelity and ability with which they performed their official duties. A possibility of promotion either in the same institution or by transfer to another would be a spur to good service. With these advantages and others, the position would assume a dignity and importance which would attract men of education and a higher order of ability than are now commonly found in almshouse administration. Rules governing admission of inmates would provide for thorough investigation of the applicant's need, and the barrier of discomfort being no longer required, the inmates could safely be treated decently and with human kindness.

Classification and Segregation. Most important of the benefits to be expected from state control, however, would be that resulting

from the opportunity to classify and segregate the uncongenial elements composing the almshouse population. The insane from several almshouses could be gathered into one, thus forming a sufficiently large group to justify special arrangements for their humane care and the employment of trained men to be placed in charge of them. In the same way the blind, the epileptic, the depraved, the crippled, the sensitive and refined could be respectively brought into groups by a simple system of transfers from county to county. In charge of each group would be an agent of the state equipped by training and temperament for the peculiar duties of his position. It is not difficult to picture a development of this system which would give to the state a series of small, model institutions combining the advantages of both local and general administration. The "home" idea so completely lost in the ordinary large state institution would be preserved, while the dignity and efficiency of state control would be added. The aged dependents of self-respecting character could be assembled in such a manner that in a group of four or five

counties one almshouse could be devoted to them, the result being in effect and in fact a comfortable home for the aged in which men and their wives need not be separated in their last years. The need for such a home, accessible to rural communities, is one of the great deficiencies of our present system. Persons afflicted with certain diseases could likewise be segregated and receive proper treatment while the menace which they now are to other almshouse inmates would be avoided. Cripples could be gathered together and given medical and surgical care as well as industrial training appropriate to their special requirements.

These improvements and many others which cannot be here indicated could be accomplished in the manner outlined without involving either the state or counties in additional expenditure, without the abandonment of property in which counties and towns have invested large amounts of money and without radical departure from the long accepted policy of local care for almshouse dependents. Our deficient local interest and sympathy for the almshouse poor are unquestionably due in some measure to the promiscuous character of the usual almshouse population and the administrative shortcomings which are bound to result from the placing of so heterogeneous a mass of unrelated and discordant elements into the care of an untrained superintendent. It is not reasonable to believe that with a clean, cheerful, scientifically conducted almshouse in which inmates were classified and protected from offensive association, would come a development of that neighborhood interest whose absence we now so generally deplore?

It is not the purpose of this brief paper to speak the final word upon the important subject which it has introduced. Much may be said both for and against state control. But that fundamental reforms in the almshouse system of the United States are essential is not to be questioned.

CHARITIES

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New York State Charities a Political Issue.

The management of the state charitable institutions is a political issue in New York this year, as it was in the state campaign two years ago. At that time the platform adopted by the Democratic State Convention, which nominated Bird S. Coler, contained an excellent statement of principles on this subject. The Republican platform, on the contrary, endorsed the policies through which Governor Odell had so far alienated a large number of citizens who are disinterestedly concerned with the charitable and correctional institutions that they doubtless voted and used their influence—except where other considerations outweighed this issue—on behalf of the Democratic candidates. The New York member of the legislature who reported, while the bills embodying Governor Odell's ideas were pending, that there was "no opposition to them except from the Catholics and Jews and the Protestants," found on election day that these three bodies come dangerously near holding that balance of power for which politicians have such a wholesome regard.

In the present campaign, the issues are somewhat differently drawn. Of Governor Odell, whose personality entered more or less into all discussions from the stump on either side, it is to be said, aside from the fact that he is not the present candidate, that his record at Albany has been by no means uniformly hostile to the interests which philanthropic citizens have so much at heart. Tenement-house reform, for example, had his hearty sympathy at the very beginning of his administration, and in spite of rather strong adverse influences, his continued support. He has favored and secured the enactment of a stringent and excellent child-labor law. There have been great advances in the state reformatory system under his second administra-

tion; and we have his signature to the bill creating the psychopathic hospital. While some of his appointments like those of Dr. Frederick Peterson, and Dr. William Mabon, as presidents of the Commission in Lunacy, have been excellent, on the other hand, many of them have been conspicuously bad, and the plans for the re-organization of the hospitals for the insane and state charitable institutions, in so far as they were embodied in laws by a reluctant legislature, have worked as it was predicted that they would work.

The heaviest handicap of the Republican candidate for governor, Frank Wayland Higgins, is that as a part of the Republican administration, indeed as chairman of the senate committee on finance, he accepted those plans and disregarded the opinions of the philanthropic citizens who did not allow the governor and legislature to err in ignorance, or at least without emphatic warning. Governor Odell waved these warnings aside as a passing and artificially created public sentiment, but without the co-operation of Mr. Higgins and his associates the bills could not have been passed.

The platform adopted by the Republican convention this year contains no statement on the subject. Possibly such silence might be regarded as an advance, and as indicating a desire that the subject should be dropped and not be regarded as an issue in this campaign.

The Democratic platform, however, is much less satisfactory than its predecessor of two years ago. It is more personal and partisan in its attack on the present administration, and less insistent in its demand for non-partisanship in the management of the state charitable and reformatory institutions. Interest is, therefore, transferred from the platform to the public addresses of the two candidates.

*Progress
Toward Non-
Partisanship.*

Here we are bound to say that while the attitude of both candidates has been far more encouraging than in previous campaigns, marking a distinct advance toward non-partisanship, the statements by Judge Herrick, the Democratic candidate, have been far more explicit than any which prior to the interview which we publish this week have come from Mr. Higgins. It should not be overlooked, however, that it is comparatively easy for the candidate of an opposition to denounce particular acts of the party in power and to favor the re-organization of existing boards, and the creation of new ones.

Mr. Higgins, in his brief references to this subject, had already courageously and emphatically disassociated himself from certain policies, which, presumably, in part from party loyalty and in part from personal convictions, based chiefly on financial considerations, he formerly accepted. He had declared, consistently with what he states always to have been his position, in favor of non-partisanship in appointments in charitable institutions, and given explicit recognition of the varying needs of different institutions in accordance with their different purposes, leading logically to greater decentralization of administration.

At the Republican Club on October 10, after a reference to economies and improvements in the general administration of the state, Mr. Higgins said:

As to the state charitable institutions, however, it should be borne in mind that they were established for the care of the varied diverse groups of dependents requiring different methods and character of treatment. No economy and no centralization of administration should be permitted to interfere with the accomplishment of the broad purpose for which they were established. Standards and methods which are properly applicable to one may have no application to another.

The management of the state charitable institutions, state hospitals for the insane and state prisons should be absolutely free from partisanship, and they should be so administered as to retain the active interest of philanthropic citizens.

A few days later in Brooklyn he said:

Those under my administration called upon to administer the great public improvements of the commonwealth and to supervise its charities and institutions will be

men known rather for their skill, integrity and character than for their political consequence, and any man selected by me for an important trust will not be continued one hour after the betrayal of that trust.

To these paragraphs, Mr. Higgins has now added an extended and very explicit statement of his views in relation to the charitable institutions in an authorized interview with CHARITIES, which is published on another page, and we reproduce also the equally full statement from Judge Herrick's address. The conclusion to be drawn from the present situation is that, so far as the management of the charitable and reformatory institutions is concerned, citizens may look forward with equanimity to the result of the state election, both candidates having given the most ample and convincing assurances that so far as lies in their power mistakes will be rectified and every safeguard provided against future injury, neglect, and partisan interference.

*New York State
and Its
Provision for
Lunacy.*

The fifteenth annual report of the New York State Commission in Lunacy for the fiscal year 1903, comprised in a volume of over one thousand pages, was issued last week. Of course, only a small part of the volume is occupied by the report of the commission itself, the bulk of it consisting of the reports and statistics of the fourteen state hospitals.

The commission's report is of unusual interest. It exhibits the disposition, which has been very observable under the presidency of Dr. Peterson, whose last report this is, to take a large view of the situation, including the future as well as the present needs of the insane, and to carry out the policy laid down in the insanity law that "the commission shall provide sufficient accommodations for the prospective wants of the poor and indigent insane of the state. To prevent overcrowding in the state hospitals, it shall recommend to the legislature the establishment of other state hospitals."

To provide for existing overcrowding¹ and the increase of the insane to be expected in the near future, the commission recommends the construction of large colonies for both acute and

¹The census of the State Hospitals, October 1, 1904, was 25,019. The certified capacity was 21,521.

chronic cases in the country, and, in connection with existing state hospitals, the establishment of pavilions for acute cases for whom the old system of construction does not make proper provision, supplemented in New York city by the erection of psychopathic hospitals, and in other cities and towns by arrangements at general hospitals for the temporary detention of emergency cases, to take the place of jails and station-houses, now frequently used for those taken suddenly ill with brain disease. It is noted that the land and buildings occupied by the insane at Flatbush and on Ward's Island belong to New York city, and that the state's lease of the former expires in 1905 and of the latter in 1911, and that, as the city may require these lands and buildings for its own dependents, or for park purposes, it is none too soon for the state to begin to acquire sites and to erect buildings for the accommodation of the 5,000 patients who may be unhoused in the next seven years.

The commission has already made a complete scheme for a rural colony hospital for about 2,000 inmates, submitting to the state architect a table of the kind and character of buildings required. This was done with a view to the proposed colony in the northeastern part of the state, for which an appropriation was made by the legislature in 1903. The site for the hospital had not been selected at the date of the report, and the matter is not yet decided, though much work has been put on it by the commission and by some of the state hospital superintendents at the request of the commission. The commission also recommends that three of the five state hospitals which still have fewer than 1,500 patients, be increased by 500 each, thus providing for a part of the overcrowding on the grounds of existing institutions.

A Sane Estimate of the Insane.

Another admirable feature of this report is that it exhibits the tendency—happily a growing one—towards the consideration of the insane on the one hand as sick people, for whose care all the resources of science are needed, and on the other hand as human beings with most of the tastes and feelings of normal people, for whom as free and natural a form of

life as possible should be provided. Both these views are equally remote from the old idea of asylum care and restraint, and are the two supplementary points of view from which alone the insane can be understood.

Nothing can better illustrate the union of these tendencies towards more scientific treatment, and at the same time more normal methods of life, than the pavilions for the tuberculous insane, planned by the commission for three of the state hospitals. Each pavilion accommodates 100 patients, and the three together will care for about three-fifths of the total number of tubercular cases, this class constituting about two per cent of the insane. The commission had recourse to all the literature pertaining to the subject of proper construction, and was especially helped by the essays offered in the contest for the prize for the King Edward Sanitarium. Plans and elevations of the pavilions to be erected are appended to the report with a description, and deserve the study of those interested in the care of cases of pulmonary tuberculosis. It would not occur to anyone looking over these plans that the patients were insane as well as tubercular. The open window, open door method of treatment is found to be perfectly safe and successful for this class of the insane.

Other experiments in the direction of greater freedom for the insane are the colony offshoots of the various state hospitals, the most recent of which is the Lakeside Colony, some fifteen miles from the Rochester State Hospital, where an old farmhouse on the shore of Lake Ontario has been leased and used for giving a pleasant vacation from institution life to convalescents and other patients who might be benefited. The free country life has improved and pleased the patients greatly, and has expedited the cure of many of them. In this connection the commission recommends that the insane of New York city, now so greatly overcrowded on Ward's Island and at the other institutions in and about the city, should have the benefit of some outing, and suggests making use of the Fire Island property purchased some years ago by the state for quarantine purposes.

"There is here," says the commission, "a completely furnished hotel, capable of holding three or four hundred patients, so that at no cost to the state a large number of convalescent patients, and others requiring change of scene and air, might be given an additional means to bring about or hasten recovery, not to mention relief from overcrowding in summer. It could be utilized for some four and one-half to five months of the year, and could readily be returned to the health officers of the port for quarantine purposes at any time when required." This suggestion is an admirable one and should certainly be carried out.

The most progressive of all the commission's recommendations in the line of increased freedom for patients is the suggestion that selected cases should be boarded in private families. The system has been tried successfully in Europe, especially in Scotland, and to some extent in this country in Massachusetts. At the International Congress of Alienists, held at Antwerp in 1902, family care of the insane was the chief subject of discussion and resolutions commending it were signed by over fifty German, French, Dutch, Belgian, Hungarian, Italian and British members of the congress. The plan of the commission is to establish the system to a limited extent in the state of New York, and a bill is suggested for passage by the legislature, providing that "the superintendent of a state hospital may, when authorized by the commission, transfer harmless and quiet patients, to be selected by him, to the care and custody of any person or persons authorized to receive them, to be cared for and maintained as directed by the superintendent of such state hospital, and in accordance with rules adopted by the commission."

The patients can be boarded out only within a distance of fifty miles of the hospital and remain under the supervision and control of the superintendent of the hospital from which they are transferred. "The superintendent of such hospital shall cause them to be visited from time to time, at least once in each three months by a physician of such hospital, and such superintendent shall report to the com-

mission once in each three months the condition of such patients, the character and method of their treatment and maintenance, and the nature and condition of their surroundings. Such patients shall also be visited at least once in six months by a member of the commission, or by the medical inspector." Through such a plan of disposing of harmless chronic cases of insanity, the overcrowding of the state hospitals would be materially lessened, and the state would be relieved of the necessity of providing many buildings which would otherwise be required; at the same time quiet patients would have the great advantage of a normal home life in carefully selected families. In the vicinity of the state hospitals are doubtless many married couples who have served in some capacity in these institutions, and who would particularly well understand the care of the chronic insane. The system of family care proposed by the commission seems so carefully restricted and safeguarded that only good could come of putting it into operation.

*Scientific Spirit
of the
Institutions.*

The scientific side of the state hospital care of the insane has shown very marked improvement under the stimulus of Dr. Peterson as president of the commission, and Dr. Meyer as director of the Pathological Institute. No one can read Dr. Meyer's report to the commission, or his address to the state hospital superintendents, which the commission reprints, without feeling the contagion of his enthusiasm for his work, which has so strongly infected the medical men in the service; and without realizing how practical are his plans for the cooperation of the institute with the hospital staffs. "A large proportion of the physicians on each staff have had opportunities of spending some time at the institute on Ward's Island, in order to familiarize themselves with the latest progress in scientific psychiatry, and the director gave up his summer vacation to spend a week at a time at various hospitals, in order to see that the work begun at the institute should be practically carried out." The commission has had at heart the improvement of the medical spirit of the hospitals, and has certainly

accomplished much. The commission has been generous in the allowance of medical books and periodicals, in the purchase of instruments and in the establishment of laboratories, operating-rooms and facilities for hydrotherapeutic and electrotherapeutic treatment, with excellent results in the reinvigoration of what the commission calls the "dispiriting institutional atmosphere."

The detailed reports of the individual state hospitals and of the State Charities Aid Association, which follow, are full of interest.

*Denver and the
Judge
of Its Juvenile
Court*

The Juvenile Court of Denver is, after all, in danger of losing that friend of tempted children, Judge Ben B. Lindsey.

Judge Lindsey was elected last May for a term of five years. To all intents and purposes he was very much elected. On the ticket of no less than two political parties, he was the only candidate for the county judgeship. Out of 54,000 votes cast, he received 53,000. He was elected at that time on his splendid record as judge of the juvenile court and to make it possible for him to further develop what he had so well begun. For that reason, CHARITIES felt justified in publicly endorsing his candidacy in the face of political opposition, and for that reason it does so again, now that complications make a second election necessary.

Some doubt has been raised whether the convention which gave Denver its new charter had authority for its action in changing the date of the election from November to May and providing for two county judges. Proceedings are pending before the courts which will settle this question, but the decision will not be reached until after the election in November. If no county judge is elected in November and the dual county court provided for by the charter should subsequently be declared illegal, then on the second Tuesday of January, 1905, the county bench would have to be declared vacant. The county judges in Colorado are not among the officers who hold office until their successors are elected and qualified. They are elected for a specified time—as is the president of the United States—and when the time for which they are elected expires, they

go out of office—an event which, in Judge Lindsey's case, would not be displeasing to a galaxy of local interests who, to use a homely simile, make up a hornet's nest which was stirred up from the bench of the children's court.

*A Demonstration
in Behalf of
Boyhood.*

Denver is Democratic. Judge Lindsey is a Democrat. But the revelations of corruption within his own party which he has made, and his refusal to use his powers as county judge to further the interests of corrupt politicians, have resulted in the failure of the Democratic county convention to nominate him. To arrive at this end, no candidate for the position was nominated, the local executive committee being given power to act. The committee has, however, taken no action. On Saturday, October 8, Judge Lindsey was nominated by acclamation by the Republican county convention, reconvened for the purpose of nominating a Republican candidate for the office. It is not at all certain that the machine men of the party relished the result any more than did the Democrats of the same ilk, but the convention ran away with the straight-laced leaders and turned into a rousing demonstration in behalf of the juvenile court idea. A motion to leave the nomination to a committee of five was voted down. A motion requiring that any candidate must bind himself to accept no other nomination was voted down. There was no getting around it. Judge Lindsey was nominated and the attorney who had been picked out to run in his stead, seconded his nomination heartily and moved that it be by acclamation. That it was asserted that the nominee should be "above the temptation of partisan bias," that he must "not only be an honest man, but a gentleman in the truest sense of the word," that the children's bench requires not only a man "with a wide and extensive knowledge of law and equity," but that it took a "man for its judge with a heart as big as one of our magnificent mountains"—these things only served to drown the speakers in a round of cheers of identification. The next day's papers of all political parties had only the one account to give of the proceedings. Women waved their handkerchiefs in the air, staid law-

yers tossed their hats towards the roof. Wave after wave of applause followed.

"All in favor of making the nomination by acclamation say aye," said the chairman.

"Aye," sounded one tremendous roar that shook the building.

"Hail to the Chief!" came from the band and Judge Lindsey was brought in amid more cheers and applause.

Turning to the audience the chairman said, "Judge Lindsey, an honest man!"

"This reminds me," began Judge Lindsey, "of an incident that happened recently. One of my boys came to me and said: 'Judge, there is no trouble like family trouble.' It was amusing and pathetic coming from a boy. The other day I met him again and said, 'My boy, there is no trouble like political trouble.' He smiled and replied, 'Remember what you told me, Judge, keep a stiff upper lip.' I shall try to do my duty to you, as I have tried, not as a Democrat or Republican, but as a citizen. I have tried to live up to what I believe to be the highest civil or moral law—that a man can serve his party best by serving the people. If a man violates that trust he is no longer Democrat or Republican, he is a criminal." With that the Democratic nominee of this Republican convention sat down. There was cheering and more cheering and to give that touch of Americanism which one expects of Denver, the band played "Bedelia."

The fight, of course, is not won yet. It is a fight which means a good deal for the juvenile court movement throughout the country. But more than that, if the children of Denver are not to lose from the bench the friend to whom they owe that unique, humane, and enlightened statute, of Colorado, which provides that he who contributes to the delinquency of a child is himself delinquent and may be fined not more than one thousand dollars, or committed to jail for not more than one year, Judge Lindsey must be elected again in November.

Growing out of the investigation of employment agencies, described in CHARITIES during the season of 1903-4, has come the organization, under the general secretaryship

*Inter-Municipal
Committee on
Household
Research.*

of Miss Frances A. Kellor, of an Inter-Municipal Committee on Household Research, representing the three cities of Boston, New York and Philadelphia. Definite work began October 17 with the opening in each city of bureaus of information, for the purpose of studying the conditions of household work. The organizations represented in this movement are: The Woman's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, with its bureau at 264 Boylston street; the New York Association for Household Research, with its bureau at 111 East Twenty-third street, in charge of a secretary, Miss Elizabeth M. Rhodes; the Housekeepers' Alliance and the Civic Club of Philadelphia, with offices at 1325 Walnut street. The members of the inter-municipal committee are Mrs. Mary Morton Kehew, president of the Educational Union of Boston; Miss Margaret D. Dreier, president of the New York Association; Mrs. W. F. Hamilton, vice-president of the Philadelphia Housekeepers' Alliance, and Mrs. Wm. Lybrand, chairman of the social science department of the Civic Club of Philadelphia, and Miss Kellor, fellow of the College Settlements' Association.

This committee is to begin simultaneously the investigation of the various phases of household work, and aims to render educational and practical service to employers and employes. The work in the three cities will be uniform, representative and comparative. The details of the work will be carried out by the local organization in each city. In Boston, this is the Domestic Reform League of the Woman's Educational and Industrial Union, and in Philadelphia, the Housekeepers' Alliance, of which Mrs. John H. Converse is president, and the Civic Club, of which Mrs. Matthew Baird is president. In New York a new association for household research has been formed, interested members of which include Mrs. Seth Low, Mrs. Lyman Abbot, Mrs. Felix Adler, Miss Grace H. Dodge, Mrs. Russell Sage, Mrs. Frederick Nathan, Miss Virginia Potter, Mrs. Truman J. Backus, Mrs. Chas. C. Hall, Mrs. S. Ollesheimer, Mrs. Charles N. Judson, Mrs. Barclay Hazard, Miss Rose Sommerfeld, Miss Elizabeth Williams, Miss

Leonora O'Reilly, Miss Margaret L. Chanler and Miss Margaret D. Dreier.

The conditions of membership are that any woman who approves of the objects of the association may become a member upon the payment of one dollar. These objects, as stated in the constitution, are to study existing phases of household work, to aid in securing fair conditions for the employer and employé, and to place their relations on a sound business basis.

It is, perhaps, worth while to quote, in this connection, the objects of the bureaus established under the tri-city committee.

*Objects
of the Bureaus.*

They are:

(1) To study at first hand, the conditions surrounding household work, in a conservative, impartial way so as to place the most reliable information possible before employers and employés.

(2) To be of practical service to employers and employés: (a) by furnishing lists of recommended, approved and reliable employment agencies; (b) information about training schools for household workers; (c) lists of reliable lodging-houses for employés; (d) information which will enable employers to secure day-workers, daily service employés, nurses and other household workers; (e) suggestions for advantageous advertising for employers and employés; (f) special investigations of value to individual employers and employés—in fact, all lines of information which affect this problem of household work. This information will be on file in the office, and will be gathered by the bureau's own investigators, by means of interviews, schedules of questions, and by co-operation of householders.

Aside from the bureaus which are open to all, the Inter-Municipal Committee will publish a monthly bulletin containing information gathered along all lines of household work from all sources and sections of the country.

(3) To co-operate with newspapers and magazines and furnish them with the best material it can command, in order that a genuine interest may be awakened in the broad general subject.

(4) To co-operate with universities or colleges giving courses which touch the problem under consideration; to encourage conferences and other methods by which employers will co-operate and place their individual knowledge at the disposal of all; to further interchange of opinions and experiments upon the subjects; and to aid in placing housework upon a sound industrial basis.

The committee's undertaking cannot be described by calling it an employment agency, and it is not the purpose to be competitive with existing business. To quote from its announcement: "It advocates no reforms, it has no theories whatever to prove, and it charges no fees whatever for any information or publication. Its work is entirely co-operative and educational and it seeks not to solve any problem, for solutions lie only with the employer and the employé, but only to place the situation clearly before them, and to do the little it can to advise and direct employers and employés to the sources which may meet their needs."

As already indicated, the movement is but a further result of the investigation of employment agencies, conducted for the Woman's Municipal League and College Settlements' Association. The employment agency law, now in force in New York, is based upon these investigations. The new model employment agency and home for immigrant women at 71½ East Sixth street, New York, with a matron at Ellis Island to look after unprotected women, is another result. The present movement aims to go even deeper into a study of the subject. *Out of Work*, the report of the employment agency investigation, published by Putnam's and ready October 31, will be the first publication of this committee. Among the subjects which this study is to include are the sources of supply of employés; the conditions of household work; the attitudes and opinions and relations of employers and employés upon the whole subject of household work; experiments, solutions and efforts to meet the problem of housing unemployed workers; domestic training; organizations of employers and workers; social centers and other movements of value to households and workers; and the collection of the best published material on the subject.

In the Field of Organizing Charity.

At the twenty-fourth annual meeting of the German Society for Poor Relief and Charity, which met at Danzig August 25 and 26, the fight against tuberculosis and the work of the Legal

*Relief and Legal
Aid
in Germany.*

Aid Society received special consideration. At the close of the tuberculosis discussion, a resolution of the society was adopted which urged the appropriation of the necessary funds from public outdoor relief to battle with this disease among the poor, without deprivation of suffrage privileges which generally accompanies the acceptance of outdoor relief in European countries. It was urged that effective measures against tuberculosis require not only the care of the patient at home, in a sanitarium, or in a hospital, but also the more important preventive work of improving the sanitary conditions of the patient's home and the adequate relief of the family under improved conditions. It was clearly shown also that success in battling with the disease require the harmonious co-operation of public outdoor relief and private charity, coupled with the enactment and rigid enforcement of sanitary laws.

Legal aid service for the poor had its origin in Germany in 1890 in Essen where the Bureau of Legal Advice was started under Roman Catholic labor auspices. In other centers of population these bureaus were attached to Protestant or unsectarian labor organizations, and in yet others the bureaus dealing with workingmen's insurance have developed a general legal aid service. In Muehlhausen, Alsace, where the service is strongly developed, of 33,678 applicants during the past year 10,000 referred to questions arising from workingmen's insurance, 3,000 to questions of rent, and 1,653 to title to property.

Abuse of Dispensary Service.

The abuse of hospital and dispensary service in the East End of London has become so flagrant that East End doctors have voiced their protest to the methods of the London Hospital in a recent number of *St. James's Gazette*, which reads very much like a chapter from some American medical journal describing our own situation:

We raise no objection to the hospitals treating any one, wealthy or poor, in case of accident or sudden emergency, but whenever a patient is in a position to pay for treatment the hospital relief ought to be limited to first aid, and the patient should be referred to his private medical attendant for the further conduct of the case.

The grounds of complaint from the public point of view are these: The system encourages the use of the hospitals by people who have no right to them. They crowd the out-patients' department, take up the time of the doctors, and the result is that poor people for whom such institutions are intended are denied the benefits, because they cannot afford to wait half a day to be attended to. The hospital authorities are the almoners of the charitable public, and it is their bounden duty to see that the money entrusted to them is expended in relieving those intended by the donors. To expend it otherwise is to commit a grave breach of trust.

We urge our remonstrance in the interest also of the hospitals themselves. At present nearly all of the hospitals are pleading poverty and calling for help, and yet they squander much of their receipts on undeserving and improper objects. The poverty depends largely on the abuses to which we have alluded, and we believe it would disappear almost entirely if these abuses were remedied.

The Remedy is not Easily Found.

With restricted free hospital and dispensary service—and the hospitals generally are awake to the need of restriction—many working people would cease to be beneficiaries of these institutions and thereby be deprived of a specialist's care which the generosity of charitable citizens now provides, but which they could not themselves pay for. The London Hospital, in reply to the protest, invited the doctors to attend its out-patient department for the purpose of detecting any patients whom they considered to be in a position to pay for treatment. As a practitioner is not likely to have either time or inclination to play the spy, the invitation to pick out the undeserving must be set down as absurd. The other safeguard to the hospital, to appoint an inquiry officer in the receiving-room, is not likely to satisfy the physician much better, as this inquiry is intended to determine not so much whether the patient can pay the fees of the practitioner, as whether the patient can pay the fees of the hospital.

Painstaking and prompt inquiry into the circumstances of the family by some outside agency is the form usually suggested, but even this may come to naught. The New York Charity Organization Society in common with societies in other cities makes extensive inquiry in the homes of the poor in behalf of a number

of hospitals and dispensaries. It is a rather common experience, however, to find either that the inquiry is asked for much too late to be of any value, or the information is filed by the hospital and never has a practical bearing upon its work.

By a resolution of the Board of Supervisors the Peoria, Illinois, Associated Charities on October 1, began its work of investigating all applicants for outdoor relief and of recommending to the board the names of such as should receive relief from public funds. The first day's inquiry must have convinced the board that the change was not only economical but also fair to the independent struggling poor who, in many instances, knew of the following beneficiaries:

A woman perfectly able to work and maintain the family and her household duties, paying monthly rental for a telephone. She has six grown children, all of whom are at work, and her husband is making something like thirteen dollars a week. She had been aided to the extent of one or two orders per month for seventeen years, and helped with coal in the winter.

A woman with two grown sons at work, and who had been helped for twelve years.

A Syrian woman, large, strong, in perfect health, with three grown sons.

Another woman who has been aided for sixteen years. Her husband is at work every day of the year, and her daughter's husband has a good position. The daughter appeared in splendid clothes and the office force thought they were being honored with a call from a lady of the fashionable residence district.

Notes of the Week.

Seventh Iowa State Conference of Charities and Correction.—Sioux City and November 9, 10 and 11 are the place and dates of the seventh Iowa state conference. As in the past, representatives of the different colleges of the state, who to a remarkable degree have interested themselves in practical problems of philanthropy, will participate as well as those primarily engaged in the practice of social work. Among the papers and addresses arranged are these:

NOVEMBER 9, EVENING.

President's address, G. S. Robinson, Sioux City.

A. B. Storms, A. B., D. D., president Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, *The Method of the Master.*

NOVEMBER 10, MORNING.

H. M. Towner, judge of Third Judicial District, *Suspension of Sentences*; George W. Wakefield, judge of Fourth Judicial District, *The Juvenile Court Act and Juvenile Courts*; Prof. Isaac A. Loos, A. M., D. C., director of Iowa School of Political and Social Science, State University of Iowa, *Inspection of County and Town Prisons.*

AFTERNOON.

Henry Wolfer, warden of Minnesota State Prison, *Employment of Prisoners in State Penitentiaries*; C. W. Wassam, M. A., fellow in Economics, State University of Iowa, *The Present Status of Organized Charity in Iowa.*

EVENING.

Dr. W. J. Kime, Ft. Dodge, *The Prevention of Consumption a Public Duty.*

NOVEMBER 11, MORNING.

Mrs. L. D. Carhart, district superintendent, Iowa Children's Home Society, Marion, *Homes for Homeless Children, Public and Private Aid*; Joseph G. Hobson, principal Worcester School, Sioux City, *Our Boys and Girls*; Mrs. M. W. Harmon, *Independence*; *The Industrial School at Independence*; Miss Flora Dunlap, head resident Roadside Settlement, Des Moines, *Social Settlements.*

Cleveland's Juvenile Court and Its Location—One of the fundamental principles of the juvenile court, that of its separation from the criminal court, has recently been called into question in Cleveland. It having been found necessary to make a new arrangement of rooms for several of the courts, the juvenile court was ordered by the county commissioners, whose function it is to provide for the seating of the courts, to move from its present location which it shares with the court of insolvency to a room next the criminal court in the criminal court building. Protest not availing, Judge Callaghan of the Juvenile Court filed an injunction to restrain the commissioners, and the case came up for trial before Judge Kennedy of the court of common pleas. The witnesses summoned by Judge Callaghan were unanimous in their belief that the juvenile court would suffer serious harm by such a change, but the case was decided in favor of the commissioners. Judge Callaghan, however, appealed at once, and until the second trial is held the court will continue in its present room.

In the Cause of Children.—The Montgomery (Ala.) *Advertiser* publishes an impassioned condemnation of "a crime against helpless innocents," which, as the reader's eye runs down the column, turns out to be a whimsical attack upon certain "dominating, high-nosed persons," who saddled a golden-haired little girl with an "awful, unholy name"—to wit, Mary Jane. "Of all the villainous unions of Christian names,"

says the *Advertiser*, "for some reason the 'Jane' combinations are the worst, perhaps because selfish relatives always insist upon calling the horrid appellation out in full" and the journal is up and at all such exploiters of hapless babies "too young to even know the crime perpetrated against them." It may be beside the mark to further champion this new propaganda in behalf of abused childhood, but if a leading southern paper so cheerily enters upon it, much can be expected in extending the more serious campaigns against child labor.

Immigration Meeting at Lake Mohonk.—A meeting was held October 14 at Lake Mohonk for the study of the problem arising out of immigration. The meeting was held under the auspices of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants. The introductory address which was made by Ernest H. Crosby of Rhinebeck, N. Y., was an appeal for a more cordial attitude toward those who come from other countries. He was followed by Owen R. Lovejoy, assistant secretary of the National Child-labor Committee, who explained the special purposes of the Italian society and similar organizations, and described the methods and measures of success of the colonization of immigrants in rural sections of the country. Where the Italian has gone to the soil, his moral and material success are far more likely to be insured. Even in the city—his least favorable environment—his thrift is indicated by such facts as that in New York city the Italian colony has already accumulated real estate to the value of over \$15,000,000, and that in ten years the real estate rented by Italians has advanced in value over \$75,000,000. These addresses were followed by stereopticon views presented by Miss Sarah W. Moore, recording secretary of the Italian society.

The Death of Superintendent Morrison.—Frederick Douglass Morrison, superintendent of the Maryland School for the Blind, died October 8, after undergoing an operation for appendicitis at St. Joseph's Hospital, Baltimore. Mr. Morrison's institutional and educational experience commenced with the superintendency of the local House of Refuge and as a member of the faculty of Girard College; but since 1864 he had been at the Maryland School for the Blind. The beginning was made with a school of twenty-one pupils with scant accommodations for these, and the veteran superintendent laid down his work at the close of more than a third of a century, with an institution census of over one hundred, an equipment worth half a million dollars, and a standard of excellence ranking the Maryland school as one of the four foremost institutions of the kind in the country. The reputation of Mr. Morrison was not confined, however, to that of a manager. In commenting upon his death, *The Boston Transcript* denominated him a "world au-

thority on the education and training of the blind."

Industrial School, Seattle.—The city of Seattle, Washington, is preparing to build an industrial school on Mercer Island in Lake Washington. Until recently a private philanthropy subsidized from public funds, it has now become by act of the last legislature a part of the public school system of Seattle. It is intended for delinquents, truants, and such other children as in the opinion of the authorities need restraint and special attention which they cannot obtain so long as they remain in their own homes or upon the streets. The Charity Organization Society of Seattle is urging upon the school board the adoption of the cottage plan at the outset, if its wish to reclaim the largest percentage of children needing correction is paramount, and asks that the same care be exercised in appointing a principal for this school that it uses in selecting the principal of its high school.

Second Massachusetts State Conference.—November 9, 10 and 11 are the dates of the second Massachusetts Conference of Charities, and the program just issued lends credence to the anticipation that the Springfield gathering this year will equal in spirit and effectiveness the initial Bay State conference of a year ago in Boston. *The Demands of the Present Charity Situation in Massachusetts* will be discussed by Leotine Lincoln, of Fall River, president of the conference, and among the other addresses will be:

NOVEMBER 10, MORNING—COMMITTEE ON WORK FOR CHILDREN.

Miss Lucy Wright, Taunton, *Co-operation between General and Special Agencies in the Care of Children*; Seymour H. Stone, Boston, *Placing-out System*; the Rev. F. B. Allen, Boston, *Supervision and Publicity as a Means of Improving Child-helping Work*.

AFTERNOON—COMMITTEE ON PROBATION AND PAROLE.

Frederick G. Pettigrove, chairman of the Massachusetts Prison Commission, *The Growth of Probation in Massachusetts*; Mrs. Elizabeth L. Tuttle, probation officer of the Boston municipal court, *The Positive Influence of a Probation Officer*.

EVENING—COMMITTEE ON JUVENILE COURTS.

Justice George W. Stubbs, of the juvenile court of Indianapolis, *Juvenile Courts*; Miss Lucy F. Friday, probation officer of the juvenile court of Baltimore, *Probation Work of a Juvenile Court*.

NOVEMBER 11, MORNING—COMMITTEE ON SCOPE OF ASSOCIATED CHARITIES WORK.

Miss Z. D. Smith, School for Social Workers, Boston, *Constructive Work for Associated Charities and Individuals*; Miss Mary L. Birtwell, Associated Charities, Cambridge, *Care of Needy Families in their Homes*; Miss M. F. Witherspoon, Associated

Charities, Worcester, *Relief Distribution by the Associated Charities.*

AFTERNOON—COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC RELIEF.

William P. Fowler, overseer of the poor, Boston, *Recent Legislation on Vagrancy*; Miss Mary Vida Clark, assistant secretary State Charities Aid Association of New York, *The Place of the Almshouse in Public Relief.*

Public Charities of the District of Columbia.—The Washington, D. C., Board of Charities has asked the district commissioners for \$1,213,048 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, a third of a million more than was appropriated for the present year. One hundred thousand dollars is asked to begin the new hospital building for the Columbia Hospital for Women, the total cost specified being three times that amount; \$150,000 for beginning a municipal hospital; \$50,000 for an industrial school for colored children. An idea which has been urged for some time was put into effect when the board asked for the appropriation in a single item of the amounts to provide for the care and treatment of the indigent sick of the district, not otherwise provided for. Heretofore specific sums have been designated for certain hospitals, etc., for this purpose, but if the commissioners approve the present suggestion, the board will designate the amounts to be paid each institution as the exigencies demand.

Atlanta's Juvenile Court Work.—Nineteen boys were set free the other day in Atlanta after serving their term of probation to the entire satisfaction of the officers. Seventeen of these are now at work and attending night school, and the incident is pointed to by those who were primarily concerned in pushing through the juvenile court project as an evidence of its ready success. The matter was taken up by the City Federation of Women's Clubs, following the holding of the National Conference of Charities in Atlanta, and Mrs. Passie Fenton Ottley, writing in the *Woman's Journal*, tells of steps more recently taken in the direction of providing a special detention building separate from the police barracks and connected with the recorder's court-room by a bridge, built for the purpose.

Treatment of Poor Law Children.—"It is distressing to notice," says the London *Municipal Journal*, "that there are still two-fifths of the total number of poor law children in England and Wales, and rather more than one-fifth in London, retained in workhouses and infirmaries. Happily, however, the proportion is a diminishing one, in the case of workhouses, and we trust in a very few years will reach the vanishing point. The total number of children relieved, both in and outside of London, was 224,524 on January 1 last, of which 57,639 were indoor cases. Of the children classified as receiving outdoor relief, 6,580 were boarded out within

the unions to which they were chargeable, and 1,792 were boarded out without the unions."

Tuberculosis Movement in North Carolina.—At a recent meeting of the North Carolina State Board of Health it was decided to make a special effort toward the prevention of tuberculosis in the state. To this end the *Bulletin* for August has been devoted to a popular presentation of the facts which everyone should know about consumption and a copy of this has been mailed to every physician, clergyman, editor, lawyer, school-teacher and municipal and county official in the state. No further plans are announced, but it is to be hoped that the work of the state board will not stop here.

New York Pneumonia Commission.—The Pneumonia Commission instituted by the New York Board of Health met this week and organized by the election of Dr. Edward G. Janeway as chairman. The commission was subdivided into a clinical committee and a bacteriological committee, Dr. Hermann M. Biggs serving upon both. At the request of Dr. Darlington, \$10,000 was recently appropriated by New York city to carry forward this unique inquiry.

Pennsylvania Eastern Penitentiary.—There is a possibility that, as the Eastern Penitentiary, located at Cherry Hill, stands on a site crossed by the survey of one of the new boulevards under consideration by Philadelphia, the buildings may be razed. Allentown, Reading, Norristown, York and other towns in the eastern part of the state are already working for the new penitentiary in their localities.

Anti-Tuberculosis Society of Indiana.—At the conclusion of an address by Dr. S. A. Knopf in Indianapolis a few days ago, the Anti-Tuberculosis Society of Indiana was organized, with Dr. Theodore Potter as secretary. Trustees were appointed, who will soon hold a meeting for organization and to make plans for active work.

Dr. Wines's Resignation.—Dr. Frederick H. Wines has resigned as secretary of the New Jersey State Charities Aid Association, owing, it is understood, to financial considerations. Dr. Wines is at present at his old home in Springfield, Ill.

Minnesota State Conference.—The thirteenth Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held at Faribault, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, November 15, 16 and 17 under the presidency of J. T. Schain, of Brown's Valley.

Boston Housing Conference.—The Tenement-house Committee of the Twentieth Century Club have called a conference for October 26 to discuss the recommendations made by the Tenement-house Commission in their recent report.

New York Institutions and the Gubernatorial Campaign

An Interview with Lieutenant-Governor Higgins, Republican Nominee

In an authorized interview with a representative of CHARITIES at the Albemarle Hotel on Wednesday of this week, Lieutenant-Governor Frank Wayland Higgins, Republican candidate for governor of New York state, explained more fully than in any of his public speeches or letter of acceptance his attitude towards the state charitable institutions, state hospitals for the insane, and prisons and reformatories.

"I am in favor," said Mr. Higgins, "of re-establishing local boards of managers of the state hospitals for the insane, and of transferring from the State Commission in Lunacy to such local boards all the administrative powers and responsibilities which they had when abolished, except those which are strictly financial. The feature of the changes which were made three years ago which commended them to me was the fact that they gave an opportunity to correct the undoubted extravagance and wastefulness of the old system of purchases by local boards. I notice that Judge Herrick proposes to secure the same result by creating a new board composed of the controller and the presidents of the various other state boards. Such a body would, in my opinion, serve no useful purpose. Its work would be done by someone employed by it for that purpose. I would prefer to see the financial responsibility kept where it now is in the State Lunacy Commission, which is, I understand, discharging this responsibility very satisfactorily.

"I would give the local boards power to say how the patients should be fed, how they should be clothed, how they should be cared for, and who should feed, and clothe and care for them.

"So far as the prisons are concerned, there should be an unsalaried board, as contemplated by the constitution, made up of philanthropic expert men and women, who would have full powers of inspection and recommendation. The Prison Commission should not be in any sense a part of the administration which it inspects.

"It has always seemed to me that the eastern part of the state is entitled to

have a reformatory like that at Elmira, and that the institution at Nappanoch should be such an institution. It should, therefore, cease to be part of the state prison system and should have its own local board of managers, as have the other state reformatories."

Referring to certain alleged undesirable results of legislation which received his support in the senate, Mr. Higgins, while expressing himself unequivocally in favor of the changes above outlined, and a readiness to consider others with an open mind, insisted also that much more depends upon the personal character and qualifications of those who are called upon to administer the system than upon minor differences in the system itself. "In the charitable, penal, and reformatory system of the state," said Mr. Higgins, with great earnestness, "appointments should be made with no reference whatever to party affiliations, and every appointment should be such as to command the immediate respect and to inspire the confidence of those who are most familiar with charitable work and the real needs of our public dependents.

"I shall lend my aid in securing an increase of appropriations for the enlargement of the state institutions for idiots and the feeble-minded, so as to secure the removal of all this unfortunate class from the county almshouses. We should take care adequately of all the insane, and of all of the feeble-minded who require public care, as the state has assumed the responsibility.

"As to the removal of the House of Refuge to a country site with cottage buildings, I am in favor of such action at the earliest possible moment. This would be in line with the action of the last two legislatures in providing for a similar removal of the State Industrial School at Rochester.

"These are my views," said Mr. Higgins. "I am desirous that they shall be widely known among those who have at heart the welfare of the institutions, and would not wish anyone to vote for or against me on any misunderstanding of my position."

New York Institutions and the Gubernatorial Campaign

Statement of Judge D. Cady Herrick, Democratic Candidate for Governor¹

"The Republican party in this state is charged by our leading philanthropic citizens with injecting partisan politics into the management of the state charitable and correctional institutions, to their serious hurt and detriment, for the purpose of making them a substantial part of the political machine, and also with neglecting the needs of these institutions. Some of the more serious counts in this indictment are, briefly outlined:

"The abolition of the unpaid individual boards of managers of the hospitals for the insane, composed of the state's best citizenship, and the centralization of their duties and powers in the hands of the State Commission in Lunacy, a commission composed of three paid officers directly subject to the governor's will, which the constitution provides is to visit and inspect such hospitals.

"The abolition of the State Commission of Prisons, representative of all parts of the state, and likewise composed of independent non-salaried citizens, and the substitution therefor of a partisan commission of three members with a salaried president.

"The establishment of the unnecessary office of fiscal supervisor of state charities, at a salary of \$6,000 a year, the same as paid to the state controller, and \$1,500 additional for expenses.

"The failure, through the governor's vetoes on the plea of economy, to provide suitable accommodations at the asylum for the feeble-minded, with the result that the localities of the state are obliged to pay large sums to provide institutions for the care of such persons, and that, contrary to law, many feeble-minded women are kept in almshouses where they cannot receive the protection that humanity demands.

"The diversion of the Eastern New York Reformatory, which was intended to relieve the injurious overcrowding at the Elmira institution and to provide a similar one for the eastern part of the

state, from its original purpose as a reformatory with an individual board of managers and out of politics, to a prison controlled by the superintendent of state prisons, and in politics.

"The delay in providing a suitable state institution for delinquent children in the eastern part of the state, to take the place of the private corporation known as the House of Refuge, which is supported by the state, in an unsuitable location and with poor equipment, on Randall's Island in the city of New York.

"If elected I shall take counsel with representatives of the varied philanthropic interests of the state, and urge the passage of appropriate legislation to remedy these abuses. I shall, furthermore, insist that all appointments in connection with the state charitable and reformatory institutions, the state hospitals for the insane and the state prisons, be made strictly in accordance with the state civil service law, and without reference to political considerations.

"While fully believing that the internal affairs of the state institutions should be managed, as are our great private charities, by individual boards of managers, composed of the best and most practical men and women who will consent to give the necessary time and service to the work, I am equally convinced that the purchases for these institutions should be made in such manner as to give the state the fullest possible benefit to be derived from approved business methods.

"At the present time the purchases of even the staple supplies for the insane hospitals, the charities and the prisons, are made separately and without co-operation for each class of institutions, and frequently in a manner to cause distrust and even scandal. In my opinion a purchasing board for all the institutions, composed of the state controller, and the presidents of the constitutional boards having supervision of these several interests, should be able to produce much better results. The books and records of such a bureau should be required by law, to be open to inspection at all time."

¹ From a verbatim report of Judge Herrick's speech at Madison Square Garden, October 17.

The Prevention and Treatment of Tuberculosis in Penal Institutions

J. B. Ransom, M. D.

Physician to Clinton Prison, Dannemora, N. Y.

Primarily the prevention of tubercular disease in penal institutions begins with the early life history of the juvenile offender, which is not within the province of this article.

Aside from this feature the prevention of tubercular disease in penal institutions presupposes, first, proper housing. Tuberculosis is essentially a house disease: It is bred, fostered and propagated in a larger degree through the housing environment than through any other one means. An inspection of the penal institutions of this country will show that the housing facilities of the majority are of a character decidedly favoring the development and spread of tuberculosis. The location, elevation, exposure to sunlight, of the buildings for housing and manufacturing purposes, sewage and drainage, of many institutions, are defective when judged from the tuberculosis standpoint.

The second great factor in the development and propagation of this disease in penal institutions is cellular confinement, both in the regulation and punishment cells, especially the dark cells. In the damp, dark corners of the cells of most institutions, almost never visited by sunlight, the tuberculosis germ lurks and propagates itself through the medium of the cell inmates. Added to this is the ancient and common practice of using whitewash as a cleansing and disinfecting agent. As such whitewash is a delusion. Observation and experiment show that whitewash really promotes the spread of tubercular disease, or it may do so. The fine scales and floating particles that emanate from the dry whitewash when disturbed not only irritate the bronchial mucous membranes, but they are also carriers of infection to the point irritated. This has been demonstrated to my entire satisfaction as the result of cell scraping. Certain experiments with lime burners also go to show that lime dust is favorable to the production of tubercular disease.

The bucket system, in use in most penal institutions, is another factor in the production of tubercular infection, vitiating as it does the atmosphere of the cell and thus producing conditions favorable to germ life.

Still another factor is the unsanitary construction and cleanliness of workshops and factories connected with these institutions. Never can it be hoped to eradicate tuberculosis from the penal institutions until there are radical improvements in all these and other like features of the prison housing and grounds.

The buildings connected with penal institutions should be especially constructed with a view to proper sanitation. The grounds should be well-drained, the sewage system complete, and the buildings so placed as to admit both the morning and afternoon sunlight. They should have high ceilings, large windows, and an adequate ventilating system. The cells should be large, well-lighted and provided with water-closet and wash-basin. These cells should be constructed of steel, and a washable paint used as an interior finish. The cell halls should be kept scrupulously clean, and at stated periods washed with antiseptic solutions. All cells vacated should be disinfected, and no whitewash used about the prison interior.

Next in importance to the housing is the feeding, clothing and body hygiene of the prison population in insuring a high resisting power in the individual. While the food must necessarily be plain and simple in character, it should nevertheless be varied to suit conditions and seasons. It should be nutritious, and a careful balance maintained between the proteid and starchy foods, with a generous admixture of fresh vegetables.

Especial attention should be paid to the clothing and bathing of penal populations. Spray baths should be given at frequent intervals; the clothing should be adapted to the seasons, kept clean and frequently disinfected by dry heat; and

personal cleanliness should be insisted upon. All men confined in penal institutions should be permitted to exercise at some period of the day in the open air.

There are many other features in detail which might be enumerated, and which are important in the solving of the problem of the prevention of tuberculosis in penal institutions, but those indicated are the chief factors, and if strictly carried out would accomplish much toward preventing the disease.

The first step in the intelligent and effective treatment of the tuberculous prisoner is the introduction into all the penal institutions of systematic methods of examination, which will make not only possible, but certain as may be, the early diagnosis of the disease.

Under the methods of the past, and, I may say, mostly of the present, the tuberculous may be found scattered through every department of penal institutions unrecognized, none but the most advanced and self-evident cases receiving special treatment and isolation. Thus the majority of incipient cases go slumbering on, until the disease has so far advanced that recovery is made hopeless in many cases and the infection is consequently conveyed to many other persons.

To remedy this defect a law should be enacted making it mandatory upon the physicians of all jails and penal institutions to examine every man upon reception, with a view to detecting every case of tuberculosis, no matter in what stage, and to fill out a proper certificate, showing the condition of each person examined, a copy of which certificate should, in jail cases, be submitted to the court of trial, in order to hasten the trial of the tuberculous person, and should in case of commitment to penal institutions accompany the regular commitment papers.

As soon as an adequate system of identification for the tuberculous criminal has been put into working order, the whole problem will become greatly simplified. When once the prisoner is found to be tuberculous, he should at once be isolated from the general population and subjected to observation. If, after observation, it is found that his disease is not in an active stage, that his general condition is good, that he is not coughing or expectorating, and the bacilli are not present

in his sputa, he can safely be assigned to some form of light work that will admit of his receiving a degree of air and sunlight and not expose him to a dusty atmosphere. His case should, however, always be under close scrutiny, with a view to anticipating any renewed activity of the disease.

If the disease is at all active the patient should be admitted to regular hospital treatment. My own experience leads me to believe that this is best carried out in large open wards with high ceilings, admitting an abundance of sunlight and fresh air.

After admission to the wards the treatment of the tuberculous prisoner does not differ materially from that of the tuberculous citizen, except that there are certain conditions which arise depending upon and peculiar to the prison environment. The subjective effects of this environment are the element of mental depression and consequent unstableness of the nervous system, caused by the shock of arrest, trial and imprisonment, and the enervating effects of confinement under penalty. These special conditions must be met by appropriate treatment, and this, the nerve feature of the tuberculous prisoner, requires very much more attention than in the case of the ordinary citizen.

The objective conditions are those which necessarily arise from the effects of prison discipline upon the prisoner. He must conform to certain fixed rules and regulations, and therefore a full degree of freedom of individual action cannot be permitted him. Neither can he receive the amount of outdoor air and exercise that his case may require, as at only certain hours of the day can he be permitted outside of the prison walls.

Fresh air and sunlight are the essential factors to the successful treatment of tuberculosis. These cannot be furnished the prisoner in the ordinary cell halls of a prison. However, it is my belief, derived from my own experience, that a satisfactory system can be devised for providing these requisites to the tuberculous prisoner by separate hospital buildings, provided with large open wards, so arranged as to admit plenty of air and sunlight, and with sufficient outdoor grounds for open-air treatment. The advantages of

the open-ward treatment lie in the greater facility with which the attendants and officers may superintend their charges, and in a certain amount of social intercourse between inmates which can be permitted them under this system.

As an illustration of the advantages to be derived from this method it may be well here to describe the new tuberculosis ward now in use in Clinton Prison, in connection with the regular prison hospital. While not carrying out the above idea in full, it is a great step in the right direction, and has decidedly proved its efficiency.

This ward is an addition to the regular prison hospital, but separated entirely from the other wards by the main central court of the prison hall entrance. It is situated on the top floor of the administration building, and is open to the air on the eastern and western sides of the building, thus receiving a plentiful supply of light and air, and is also protected on the northern side by the main buildings. It accommodates forty-three patients, and is provided with suitable modern sanitary arrangements. In connection with this ward is an eleven-bed ward for the treatment of the extremely advanced cases, making a total of fifty-four beds. There is also an outdoor sunning and exercise court, which is provided with benches, elevated cuspidors containing antiseptic solutions, crematory for the sputa and the spit-cups with which each inmate is provided, running spring water, and water-closet, as well as sufficient shade, afforded by a few trees, for the extremely hot summer days.

Treatment of the patient here is practically divided into three phases: physical, medicinal and dietetic. The first consists principally of simple calisthenics and outdoor exercise in the court above described, morning and afternoon, which is required of each patient whenever the weather and his condition permit.

The medicinal treatment, while subordinated to the physical and dietetic, is nevertheless an essential feature, and such medicaments as the iodins, creosote, guaiacol, ichthyol, formalin, cod liver oil, stomachics and tonics are used, according to the requirements of the different cases. The ultra-violet X-ray has also

been used to a considerable extent with beneficial results.

The diet is prescribed daily by the physician, and is furnished on his order from the hospital kitchen. It is aimed to make this diet as nutritious as is consistent with available means, and it includes, principally, cereals, vegetables, milk, meat, eggs and fruits.

It is also intended to instruct each patient thoroughly, on admission, as to the necessary sanitary rules peculiar to his disease, as regards the care of his person, clothing and sputa. He is required to conduct himself in an orderly manner and keep his person clean and neat. He is permitted, within certain limits, to mingle and converse with his fellow patients, and to play checkers and dominoes with his neighbors, and is supplied with plenty of good reading.

This ward is in charge of a hospital attendant—a trained nurse—who is always in attendance during the day. While it has been in use less than two years, the results shown have surpassed all anticipations. Many patients are admitted in an emaciated, anæmic and exhausted condition, apparently to live but a short time, but a few days under this systematic routine and treatment make a manifest improvement in them. If they carry temperature, it gradually subsides, their natural color returns, and many of them gain materially in weight. A goodly number are apparently cured, many cases are arrested, few die; and all the deaths have occurred in cases which were received in the prison in the last stage of the disease, and were utterly hopeless on reception. The results obtained in this prison by the use of this ward lead me to believe that this method of treatment is the correct one, and is best adapted to the peculiar conditions of a prison.

A separate hospital building of sufficient capacity to accommodate all the tuberculous inmates of the penal institutions of the state, provided with properly fitted wards, modern sanitary appliances, and outdoor and indoor exercise courts, isolated completely from the prison population proper, presents without question the solution of the problem of the treatment and prevention of this dread disease in the penal institutions of the state.

When a patient has arrived at an arrested stage of the disease, he can advantageously be employed at some light work, which, I believe, is best represented by light gardening. In this way a sufficient quantity of vegetables and relishes can be raised to supply the needs of the patients, they receive the benefit of the exercise, their minds are diverted into a healthy channel, which is a very important factor, and the produce supplied by such labor undoubtedly pays for the extra expense

incurred in the gardening while at work.

The whole solution appears to me to lie in the institution of a practical system such as outlined above which, briefly stated, means the enactment of a law providing for the early diagnosis of the disease, the construction of a modern, isolated, tuberculosis hospital building of sufficient capacity, and the compulsory transfer to it of all established cases of tuberculosis.

Suburban Churches and Personal Service

Francis H. McLean

General District Secretary Chicago Bureau of Charities

The suburban era is bringing in its train its own peculiar problems. Following the universal gratification which was expressed when electricity was harnessed to the service of street railroads, thereby giving promise of a tremendous extension of the suburban belt, there has arisen the question—what is to come out of the suburban movement which will encourage the growth of the brotherhood of man? It has come to be recognized that suburban life may be one of the most selfish, self-concentrated lives imaginable, or it may be just the reverse. It requires, however, constant effort to make it the reverse; the line of least resistance is in the direction of selfishness. Nor can one say that this is simply a reflection of ordinary city life. The incitement of the altruistic impulses comes in many purposed and un-purposed ways to the citizen of a great center; only rarely and at intervals does it come to the citizen of a suburb unless he searches for it. Comparatively speaking, altruism is at a premium in the suburb. The absence of any serious problems within a reasonable distance from one's residence, the absolute lack of touch with those problems, very easily leads to a complacent optimism. It is true that the family life may be more finely developed than in the city and yet it may become narrow and selfish without outside interests. There is a point where the isolation of family life may become a menace to the advance of social reform. That menace is ever present in the suburb.

Without detracting from the fine quali-

ties of suburban life it is necessary to consciously bear in mind that it is distinctly the duty of social workers to enlarge the social interests of him who has fled from the city residence street, but who cannot thereby escape his responsibilities towards the great center in which he earns his bread. Doubtless everyone recalls to mind certain suburbs (not cities in themselves, which naturally have their own problems) which display a deep and permanent interest in social work. But in comparison with the number which are sufficient unto themselves, the exceptions make a lamentably small list. There are country towns 100 miles away from Chicago, for instance, which do more in this direction in this great metropolis than do some suburbs five miles away.

*Bringing the
City Family
to the Suburb.*

This is in spite of the fact, too, that in Chicago special efforts have been made to utilize the resources of suburban districts through suburban churches. It is about these methods of utilization with which the present paper is concerned. No other approach has been in the main more successful than in developing interest in summer outings of various kinds. Indeed, in one center, Evanston, the interest was developed from within and was so effectively aroused that year after year it supported and still supports a camp accommodating 100 women and children during six weeks of the summer season. Other suburbs have in the past assisted in the support of camps.

Still others, unable to bear the expense of a camp, have engineered day parties of one hundred, providing both entertainment and lunches. Though these undertakings lack apparently something of the intimate personal touch, still it is by no means entirely lacking. In Evanston, for instance, the churches assume responsibility in succession, providing provisions and entertainment; in fact, everything except the trained superintendent. Theirs is no simple donation to some distant purpose but a genuine every day contact and interest in things. When day parties go out to the suburbs, the town and city children play together. At luncheon, the young women of the town serve their guests personally and in the afternoon the town mothers and city mothers have a sociable time together talking over household matters of mutual interest. All in all, it's mighty friendly sort of friendly visiting. The personal element becomes even more prominent in the group day parties which have been arranged. A little party of two or three mothers with, say, seven children in all, have been entertained in some suburban park by the women of a church without the hurry and hustle and work connected with the care of a large party. There has been more time for conversation of an intimate nature and for the formation of deep and abiding friendships. Still further individualizing—a worn-out mother or delicate child has been entertained by some family for a few days at a time, has been part of the family circle for a period without shadow of patronage. We hope to feel, as time goes on, that there are homes here and there which will receive occasionally a child or woman temporarily during some crisis and give that personal loving care which is not quite possible even in the best managed institution.

The Utilization of Suburban Resources in the City.

So far, we have been considering the bringing of the city family to the suburb. The utilization of suburban resources in the city itself presents more difficulties. We allude, of course, to a utilization over and beyond contact with the poor neighborhood through Sunday services or in other ways which bring no real knowledge of home conditions. Our experience which has been

tried without lasting results has been to induce some suburbs to support a visitor in one of the district offices of the Bureau of Charities, this visitor to make regular reports to some church organization, to secure special relief through the church, and to bring, wherever possible, church members in contact with individual families. But the experiment has failed. It did not succeed in bringing the suburb into sufficiently intimate relation with city families; it did not bring duty right into the hearts of the people who had shifted entirely responsibility onto a paid worker; very soon interest flagged and the financial support dwindled down. Whenever actual contact has been established, wherever suburbanites have served as active members of councils and committees and as friendly visitors, there has been established a seemingly permanent relation.

Indeed, one very important lesson which has been taught by our Chicago experience is that when a suburb has been appealed to to do its share of social service, it is better not to concede the formation of a separate suburban organization owing to the objection of distance, unless indeed a suburb has poverty of its own to look after. Under other circumstances, nothing can take the place of the actual constant contact with the busy district office and the busy district committees, with their endless succession of hard problems to grapple with. Somehow the all-important character of the work and its pressing need for friendly service becomes attenuated unless viewed constantly from within. It is part of the social sacrifice which the suburbanite has to make that distance shall be reckoned as a negligible quantity, with reasonable allowances; and that attendance upon the regular district meetings and frequent visiting of the district office shall be considered as necessary. The separate suburban committee or conference is a mistake if experience in Chicago is at all significant.

The Appeal to the Suburban Church.

The appeal to the suburban church, the appeal which is bringing it more and more into the army of personal service, is an appeal straight to the heart of the matter. It is an appeal not to

social service, but to religious service. The recognition that the opportunities for personal service excepting of a neighborly sort, are generally absent in the suburb and that no religious life is complete without such service, has given the appeal as high and sacred a standing as one for the support of missions. It has meant much that women with households and families of their own to look after, some

with not even one servant to fall back upon, have given whole days to service of this sort. It has meant much that struggling young churches, sometimes not out of debt themselves, have given of themselves both materially and spiritually. It has meant much to have learned that the suburban era does not by any means spell isolation from personal service of a true and valuable kind.

The Seventh Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction

J. J. Kelso

Superintendent of the Ontario Children's Department

The seventh Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction, which concluded a three days' session at London, Ontario, October 7, was a successful meeting in every way. Seventy-five delegates attended from various outside points; the discussions were spirited and timely and many new friends were gained for the cause of progressive charitable endeavor. Although in point of members not ranking with the large church and benevolent conferences, the influences of this gathering are annually felt in the reforms brought about and in the betterment of social conditions generally. The president, Adam Beck, who happened to be mayor of the city and also representative in the legislature, opened the proceedings with a capital address and was assisted as chairman of subsequent meetings by Adam Brown of Hamilton. Describing the local charities, he referred particularly to the deserved popularity of the Children's Aid Society, which had recently received a bequest of ten thousand dollars for shelter. In replying for the visitors, Mr. Brown dwelt on the saving influences of love and sympathy, without which no delinquent, either young or old, can be won over to a better life. The various ministers of the city also gave short addresses.

Major Archibald of the Salvation Army, whose work as a friendly visitor in the prisons led to his appointment by the dominion government as parole officer, advocated the indeterminate sentence for habitual offenders, and the conference will continue to advocate this important re-

form. Many Canadian judges and officials testify to the inefficiency of the short sentence, and look forward to a more enlightened policy, already recognized in the industrial school system. A strong resolution was adopted before the conference adjourned.

Dr. J. C. Mitchell gave an address on the care and treatment of epileptics, of whom it is said two or three hundred are now in the insane asylum. The Ontario government is establishing a farm colony near Woodstock for this class, and Dr. Mitchell will take charge when the buildings are ready for occupation next summer.

In the evening, James L. Hughes, school inspector of Toronto, gave a thoroughly inspiring address on the proper treatment of boys, deploring unjust floggings and advocating the development of boys' activities in a sympathetic and natural way. No boy is inherently bad except perhaps those that are mentally or physically defective, and these should be patiently and scientifically studied and aided. Mr. Hughes' touching plea for better treatment of the so-called bad boy, was received with a standing vote of thanks.

At the morning session on October 6, a general discussion took place on work for children. The writer, as superintendent of the Ontario children's department, took the platform and there was a discussion of such topics as the juvenile court, probation; the families of destitute mothers, deserted or widowed; overcrowding in poor neighborhoods; small play-

grounds where children most do congregate; whipping of boys; truancy, etc. This session proved highly beneficial owing to the freedom with which the various delegates participated. The consensus of opinion was that whipping was preferable to a term in jail and that such chastisement reasonably administered, should not be classed as barbarous and inhuman. The fact was given prominence, however, that by a policy of kindness the state reformatory for boys had been abolished, the inmates, about eighty in number, having been placed in situations and after six months had elapsed not one boy had been re-arrested for any offence. The boys, ranging in years from fourteen to eighteen, had two hundred and eighteen years to serve. The institution has been turned into an asylum for insane and over five hundred dollars per week has been saved to Ontario.

County homes for the aged poor were endorsed by Dr. Luton of St. Thomas, with the proviso that great care should be exercised in the class admitted and useful occupations, preferably farming, carried on as far as possible.

In the evening the Rev. R. G. MacBeth gave an address on the social problems of the Canadian West and Frank J. Walsh, of Toronto, advocated the erection of houses for working men. A company has been formed to carry out a scheme for building homes for the poor on the cottage plan and renting them at five per cent on

the capital invested. The company will be neither a charity nor a money-making concern, and its operations will be looked forward to with interest by the citizens of Toronto, where overcrowding in the poorer districts is beginning to be a menace to clean living.

In the morning of the 7th, two of the topics introduced were: the reformation of women, by Mrs. O'Sullivan, superintendent of the woman's reformatory, who said it was impossible to do much for women sent for six months, but much can be accomplished with the long-term inmates; and Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh of Toronto, who advocated hospital treatment for confirmed drunkards. The band of the Victoria Industrial School was present and played very acceptably.

The next conference will be held in Toronto on September 27, 28 and 29, 1905, the following being elected officers:

President, Col. J. E. Farewell, K.C., of Whitby; vice-presidents, Mayor Beck of London, J. J. Kelso of Toronto, Alex. Shaw, K.C., of Walkerton; treasurer, the Rev. James Lediard of Owen Sound; hon. secretary, Dr. A. M. Rosebrugh of Toronto; secretary, Frank Walsh of Toronto; executive committee, Dr. R. V. Bray of Chatham, R. H. Lane of Montreal, S. M. Thomson of Brantford, John Keane of Ottawa, R. Massie of Toronto, O. Labelle of London, C. Ferrier of Toronto, A. MacMurchy of Toronto, Mrs. E. Yarker of London, Mrs. J. Urquhart of Hamilton, Mrs. O'Sullivan of Toronto.

A Shack Experiment at Wellesley Hills, Mass.—The *American Journal of Nursing* for October contains an account of an experiment in open-air treatment of tubercular diseases in children. This has been tried for nine months by the Children's Hospital, of Boston, at its Convalescent Home in Wellesley Hills, Mass. A wooden shack was erected near the house used as the Convalescent Home, and connected with it by a covered way. The cost of both the shack and the passage way was only \$890. It was first occupied the day after Christmas, 1903. This shack is twenty by forty feet in the dimensions, and is ventilated by fourteen or more windows, and by wide sliding doors on one side, which are kept open most of the time. Twelve children sleep here every night and it is used as a playroom in the day time by these twelve and the fifteen from the house. The children sleep in flannel gowns and caps and woolen bed

socks, and between blankets. In the daytime they wore flannel underclothing, flannel dresses, sweaters and hoods. All the children have been under treatment in the hospital for some tubercular disease. The children have been comfortable day and night in all kinds of weather. "There has not been a single case of sore throat or cold in the head. The appetites of all have improved and they enjoy it, and would protest now should the windows be closed."

English Prisons and Their Methods.—In the *International Journal of Ethics* for October, H. J. B. Montgomery writes severely of English prisons and their methods, declaring that the "English prison system today is a distasteful and degrading punishment: a vindictive or retributive institution." He maintains that the discipline is unnecessarily severe and that it is not reformatory in its tendency.

CHARITIES

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*More as to
Non-Partisanship
as a
Political Issue.*

The present New York state campaign is one of encouragement to those interested in the development of state charities not only in New York, but in other commonwealths. It shows that political consideration of the administration of public charitable institutions can be lifted from the limbo of party spoils to the level of real political issues. It shows that the treatment accorded the insane, the epileptic, the reformable criminal are matters which citizens generally, though slow to be aroused, take as a matter of vital concern. The lively interest displayed by the speakers in the present campaign is a response to this public sentiment; and when so large a degree of attention is given to a matter and the candidates for the governorship express themselves so emphatically and encouragingly, there is less likelihood that the contentions of those philanthropically interested in the condition of the state's wards will, when the matter of legislation in this field is again to the fore, be rebuffed as lightly as in the past. As expressed by Prof. Frank Fetter, chairman of the committee on politics of the State Conference of Charities and Corrections, it has at last been generally recognized "that the attempt to make the benevolent institutions a wheel in the partisan machine is not only bad morals, but blundering politics."

The service which CHARITIES performed in getting definite statements from both candidates in the field—a piece of enterprise which has occasioned editorial comment throughout the state—can perhaps not be better indicated than by repeating here extracts from an open letter addressed by Prof. Fetter to Mr. Higgins, the Republican nominee, and given out the day on which CHARITIES went to press.

The writer reviewed the public statements on the subject hitherto attributed to Mr. Higgins and queried as to how far the candidate represented the choice of the present administration. The situation was stated as follows:

The principle of non-partisan management of our state benevolent institutions is an issue in this campaign; and as chairman of the conference committee on partisan politics, I feel it my personal duty (without involving the conference of charities or the other members of the committee) to call your attention to certain facts touching the recent policy regarding our state institutions, and affecting their future welfare. Though "this is a campaign of recollection," it should also be a campaign of education. Had the protests of many Republicans against the Odell charity legislation been heeded, or even printed in the party organs to which the protests were presented two years ago, the evil might then have been prevented and the leading candidates on the Republican state ticket would not now find themselves in such a difficult position. At last it is generally recognized that the attempt to make the benevolent institutions a wheel in the partisan machine is not only bad morals, but blundering politics. The work of education must go on until the non-partisan management of our state institutions is established so firmly that no party dares to assail it.

There is much doubt, sir, in the minds of the public as to your precise convictions and purposes regarding the management of these institutions. Do you, or do you not, approve of the policy of the present administration toward the benevolent institutions? Are you, or are you not, running on the Odell record in this matter? On the day of your nomination it seemed that you were; the platform on which you stand approves his administration in strong terms. A few days after your nomination it became ap-

parent that your defeat was certain on such an issue as against the platform denouncing the Odell legislation and demanding its repeal.

This question of the honest non-partisan administration of the state benevolent institutions is, happily, to a large and steadily increasing number of voters, the paramount issue in the state campaign. In view of the facts, you cannot be surprised that such citizens should expect from you on this issue the most unequivocal and emphatic assurances.

In view of your support of the Odell charity legislation at every stage of its progress and upon every vote, it is not enough to disavow his policy in general terms. It is for you to confess either that you then lacked the independence to oppose what your judgment disapproved, or that you were then mistaken and will, if given an opportunity, seek in every way possible to repair your error.

Commenting upon the interview, published in CHARITIES, the *Utica Daily Press* has this to say:

Should Mr. Higgins be elected it would be entirely possible for him to secure the legislation to which in this interview he announces himself as favorable. If he really means business, and it is fair to believe he does, or he would not give his word to a publication like CHARITIES, he owes it to himself and his party to be more emphatic and repeat this declaration in some of his public speeches. It is easily susceptible of proof that better administration in the hospitals for the insane will be secured if there are local boards of managers, possessed of reasonable authority and enabled to act as a check upon the lunacy commission at Albany. The patients will be better cared for and better work done in the hospitals. The local board should have the power of appointing the superintendent and the superintendent should have the power to appoint under civil service rules, all the other employes. Candidate Higgins fails to appreciate the full force of the state hospital issue in this campaign if he neglects to make his attitude in the matter not only more emphatic, but more widely known. The present system is not right; neither is it popular with the people. If he promises reform he cannot give that promise too much publicity.

State Boards and Commissions.

California. The State Board of Charities and Correction at its recent meeting, gave consideration to means for improving the work for the insane. Among other suggestions were

that there should be a more careful examination of patients to determine their probable curability, that there should be more variety in the food furnished the patients, and that those suffering from tuberculosis should be isolated and as to the advisability of a law for the deportation of alien and non-resident insane.

The board's committee on penal and reformatory institutions was directed to investigate and report upon the advisability of introducing the determinate sentence in the state prisons.

The plan for making one of the state schools for delinquents into a reformatory for the more incorrigible, leaving the other to be used for the dependent and less criminally inclined, was approved in letters received from Dr. Walter Lindley, president of the board of trustees of the Whittier State School, and its superintendent, Sherman Smith.

Dr. E. E. Moore was elected president and Dr. J. K. McLean, vice-president for the ensuing year.

An interesting suit was recently tried at San Francisco against the board of managers of the Napa State Hospital, to nullify a contract, the ground for the complaint being that it was not given to the lowest bidder. In answer, the board contended that the firm making the lowest bid had, in the execution of previous contracts, supplied unsatisfactory goods.

Massachusetts. The settlement and poor laws of Massachusetts have always caused more or less litigation. The last case reported is a claim against the State Board of Charities by the authorities of Holyoke for the board of a state patient who had been ordered removed to the state institution at Tewksbury.

More than a year ago, it appears, from a report from Holyoke the state board ordered the transfer of this patient, a woman, who had no local settlement to Tewksbury, but the Holyoke city almshouse protested because of the woman's condition. The state board's representative made an investigation and repeated his instructions. Finally, the Holyoke authorities appealed the case to the State Board of Claims and the attorney-general, with the result that the state board has

been required to pay the test charge of \$8 and \$40 additional for costs.

Minnesota. In a recent report State Labor Commissioner O'Donnell pointed out the unsafe condition of many of the state institutions, particularly in relation to fire protection and sanitary equipment. Judge Gould of the State Board of Control has said in answer that any expensive correction of the evils complained of is impossible at this time owing to lack of funds.

"Minnesota is a young state," said Judge Gould, "and many of the buildings complained of were built when money was scarce. All buildings erected under our supervision have, as a rule, been constructed with a view of permanency and with good fire-proofing and safety appliances as their principal features.

"This has not always been the case in the past. We advocated such in our last report to the legislature, and will dwell further on it in our next report to that body. I suppose complaint will be made and, if the legislature will only provide the necessary funds we will see that every state institution is brought up to the proper standard of safety."

New York. In an opinion of public importance and of special significance in New York state, Attorney-General Cunneen quoted the provisions of the state constitution and the law affecting the State Board of Charities, and told that board that it has powers of visitation and inspection over certain institutions in the state which are in receipt of public money but which are apparently private business enterprises rather than charitable institutions. The State Board of Charities recently wrote the attorney-general for an opinion as to its jurisdiction over these institutions. In his reply, Mr. Cunneen says: "I am of the opinion that, whenever a public agent employs a private individual or corporation to 'care for, support or maintain' one or more persons at public expense, the service must be rendered 'pursuant to rules established by the State Board of Charities,' not inconsistent with legislative regulation, and that the state board has all the powers of visitation and inspection necessary to enable it to know whether

its rules are complied with. When such private individual or corporation agrees to render the public service, the law imposes an obligation upon it or him to submit to this scrutiny by the State Board of Charities. The state board has the right to know that the provision made for the care of those who are a public charge is suitable and proper and that the obligations assumed are fulfilled. This is the limit of its powers and duties concerning these persons or institutions. It has nothing to do with the general business or affairs of an individual or corporation because he or it may incidentally render a public service."

The board has approved plans for the virtual reconstruction of the Ulster County almshouse at New Paltz, and the new Board of Supervisors, now that several of the buildings of the institution have been destroyed by fire, are proceeding to the construction of the adequate water supply system long since recommended by the state board. The new buildings consist of a woman's dormitory, an administration building, and a new power plant. All of these buildings are to be connected by corridors.

When these buildings are completed, all the institution will require to make it an up-to-date one is an entire change of management.

Pennsylvania. The State Board of Charities has recently been giving some attention to the jail system of Pennsylvania, finding results, which are to be expected, from a system which throughout the entire county is so given over to party politics. Unsanitary and unhealthful conditions are reported in many places, and it was also found in some instances that children and adult offenders are not separated as the Pennsylvania law requires.

Illinois. The State Board of Charities has filed with Governor Yates its report upon the charges preferred by the Elgin Trades Council against the management of the Elgin Insane Hospital. The report says in part: "We find that these charges emanated from a spirit of revenge among a number of discharged employes who had

formed a union in the institution and incurred a hatred for Barnes, Stroeh and others who would not join their union. We believe that such an organization in a state institution cannot but be detrimental to good service and subversive of discipline and that it is the cause of ill feeling and animosity among attendants.

"The attendants in the hospital are public servants, just as much as is the superintendent. Their pay is fixed by the board of trustees and is higher than in other similar institutions in Illinois, Dunning excepted. The superintendent is empowered by law to discharge them at any time during service. He is charged with the duty of seeing that all officers, agents and employes of the institution faithfully discharge their duties, and is directly responsible for the economy, efficiency and success of the internal management. Unless he can require strict enforcement of all the rules of the institution he will be unable to secure efficient service.

"The employes are in no sense tradesmen. They create nothing and they add nothing to the wealth or to the prosperity of the country. Their term of service usually is short, the average term of an attendant in a state hospital being scarcely more than a year.¹ The duties are defined and the wage is known when they enter the service. No individual or corporate interest has anything to gain by depriving them of fair compensation for their labor."

The authorities of Rock Island County propose to test the law requiring them to pay \$150 a year to each blind person in the county, not in receipt of an income exceeding \$250 a year. It is alleged, that several blind persons have received \$150 this year from this county, but in some of the cases the beneficiaries had relatives perfectly able to support them. The question seems likely to be brought into court through a suit instituted by one

[¹ Whatever may be conceded to the other points made in this report, the contention that employes of state institutions cannot be considered producers, is obviously economically obsolete. The statement that the "average term of an attendant in a state hospital" is "scarcely more than a year" would seem to indicate a serious fault in the system, as good results can scarcely be expected from changing staffs. In so far as the organization of employes may have represented a step toward permanency of work, the unions could be considered an advance upon what would seem to be the present status - Ed.]

of the persons from whom the payment is withheld.

Indiana. The Indiana State Board of Charities has under consideration prepared legislation making wife desertion a felony, and also a proposed change in the tramp law, forbidding the sentencing of tramps to county jails.

Wisconsin. The expenditures of the state institutions for July aggregated \$53,471.82, a reduction, it is said, of several thousand dollars from the usual amount. This reduction was due to the fact that less was spent for improvements at the institutions than usual.

Notes of the Week.

St. Vincent de Paul Convalescent Home.—The new Convalescent's Home for Women, which the St. Vincent de Paul Society in New York has so long had in contemplation, is now under way. Ground was broken at Spring Valley on the day when the last party of children returned from the Fresh-air Home which has been maintained there by the society for its first summer this past season. The buildings are to be ready for occupancy in the late winter or spring. Describing the plans for the home a member of the society writes:

"At present there is practically no place in New York, under Catholic auspices, where a poor mother, just out of the maternity hospital, or a broken-down shop girl, without money or friends, could be sent for a few weeks' rest and recuperation. There are thousands of such women in this city, cases that would wring the hearts of the public if they only knew the facts, worthy cases and most deserving; and it is to meet these cases, to be able to do something, if only a little, that the society is putting up the new building at Spring Valley. The home will begin with a capacity of not more than forty or fifty, but the mission at Mount Loretto was begun in a loft, and it has since helped thousands upon thousands."

Monday Evening Club, Boston.—Vacation echoes brought back for the moment the woods and the lakes and the mountains, and gave inspiration that should last all winter to the members of the Boston Monday Evening Club at their first coming together this season, October 17. Miss Frances Smith told how tenement dwellers are akin to campers-out, except that the discomforts of camp life last the year round. Social workers may teach the city dwellers to appreciate the bits of nature which even the city offers, for they have the sky, the stars, the horizon. Miss Alice L. Higgins said the vacation attitude of mind was to feel that all things are possible, and said in a way that made it seem the rightful attitude

of charity generally. Mr. Stone of the Children's Friend Society, told of reforms that have grown out of the meeting and talking together in vacation of those in different cities interested in the welfare of humanity, while the Rev. F. B. Allen made a plea for entire change of occupation and thought during vacation, and convinced some at least that it was better to play in earnest and forget their work for a time. A charming description of the study and recreation of 600 college women at Silver Bay conference was given by Miss McGurty of the Y. W. C. A. of Lawrence. Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett told of visiting a city in Scotland where seventy-seven members composed the council in charge of public improvements. Complimenting the results of their work, Dr. Brackett was told that so interested are these men in their duties that meetings are held during the vacation time. It was part of the lesson he brought home, both as tourist then and speaker at this meeting, of the need in American cities for increased civic pride and for learning the duties and beauties of citizenship. The secretary of the club reported a membership of 250, and eleven names were proposed.

New York State Conference.—The final program of the fifth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, to be held at Syracuse, November 15-18, is about to be issued. Among the additional papers announced are the following: Wednesday afternoon, *Present Methods and Work of the State Reformatory at Elmira*. Dr. Charles F. Howard, president board of managers, Buffalo; Wednesday evening, *The Life of the Street as it Affects Juvenile Delinquency*, Judge Robert J. Wilkin of the Children's Court, Brooklyn; Thursday morning, *Improved Methods of Caring for Dependent Adults*, Commissioner James H. Tully, Department of Public Charities, New York city; Thursday evening, *The Radical Defect of the Merit System*, Frank M. Loomis, Buffalo. Excursions are planned Friday afternoon to the State Prison at Auburn and the George Junior Republic at Freeville.

In the Day's Work.—California papers have been printing enthusiastic items about the pluck of a charity worker in stopping a runaway horse, Miss C. C. Carver, assistant secretary of the Associated Charities, of Los Angeles. A policeman is quoted as saying: "I never saw such a gritty piece of work in my life. I thought that the woman was a goner, sure. Why the horse did not miss her three inches;" adding that "She handled herself like a police officer, only better," which is certainly praise superlative from such a source. Miss Carver is credited with other evidences of coolness and daring—once in capturing a woman for whom the detectives had been looking for years, and another time in shadowing a fraudulent beggar at night and in all sorts of places, until she had

the evidence through which to put a stop to her practices.

Neighborhood House, North Summit.—In a district peopled by Greeks, Syrians, Armenians, Polish Jews, Bohemians, Russians, Belgians, Turks and English engaged in the specialized industry of dress silk making, the "Neighborhood House" has been started at North Summit, N. J. While identified with the Presbyterian church, in so far as it may be regarded as a mission, it is non-sectarian in its work.

The house contains a large audience room, rooms for social and library uses, and two floors for dwelling rooms in which will be installed four resident workers, with Miss Grace Elizabeth Paine as head-worker.

Among the activities thus far developed are domestic training for girls and women, and physical training for boys. Talks are given in English and in the European tongues of the neighborhood.

Awards at St. Louis.—The International Jury has made official announcement of the awards at the St. Louis Exposition. In the Department of Social Economy, which includes charities, corrections, housing reform, municipal administration, and allied subjects, the jury has apparently been reasonably generous, including grand prizes and gold medals to many state boards of charities, municipal departments, charity organization societies, the juvenile courts, and charitable institutions. The list of those which will more specially interest readers of CHARITIES, including the personal awards to collaborators, will shortly be published in full in CHARITIES.

New York Monday Club.—The first meeting of the New York Monday Club will be held the evening of October 31, in the assembly hall of the United Charities Building. Miss Mary Vida Clark will give an illustrated lecture on New York state charitable institutions. This is the first meeting of the year and the annual election of officers will take place. Social workers who desire to join this organization may have their names presented through any of the members. The club meets fortnightly throughout the winter, talks and discussions being followed by social gatherings.

Park Enterprise in Harrisburg.—According to the *Philadelphia Press*, the Harrisburg (Pa.) Municipal League has adopted a novel plan to get the local councils interested in its scheme for public works and municipal improvement. Through private sources the league has raised sufficient funds to defray the expense of taking the entire membership of councils, some city officials and several members of the league to Boston, where they will examine the parks, playgrounds, parkways and suburban parks. They were to have gone on the junket this week.

The National Prison Association

Samuel J. Barrows

Corresponding Secretary New York Prison Association

The session of the National Prison Association was held this year, Oct. 15-20, at Quincy, Ill. It brought together a good attendance especially from the central west, and its meetings were full of interest and profit. A varied program brought out both the practical and the theoretical side of the congress. The practical men are largely represented in the Wardens' Association, the men who have to deal directly with the prisoner and with problems of prison administration. But it would be a mistake to suppose that the vision of these men is limited only by the narrower detail and routine of their occupation; some of the noblest prophets of the "new penology" are to be found among the superintendents of prisons and reformatories. Indeed, an intimate acquaintance with prisoners and an endeavor to apply the principles of a true reformatory system are sure to bring out the best and noblest elements in the warden as well in the prisoner. The Wardens' Association represents not merely the repressive, but the reformatory spirit. Discussions are held on a higher plane than they were twenty-five years ago.

The death of Dr. Charlton T. Lewis last May deprived the association of the services as president of this earnest and eminently able man; but the executive committee had opportunity to meet the exigency before the program was prepared and Dr. Frederick Howard Wines, the first vice-president, was unanimously chosen to fill the vacancy. His opening address was a review of changed conditions and of progress in penology. It was gratifying to hear Dr. Wines from ample knowledge of facts and principles, speak so confidently of the general progress in legislation and prison administration and of the results obtained from the reformatory system.

The churches of Quincy were hospitably opened to members of the conference and a sermon by the Rev. Edwin M. Clingan, given before the congress in the First Presbyterian Church, was inspiring.

Very interesting was the address by John Kenneth Ferrier, of Scotland Yard, London, on *Finger Marks as a Means of Identification of Criminals*. For many years the Bertillon system of identification has supplanted all others in America, except in the army and navy where an old spirit of conservatism continues the ridiculously inadequate method of identification by scars and marks, but it now looks as if the Bertillon system, based on certain measurements of the head, arms, hands and feet, will itself be supplanted. It has already been discarded at Scotland Yard for the new system of finger-prints, which is much simpler. A difficulty with the Bertillon system has been that a variation in measurements caused by the personal equation in different operators makes different classifications possible. The measurements are not always found because they are not in the proper file. There is some variation too, between the measurements of a youthful offender and those of the same person at maturity.

Identification by finger-prints is not a new method—one, on the contrary, which has been used for centuries as a feature of the passport system of China. It has long been known that finger-prints offer a positive means of identification and there has been no trouble in taking them, the real difficulty being in a classification that would enable people to find them after they were filed. This difficulty has been very largely, if not entirely, overcome by E. R. Henry of Scotland Yard, who devised a simple means of classification which after a trial of several years at Scotland Yard, is now declared to be absolutely infallible.

The system has been in use in India for some years and in various English dependencies; and also in the prison department of New York city. At Scotland Yard the number of the identifications has been increasing. There are now between seventy and eighty thousand impressions. Bertillon himself, while not

abandoning his system of anthropometric measurements, is making more and more use of finger-prints as an additional means of certainty.

The Wardens' Meeting. A paper by Warden Wolfer, of Minnesota, on the *Rights and Duties of the Deputy-Warden* was marked by practical knowledge, large experience and just discrimination.

Two other papers by wardens of prisons showed the breadth of view prison wardens may take in their conception of the underlying principles of penology. One was by Warden Charles E. Cox of New Hampshire on the *Relation of the State to the Criminal*. Warden Cox declared that idleness in prison is the mother of insanity; he insisted that the convict must have productive labor, and that the management of prisons should be free from partisan politics. From the standpoint of the prison warden, these are not academic truisms but deductions from painful experience. The other paper, by Warden Hunter, of Anamosa, Iowa, reviewed early conditions and presented in a scientific spirit the characteristics of the modern method which, applying the principle of the survival of the fittest, seeks not the elimination of the man, but of his unfitness. The paper was full of sound common sense.

There was hardly a paper that did not contain some elements of encouragement. Warden Scott, superintendent of the Elmira Reformatory, New York, presented conclusions based on the study of a thousand reformatory cases made from October, 1896, to October, 1898, in Massachusetts. The average imprisonment for the total number was twenty-seven and four-fifth months. The number absolutely released 69.7 per cent of the men paroled; the number of men returned 5.1 per cent. The study tended to show that unsatisfactory results are obtained more because magistrates make injudicious commitments than because of the management of the institution. Superintendent Scott believes that a period has been reached when the maximum sentence may be removed. With sentences of a short maximum, there is very little in-

centive on the part of the prisoner to put forth effort. These figures also tend to refute the idea that the prisoners in these institutions are released too soon.

The Chaplains' Meeting. The chaplains' meeting was of more than usual interest and was attended by a larger number of wardens than have usually appeared. The assistant superintendent of the Illinois State Reformatory, himself a minister, presented a high ideal of the work of chaplain, and the discussion which followed enforced the conclusions of his paper. Is it not about time that the prison chaplain's office should be taken out of politics, and that ministers should not be appointed whose only claim to the position is that they have not succeeded anywhere else? There is no post in the ministerial profession that needs more capable men, men of tact, intelligence, eloquence and personal magnetism. Some splendid chaplains in the service have already shown how they can magnify in the best sense their noble office.

The report of the standing committee on prevention and probation, made by Prof. Charles R. Henderson of Chicago, was an interesting and able study of the function and results of the juvenile court in the United States, based on answers obtained to questions sent to the different judges and probation officers engaged in this work. It is hardly necessary to say that the paper demonstrated beyond question the value of the juvenile court. It is not yet perfect in its method of administration, and there are many variations in law and practice in the different states, but the result as a whole is to save the child and make him a good citizen.

Mrs. Ophelia Amigh, of Geneva, Illinois, who has had much experience as superintendent of the State Training School for Girls, said that it had been demonstrated that they could turn out a good girl almost every time if she were normal.

Bishop Fallows, of Chicago, in an address on *Crime and the Public School* examined all the arguments brought against the public school as a promotor of crime, and showed the false premises on which they are based. Crime prevails not because of, but in spite of, the com-

mon school, a conclusion which was warmly applauded.

Though this is called a "national conference" it has had a distinctly international character. In addition to several welcome guests from Canada, the paper on finger-prints was given by Mr. Ferrier, a Scotchman, and an interesting episode was the appearance and address of Mr. Innami, of Japan, who, being unable to express himself extemporaneously in English, made his address in his own language. The stenographer laid down her pencil, and the audience applauded as vigorously as if they understood everything that was said. Mr. Innami, who is making a special study of prison institutions and methods in the United States, wrote out in English the substance of his address, which was read next day by Dr. Wines and proved as intelligent in its ideas as it was originally unintelligible in its words. Mr. Innami declared his firm belief in the indeterminate sentence, the juvenile court and the reformatory system, and in all preventive measures in the war against crime.

An excellent report was made by the Rev. A. M. Fish, of Trenton, N. J., chairman of the committee on discharged prisoners. The conclusions were based upon industrious inquiry in an endeavor to secure facts from all parts of the country showing the organization and resources of work for discharged prisoners in the United States. "It is work," said Father Fish, "which requires a great deal of optimism, but results can be achieved." Just what can be accomplished in this direction was shown by Major Archibald, of the Salvation Army of Canada, who during the last year has obtained work for 1,200 discharged prisoners. An interesting point is that the persons under whom they are placed or who give them work, become their patrons as under the Swiss system. A new impulse to work for discharged prisoners in Kansas and the Southwest has been given by the Rev. E. A. Fredenhagen and his wife and their associates of the Society for the Friendless.

The question has more than once been raised whether the methods of self-government so successfully followed at the George Junior Republic could not be combined in some way with the discipline

of reformatory institutions. Warden Mallary of the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac, has been making experiments in this direction for the last eighteen months with 200 boys between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years. These boys are separated entirely from the other inmates; they live in a community by themselves and have their own laws, courts, and a republican form of government. The economic motive is encouraged and there is a regular banking system. The result has thus far been very satisfactory.

The meeting of the prison physicians association gave an opportunity of Dr. Lamb, of Dannemora, N. Y., to show the progress New York state has made in treating insanity in relation to crime. Dr. Ransom, of Clinton prison, also made valuable contributions to the interesting discussion of the morning.

The address of Eugene Smith, of New York, on *Is Crime Increasing in the United States?* commanded close attention. He showed the utter inadequacy of the few statistics furnished once in ten years by the United States census to throw any light whatever on the question. The fact is, we are absolutely without criminal statistics in the United States based on judicial convictions except those compiled in a few states. In this connection, it may be said that the association has appointed a standing committee on statistics of crime, the purpose of which is to co-operate with the United States census in securing reliable annual compilations based on judicial convictions. New legislation may be needed to extend the power and functions of the census bureau in this direction. Mr. Smith's conclusion that crime is not increasing, but that the contrary is true, reflected the spirit and optimism of the conference.

In the closing address by the Rev. S. G. Smith of St. Paul on *Social Responsibility for Crime*, he condemned the doctrine of the birth doom of the individual based on a false assumption of the influence of heredity. The responsibility of society on the other hand, was shown in various aspects.

The next congress will meet at Lincoln, Nebraska, under the presidency of Albert Garvin of Connecticut.

The International Convention of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul

The International Convention of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, recently in session in St. Louis, will be remembered as one of the most important of its meetings held in the United States since the organization of the society in this country.

Despite the hot weather, which was most oppressive during the entire time of the convention, and notwithstanding the various attractions which the Exposition offered, the sessions were well attended. The members of the society in St. Louis did everything possible for the comfort and convenience of the visiting delegates. As will be seen by the reports, which are to be found in the current issue of the *St. Vincent de Paul Quarterly*, the clergy and laity vied with each other in extending welcome to all.

The Most Rev. John J. Glennon, archbishop of St. Louis, by his presence at the convention and cordial welcome, gave abundant proof that in him the society can rely upon one who will further the formation of conferences and encourage every good charitable work.

A letter from the Most Rev. John M. Farley of New York was received enthusiastically and made the delegates feel that if the society's progress is not large within the next few years, it will not be due to any lack of earnest support on the part of the Catholic Hierarchy in the United States.

Archbishop Farley's letter was as follows:

It is needless to say that my whole heart is with that organization and its members, whom I have always regarded among the best aids to the clergy, and as the lay priests of the poor. During the sixteen or seventeen years which I have passed with them in the sacred and confidential relation of ecclesiastical superior, I was edified more than I can tell by their whole-hearted devotion to the interests of the "needy and the poor." The spirit of him who is the whole world's special and favorite saint—St. Vincent de Paul—seems to have the power of passing into the membership with a fulness rarely found in any other similar society. Their motto, that "no work of

charity is foreign to the society of St. Vincent de Paul," qualifies them to be the almoners of all ages and peoples. Hence, I always found them, in this cosmopolitan city of ours, equal to every new condition of need arising from the three great sources of human misery—want, ignorance and need.

While the visiting of the poor in their homes is the chief feature of their work, I have found them to realize the fact that the homes of the poor should not bound their charity. When special needs arose, which to many seemed not to fall within the scope of their society, because they had long been accustomed to one form of almsgiving, the majority of the members did not hesitate to embrace new opportunities for doing good. . . . In a country like ours and in an age like the present, when the indigent of other nations are fast pouring into our large cities by hundreds of thousands, questions affecting both their spiritual and temporal welfare are constantly arising. Not seldom do we find our dissenting brethren only too willing to avail themselves of the ignorance and indigence of these newcomers, in order to seduce the Catholics among them from the faith of their forefathers. Hence, the necessity for social settlement work in the very slums of our cities.

The clergy are often overworked in discharging their purely spiritual functions and thus are frequently unable to give close and persistent attention to these menaces to the faith of our people. But with the intelligent aid of the members of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, who enlist the sympathy and practical services of their female friends, they are enabled to direct such saving work successfully. No less efficient work is done by more active members of the conferences, organized into committees of special work. Not the least fruitful of these fields of special works are our public prisons, public hospitals and public asylums.

Among the most consoling hours I have passed with the society were those in which I was privileged to listen to the reports of these committees on special works. The influence of a friendly visitor on a poor prisoner or on a lonely hospital patient can only be measured by the promise of Him who was pleased to become a prisoner, a patient, and poor, and naked, and hungry and thirsty Himself, in order to enable us to overcome the natural repugnance to the sight and the sound of human suffering, when He says: "For I was hungry and ye gave me to eat; I was thirsty and ye gave me to drink; I was a stranger

and ye took me in; naked and ye clothed me; sick and ye visited me; I was in prison and ye came to me."

But the Society of St. Vincent de Paul goes farther still, and with a refinement of Christian charity which, because of not being yet fully understood, is sometimes regarded as faddishness, carries, as it were, in its own arms, the children of the poor from the crowded torrid tenements to the hills, where God's pure air blows untainted, and to the sight of the green fields, and to the shade of the waving, welcoming branches of the summer trees.

Mindful, too, of the economic maxim that "God helps those who help themselves," the society has its employment bureau, through which willing workmen find the means of earning an independent living, who would not otherwise know where to turn except to the bounty of a conference. It is these characteristics and such as these that have commended the Society of St. Vincent de Paul to the admiration of all denominations, and help to vindicate for the Church her title to be the Church of all times, of all tongues and of all nations.

But much as has been done by the sons of the St. Vincent de Paul, they, like the best of us, must confess that they are unprofitable servants, while there is a cry of distress in the air, or the faith of the least of Christ's little ones menaced. How much misery still remains unrelieved and how many souls are threatened with loss of faith through the length and breadth of this broad land! Hence, they must awake and be alive to these dangers and to the demands on their charity, and be ready to seize upon every possible up-to-date service that makes for the glory of Him, who is entitled by His Church, "Jesus, Father of the Poor."

The range of subjects taken up by the conference is indicated by the following list of papers—papers which were read by men who would seem to have been imbued thoroughly with the spirit of Ozanam:

Progress of the Society in Providence, R. I., for Past Twenty-five Years; D. D. Donovan, Providence.

Frederick Ozanam, His Life and Work; Daniel McCann, Chicago, Ill.

Spiritual Needs of Inmates of Penitentiaries; the Rev. Fidelis Kaercher, O. F. M., Joliet, Ill.

Sketch of the Organization and Development of the Society in the Circumscription of St. Louis, Mo.; M. J. Murphy, St. Louis, Mo.

The Influence of the Society as a Beneficial Factor in the Solution of the Social Question of the Day; James F. Wise, Boston, Mass.

Necessity of a Knowledge and Observance of the Rules; Robert Biggs, Baltimore, Md.

Notes on Special Works of Conferences in Belgium; Paul Van Steenburgher, Superior Council of Belgium.

Juvenile Court Work; P. Mallon, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Importance of the Weekly Offerings of Members; John W. McNamara, Albany, N. Y.

Visiting the Poor in Their Homes; the Rev. Francis J. Van Antwerp, Detroit, Mich.

Systematic Education Work Among the Children of the Poor; Thos. A. Heulsler, Chicago, Ill.

Visiting Public and Eleemosynary Institutions; James J. Greene, Brooklyn, N. Y.

How to Interest Young Men in the Society; Wilfred B. Fetterman, Philadelphia, Pa.

Union of Charities; George Blondel, of the Council-General of Paris, France.

Fresh-air Work; John J. Barry, New York, N. Y.

Boys' Clubs; George J. Gillespie, New York, N. Y.

Women's Auxiliary, Its Advisability; James F. Kennedy, Chicago, Ill.

Securing Employment for the Idle; Paul P. Plotz, Chicago, Ill.

The Spiritual Side of the Work; John Guilfoyle, Jersey City, N. J.

Work in the Lodging-houses; M. F. D. Collins, Chicago, Ill.

The Conferences' Weak Spots; M. R. Bennett, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Suggestions for Broader Work for Conferences; Charles W. Heulsler, Baltimore, Md.

Visiting the Poor in Their Homes; Lawrence Gennor, Dubuque, Iowa.

Our Deaf Mutes; the Rev. P. M. Whalen, Philadelphia, Pa.

There were at least one hundred members in attendance at every session of the convention. Owing to the intense heat, the discussions were probably fewer than they would be otherwise. When the subject of boys' clubs came up for consideration, however, the number of members who took part in the discussion was proof sufficient that the subject is a live one in every part of the country.

The report of the committee on resolutions was impatiently awaited and the discussion which the report produced gave evidence of the unanimous opinion that some changes are necessary in order to put the society in the way of greater progress for the future. A resolution calling for one superior council for the United States had the unanimous approval of representatives from every section of the country. The representative present from the Council General in Paris, approved

this resolution heartily, as well as the others offered. On a clause regulating the tenure of office of the presidents of councils and conferences, changing from life to limited terms, the concensus of opinion was that while it would be an easy method of disposing of careless officers, it would not at all cause the retirement of men who are filling the duties of their positions with efficiency.

The resolution recommending to the Council General, in Paris, that the society in the United States be unified in administration under one superior council, implying not only greater co-ordination of the American organization, but, no doubt, greater autonomy, recited a paragraph from a letter from Paul Calon, president of the Council General, which showed a marked appreciation of the needs of the society in America with regard to sectional and other conditions. "The main object of the convention," said M. Calon, "because it can be attained immediately, should be to encourage the progress and development of the society in the Circumscriptions of the Superior Councils in the United States. The work should be examined according to the way of supplying it in the United States following the regulations existing in the different localities."

Other resolutions were:

Realizing the fact that many children of our institutions are discharged therefrom at an age when not fully qualified, either physically or mentally, to fight the battle of life, it becomes our duty to do all in our power to further the establishment of

homes in which they may be protected from the degrading influences of the streets and low-grade lodging-houses until such time as their earning power will enable them to support themselves in decent and moral surroundings.

Resolved, That as American citizens it is our duty to co-operate with charity workers of all creeds in all that pertains to the elevation of our fellow-beings, but in this co-operation we should always be guided by our rules, which wisely forbid the exposure of the misfortune of our poor.

The evening devoted to the Marquette League was one of the most interesting sessions. The eloquence and earnestness of the Rev. Henry G. Ganss appealed forcibly to the delegates and the object lesson furnished by the presence of the venerable missionary, the Rev. Florian Diegmann, S. J., with his two Indians from the Rosebud agency, coupled with the remarks they made, will doubtless be the means of extending the membership of the Marquette League and of proving to every Catholic the necessity of furthering this work among the reservations.

In looking over the personnel of the delegates to the convention, every Vincentian must have noted the earnestness of expression, the intelligence and zeal and the devotion to the work manifested. It is to be hoped that in the future these conventions will be held at more frequent intervals and that they will take up for consideration further questions of interest to charity workers and thus be the means of opening the eyes of increasing numbers to the need of organization and united effort.

The Fourteenth Ohio State Conference of Charities and Correction

The Fourteenth Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Columbus, September 27-30. The attendance was large, representing almost all phases of the charitable work of the state.

In his opening address as president, the Rev. W. S. Eagleson, superintendent of the Associated Charities of Columbus, spoke upon *Intelligent Consideration the Secret of Successful Charity Work*. Reference was made to the fact that the work of conferences, state and national, is edu-

cational, and even this is in its initial stage. The literature of organized charity is very meagre. The best of it is often found in a fugitive form in the annual reports of conferences running back through a period of thirty years. Those who seek light to guide them, even yet, find no large body of literature in which is garnered the results of experience that they can appeal to as authoritative. As a department of study in our universities, the subject matter for the most part is in an unformulated state. The universi-

ties that are inaugurating departments of charities and correction, are calling on practical workers who have been trained in charity organization societies to give instruction out of their own experience in lieu of text books. Charity workers to-day in many departments must map out their own path and devise their own methods, using the principles that have been approved by the best workers. Intelligent consideration, applied to the study of the causes that lead to poverty, dependence, pauperism, crime, insanity, imbecility, suicide, consumption, various other diseases and the like will bear good results. Expert statistical work must be counted upon to lay bare the springs from which the ills and failures of humanity flow and prepare the way for their being dried up. Intelligent consideration will also make preventive work effective—the saving of humanity before it is lost. It is the only safe guide in relief work proper—both as to giving and not giving. It will secure a proper harmonious relation between the charitable agencies, that are at work; it will prevent the unnecessary multiplication of benevolent and charitable organizations, and promote wise legislation along charitable lines.

The first subject discussed at the conference proper was that of penal and reformatory institutions. Three papers were presented, one treating of *The Boys' Industrial School*, one of *The Girls' Industrial School*, and a third from the standpoint of the state reformatory on *Fundamentals in Reformatory Work*. These three institutions represent the effort the state of Ohio is making to reclaim her youths who are beginning to fall below the established standard of conduct; and in accordance with the spirit of the times, better methods of dealing with these classes are being employed than the old-fashioned method of imprisonment for a longer or shorter space according to the nature of the offense. It was well said that a wholesome, moral atmosphere is fundamental to the successful work of reformatory institutions.

Wednesday evening an address was given to the newsboys of the city, who were present in large numbers, by John E. Gunckel, president of the National and Toledo Newsboys' Association.

Reports were made on the establishment of a state institution for the care of crippled and deformed children, for which a small appropriation has been made by the legislature, and by the committee on the extension of organized charity which seeks to awaken an interest in towns where the work has not been started.

Thursday morning was given to the problems of children's homes, treating such subjects as *Advantages and Disadvantages of Placing-out Children; How Can Principles of Self-support be Instilled into Dependent Children? Are Applicants for Children over Fourteen Years of Age Desirable and Satisfactory? Everyday Problems in Our Children's Homes; The Management of Children's Homes as Observed by a County Visitor*. In the afternoon, the conference went out to the Franklin County Children's Home, and held a session there. A very interesting discussion was held on the influence of an active board of county visitors, having oversight over all the penal and benevolent institutions of the county.

On Thursday evening, a session was held on the subject of juvenile courts, addresses being made by Ernest P. Bicknell, general superintendent of the Chicago Bureau of Charities, and by the truant officer of Cleveland, Ohio, where a successful juvenile court has been in operation for two years. Judge Wildermuth of the local police court also emphasized the need of such an institution in every city.

The last section of the conference was devoted to public and private relief for the poor, the subjects discussed being the *Relation of Infirmary Directors to Relief of Needy Families in Their Homes; The Work of the District Nurse; Humane Societies; Their Relation to Delinquent Fathers; Some Lessons from the Charity Organization Movement*.

The part taken by Mr. Bicknell in the sessions added to the interest of the meeting. James F. Jackson, lately of Minneapolis, who has recently taken charge of the Associated Charities of Cleveland, is a valuable addition to Ohio's corps of charity workers. Altogether, the conference, in attendance and alertness to new thought in the field of philanthropy, gave promise of increased effectiveness.

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*Cellmates
in a Civilized
Community.*

If a bright, active, thirteen-year-old Hebrew boy, of Vineland, New Jersey, does not spend the rest of his life in vice and crime, it will not be because the people of that county, as represented by their public officials, have not done all that is possible, humanly speaking, to accomplish that result.

The people of the county, as represented, first, by a justice in Vineland, committed this boy—a truant, and doubtless somewhat incorrigible—to the county jail on October 12, to await trial before the juvenile court in January, 1905. The things that happened at the county jail are almost beyond the limits of credulity, and fairly raise the question as to whether or not this is, after all, a civilized country.

There was also committed to this jail a sullen, morose, self-confessed wife murderer. The official in charge of the jail considerably placed this thirteen-year-old boy in the same cell, making him the constant companion of the homicide. From him the boy learned the life history of another criminal who occupied a cell in the same ward three years ago for murder and arson. Across the hallway were two women prisoners who, being women, were given the freedom of the hallway, and the boy, being a boy, was also given this freedom at certain hours of the day. Of these two women, one was a street brawler about twenty years of age, and the other about thirty-five years of age, the proprietor of a disorderly house. One of these women entertained the lad by giving him the details of an earlier case, in which she had been a witness, in which a woman had been sentenced to seven years in state's prison for keeping a disorderly house. An official of the jail says that he saw the lad in the arms of one of the women.

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In some states of the Union there is a law prohibiting the commitment of boys under the age of sixteen to any prison, or place of confinement in company with adults charged with, or convicted of, crime. It is probably a safe prophecy that such a law will be enacted in New Jersey during the coming winter.

It is stated further that the boy was sent to jail, "there being no guardian or probation officer willing to care for him." What do the good people of Vineland—the pastors, the church workers, the physicians, the lawyers—think of this statement, in the light of what subsequently happened to the boy? We are not disposed to criticise them individually, but the occurrence is a painful and shocking reminder of the absence, which is only too characteristic of most communities, of a social conscience. It is easy to interest people in things that are to be done far away in other countries, or in the slums of great cities, but to do the obvious, practical, humane thing for the individual at our own doors, how few there are, we will not say who are unwilling to undertake it, but who have any realization of what needs to be done.

Clergymen, members of Christian Endeavor societies, Epworth Leagues, women's clubs, church workers, philanthropists, and good citizens generally, all ye, look into the poorhouses, jails, insane asylums, and other public institutions of your localities maintained at your expense, managed in the name of all the people, and you will find a field white for the harvest.

*Health-Drifters
in the
Southwest.*

Of the half-myths, half facts which have clustered about the holy wars of mediæval days, none lend themselves more readily to the picturesque and none more thoroughly rumple the

composure of irascible common sense than the children's crusades. There is a pathetic similarity between them and, in our present-day wars against the social causes of disease, the pilgrimage of those sick, simple folk who journey in such hopeful, hapless wise to some health-Palestine, without recking of what may befall upon reaching it, or equipping themselves for its battles.

Replicas of the conditions existing in Phoenix, Arizona, as described by Mr. Witherbee in this number of CHARITIES, are to be found in Colorado, California, New Mexico, the Carolinas, and wherever climatic conditions invite. From all of these states come protests against the barbarity of physicians who send patients in an advanced stage of tuberculosis far away from home, friends, and even medical advice, without sufficient means to supply the necessities of life. How ill-advised from economic and spiritual considerations this may be, concrete stories of invalid bread-seekers bear witness, and from a medical standpoint it is coming to be recognized how unnecessary it is to go on sluicing suffering into the arid regions of the Southwest.

Dr. Norman Bridge, of Los Angeles, in an address to the Chicago Medical Society in October on some common errors in the treatment of pulmonary tuberculosis, said that, although climatic treatment had rightly become popular the world over, yet climate, as usually employed, was one of the most unfortunate and unsatisfactory of all the remedies prescribed. In more than half of the instances it is advised for the wrong cases, or at the wrong time, or without due regard for all the circumstances in the situation.

In the same connection Dr. Bridge said that the surest proof of the skill and usefulness of a physician is his capacity to turn to the benefit of the sick the simple and homely facilities at hand; that the best results with the fewest tools is the test, and that no more inviting task was ever offered to physicians than to bring to the thousands of tuberculous victims unable to go away from home to the more favorable climates, all the benefits of modern science in the treatment of this disease.

*The Exhibits
of the Boston
Tuberculosis
Association.*

The Boston Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis is seizing every opportunity to press the campaign against consumption. Last winter it arranged for eighty-one lectures in churches, schools, settlements, clubs, and before labor unions, and distributed 70,000 leaflets through the same agencies. It is now meeting with success in a new field of effort. Encouraged by the interest shown in a small exhibit held on the Hawthorne Club playground in July, it placed a larger and more complete exhibit at the fair given in Mechanics' Hall, during October. Crowds have been attracted to the fair by the music, commercial exhibits and side shows, but withal they seem quite open to instruction.

The tuberculosis exhibit was made possible by the hearty co-operation of friends of the movement throughout the country. It consists of a ten by twelve foot Ulrich tent (described in CHARITIES, August 20) with complete furnishings for a patient; models of other tents and shacks, reclining chairs, sleeping bags and other devices that impress the importance of fresh air; photographs and charts illustrating the leading sanatoria; cuspidors and other sanitary appliances; statistical charts from the Maryland commission, the New York and the local boards of health; and the literature published by the different American and Canadian societies and committees organized to combat tuberculosis. The booth has been attractive to the eye and few have passed without entering and studying more or less carefully its contents. Of especial interest has been an exhibit from the Massachusetts State Sanatorium at Rutland. Many of those seeing it have spoken to relatives and friends who had taken treatment there. Even the apparent failures of the sanatorium have their value in the fight against tuberculosis, as witness the following from a young woman: "My father was one of the first patients in Rutland. He was too far gone to be cured, but they helped him so that he lived three years, and I tell you none of the rest of the family will ever have consumption, for when he came home he certainly put us through our paces and taught us how to take care of ourselves!"

A bit of local color could be detected in the notice beginning "The Board of Health has adjudged that the deposit of sputum in public places is a nuisance." In deference to delegates to the peace conference and visitors generally, it might have been desirable to translate this order. By the same token, it assuredly was not a native Bostonian who, after studying the exhibit carefully, exclaimed in a relieved tone: "Oh, I see now! tuberculosis, that's the same thing as sleeping out of doors!"

*The "Hands"
of the
Lake Freighters.*

In the cities of the Great Lakes the "hands"—freight handlers and roustabouts—form a socially neglected and morally degenerate class differing in some respects from any found in the inland centers or the sea ports. Industrially they stand by themselves, a grade above the vagrant, but deprived by the haphazard conditions of their occupation from any benefits of labor organization such as characterize the longshoremen and teamsters, or of fixed employment. Their moral and physical condition is well described in this issue by Harry E. Hammond of the University of Michigan, who knows them first hand as do many college men, through a summer's employment under the steward of a lake vessel. At the instigation of Prof. C. H. Cooley, Mr. Hammond made a special study of their conditions of living.

Drunkards they are for the most part, sensual, brutalized, living from hand to mouth, content with to-day's soggy food and the small wages which provide a debauch for the morrow. But to the social student the spectacle is more pitiful than revolting. It calls for a better order of things below decks and ashore, for the application to dark, vermin-ridden, unsocial forecastles of measures similar to those which have let light and air and decency into the double-decker tenements. The forward hatch must be pried off and what would amount to nautical departments of health and of housing and regenerating social forces put at work.

Mr. Hammond's observations make plain that these men, at least those of his experience, are men on a downward road. Very rarely are they young men making a start in life. For such, of even slight ambition, there are better paid positions

in the regular crews, their standing marked by uniform and the doing of an allotted task in the ship's economy. The "hands" are mere day laborers, possessing a minimum amount of physical strength, some small degree of skill in wheeling a loaded truck up a steep and narrow gangway, and of manual dexterity in passing light freight down long lines from hand to hand. No more is required or expected of them. They work for six or eight months of the year, perhaps a little longer, at an occupation that is governed not only by the season, but by the cargo secured for each trip. They do not make up a fixed complement of hands for any boat or any line, but are employed from trip to trip as the tonnage demands. But—and right here lies a significant fact—they do work for their poor food and wretched bunks and for the money spent, however unwisely, between jobs. They are one grade above that stream of homeless, unattached men who entirely avoid work—the offcasts depicted in the Chicago municipal lodging-house by Superintendent Raymond Robbins as "the human sewage in the dark channels of the under-world." In his address before the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Portland, it was told how little can be done for this "industrial and social waste." And it is to join this hopeless army that the steamboat hands hurry on. From the walks of steady work and self-dependent effort, dissipation drives them to the steamer's hold. A few seasons there, alternate days of grinding manual work and sloth, of a summer of strain and a winter of decay, lead quickly on to the debauch which marks the complete breakdown of body and will.

There is encouragement from one source. The building of larger and faster boats, carrying valuable cargoes and sailing on fixed schedules to attract passengers, has displaced to a certain extent the grimy freighter which carried a few passengers at the captain's mess. The time seems ripe for the public spirit of the lake ports to strike a blow at the conditions inherited from a ruder order, and to demand for the man afloat at least the minimum of sanitary surroundings and social outlook which are promised his fellows ashore.

The Keynote of the National Child Labor Committee. At the request of the Pennsylvania state committee, and other bodies, the National Child Labor Committee has begun an investigation of the conditions affecting child labor in certain industries of Pennsylvania, and is preparing to carry this investigation into other states where local committees request it and are able and willing to co-operate. Special schedules, on which information may be recorded, have been prepared, and will be furnished to volunteers who are willing to fill them out for children residing in their respective communities. This information will be verified and supplemented, if possible, by personal visits by the executive secretaries of the committee to the more important industrial districts.

The active co-operation and assistance of the committee has been enlisted in the presentation of legislative measures at the coming sessions of the state legislatures in Pennsylvania, Missouri, Kansas, and other states, this winter; also in obtaining a suitable law for the District of Columbia; and in the states of Louisiana, Georgia and Iowa where legislation recently pending was defeated, and where a determined effort is to be made to present the merits of the issue to the public at large and thus to arouse public opinion in its support.

Investigation of every possible phase of the situation, and of every local consideration, determining the kind of legislation needed, if any, is the key-note of the national committee. There is a greater danger of acting too hastily than of not acting at all, and the need for investigation and for accurate information, even if real evils are thereby corrected more slowly, will be urged by the national committee in all the work it undertakes. It is engaged at present in a wide range of correspondence with persons in different parts of the country, and will endeavor to recommend, in every community where the evils of child labor are found, the local organization of representative men and women, with whom it can co-operate in ascertaining the true facts and to whom it can look for guidance with respect to local needs. When once the right course has been determined and

a standard suitable to the local conditions involved has been set up in behalf of the welfare of the whole community, the fight for its attainment will be one without fear or favor, and without cessation, no matter what the difficulties encountered, or the special interests antagonized, until the victory is won.

Of the broad campaign of education planned by the National Child Labor Committee, mention will be found in the department on prints and publications.

An Economic Aim Given the Public School.

A real service is rendered by Julia Richman, district superintendent of schools on the lower East side of New York city, in calling attention to the effect of child-labor legislation on the public school curriculum. In her article printed in this issue of CHARITIES and entitled, *What Can Be Done in a Graded School for the Backward Child*, she tells of the causes that gave rise to the formation of nineteen special classes, not counting three ungraded classes of mentally or physically defective children, for the backward children in the two school districts under her supervision. She had previously estimated that there were 1,719 children in school in these districts who would not be able to attain at the age of fourteen the scholastic standard which is required by law. That the child is fourteen must be certified to by the health authorities, before he can be granted a work certificate or permit. The educational authorities, however, must certify to and interpret the educational qualifications demanded by the New York laws which require that the child must be able to read fluently and write easy sentences in English, have had instruction in specified subjects and is familiar with the fundamental processes of arithmetic up to and including fractions. The local school authorities regard the legal educational requirement as equivalent to passing through successfully their 5A grade. Miss Richman shows that to do this the duller children, and those of foreign parents who have had less experience in the public schools, or who have special difficulties of language, etc., to overcome, must be organized into special classes, presumably smaller classes, with more elaborate courses of study and

their time and attention concentrated upon the fundamental and important things enumerated in the law.

If child-labor legislation can succeed in placing the age limit high enough and in making educational qualifications ample enough to give the public school a definite economic aim, through the value attached to its certificate or diploma, somewhat analogous to the definite meaning and value that attach to the diploma of a professional, law, medical or technical school, we shall have won greater benefits for the public at large than even the advocates of child-labor restriction have dared to expect. We shall attain a double end, namely, the protection of the right to childhood by the elimination of the child from among the toilers where he does not belong, and the fuller realization of the privileges of childhood, through a sounder and better adapted system of education. The aim and end of the public school curriculum, for the boy of fourteen at least, will be much more definite than it is at present and this fact will have a wholesome effect on the results attained for children in all grades and at all ages. What the public demands as a minimum standard of intellectual attainment and is prepared to guarantee to boys who must or wish to go to work at fourteen, should be definitely known and should serve as a practical guide in the better adjustment of our whole public school system.

The seventeenth annual report of the Melbourne Charity Organization Society contains the statement that its quarterly publication, *The Charity Review*, surveys, "as limits will permit, the world of charity from California to Japan." To a provincial-minded New Yorker, the field as described may seem sufficiently restricted to allow of intensive cultivation, unless California is understood to be its western boundary, whence it extends eastward to Japan. But reference to the map reveals a creditable variety of social conditions in the entire continent and some thousands of islands which lie between California and Japan as you travel west, howbeit the section of the globe which contains them is relatively narrow; and the Australian states and

New Zealand, especially, are using, for the solution of social problems with which we are struggling, methods of which we are as yet only dreaming. On the whole, it is no mean territory covered by the Melbourne society's organ.

There are many interesting features in the report of the year's work. Among these is the mention made of a Committee on Inebriety, whose object is the establishment of a "receiving-house" and a farm colony for inebriates. From another section of the report it appears that the deserting husband is a trying element in Australia, as he is in New York and Boston, and the society reports that it has succeeded in bringing back men even from South Africa, to a tardy recognition of their obligations.

Causes of Distress—Australia.

The analysis of the causes of distress among the 599 new families coming under the society's care during the year shows some striking variations from similar analyses in American cities: "want of work," for example, is charged with forty per cent of the destitution, and drink with only 4.7 per cent. Some light is thrown on the extremely high percentage which, in spite of the "improved conditions generally" noted in another connection, is attributed to lack of work, by the knowledge that the society maintains an employment office. During the year work was found "467 times for 164 individuals," of whom a certain proportion were not able-bodied and a certain proportion not efficient. The very fact that, on the average, positions had to be found three times for each individual helped in this way is significant of the character of labor placed. If the normal individual, in an economic sense, is one who is able to find his work as well as to do it, then the real cause of distress in many of these cases would be some physical defect or moral or mental incompetency rather than "lack of work." Recent arrival in the country is enumerated as a cause of distress, but this is a category which would doubtless be obliterated by a further analysis. "Imprisonment of the breadwinner" is, rather curiously, not included under the heading "crime or dishonesty." Old age is recognized as a legitimate cause of distress,

but only 2.5 per cent of the distribution of the year is attributed to it, which seems evidence that in assigning causes it was not misused.

A Bay-Side Park for Baltimore. Progress has been made in Baltimore towards the acquirement of a bay-side park along lines indicated in the discussion of water-front beaches taken up in the August magazine number of CHARITIES. A special city council committee has reported in its favor, some ten possible sites being suggested, ranging in area from 70 acres to 353, perhaps two-thirds of them being on the bay shore and the remainder on the Patapsco river. The report estimates that the appropriation necessary to purchase the site and start its preliminary development will be \$30,000, an amount which can come out of the balance of the Clifton Park loan. Following the reading of the report before the council an ordinance was introduced to give effect to its provisions and was referred to the Board of Public Improvements.

After visiting the suggested sites the committee "concluded that such a park controlled and policed as our other parks are will be of inestimable benefit to the people as a place, free of all objectionable features, where all may breathe the health-laden and invigorating air of the Chesapeake, where salt-water bathing may be enjoyed, the art of swimming learned and other pleasures indulged in that a waterside park only can offer."

In the committee's opinion the site should be one available by both land and water, at a fare not to exceed ten cents for the round trip; the city to build an electric line to it itself if no company will undertake the project; and special municipal park cars or trains to run from the center of the city without stops, and to be made unavailable for the "objectionable characters frequenting river resorts along the way." But above all the committee "urgently recommends that the site be on the bay or very near it, as more benefit from salt water and pure air is assured thereby" and as, in the case of other cities, "the water-front parks have become by far the most popular."

Encouraging Opening of the Boston School for Social Workers. The Boston School for Social Workers, maintained by Simmons College and Harvard University, was opened early in October with a class of twenty-seven. Fifteen of these give all their working time to the school and to work done outside, with the approval of the instructors. That work is now divided about equally between the Associated Charities and leading settlements. Of these regular students, thirteen are women, two are men. The other students, classed as specials, twelve in number, of whom nine are women and three are men, are persons regularly employed in some form of social work which takes much of their time. These attend two exercises a week, the combined lectures and conferences which cover the general course of study. They bring much of value from their varied experiences. Six of the regular students plan to follow some form of social work as a profession; the others expect to work more or less as volunteers. The spirit and intelligence of the class is very encouraging to the management.

In addition to the two exercises a week attended by all, there are, for the regular students, a study class once a week, for which a good deal of reading is done, and in which there is discussion of the lessons from the reading and from observation and experience; and once a week a class for the solution of particular problems of method. Among these will be dealings with groups of persons of marked racial traits, and with needy families and individuals, whose identity is not revealed, but whose histories are well known to the persons presenting the particular problems. In addition, there are occasional visits to selected institutions, which illustrate important points, made under the guidance of specialists.

The special aim of the school is to lay a foundation on which persons may build, in any special field. The instructors work with the students, all helping each to think more accurately and get a broader view. The topics so far taken up have been the aim of social service; the worker, preparation and purpose; leading principles underlying all social work; improvement of general conditions of living; by community action and voluntary action. The

next general topic is neighborhood improvement in city and country. The first three topics were dealt with by the director, Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett. The weekly study class is lead by the associate, Miss Zilpha D. Smith. In the treatment of special subjects upon the improvement of general conditions of living, and neighborhood improvement, leading specialists have addressed the class. Among them have been the chairman of the Boston Board of Health, Dr. Durgin, Robert A. Woods, Mrs. Florence Kelley, of New York, and Miss Mary E. McDowell, of Chicago.

*Boys in
Coal Mines—
Illinois.*

Edgar T. Davies, the energetic chief inspector of factories and workshops of Illinois, has long insisted that the statute of 1903 forbidding the employment of children under sixteen years of age in dangerous occupations, applies to mines and to children employed in them. This contention has now been sustained by Judge Puterbaugh of the appellate court of Illinois in a decision which affects every coal mine in the state, and seems, therefore, of sufficient importance to warrant somewhat extended explanation.

His decision is to the effect that coal mines come under the prohibitions of the child-labor law, and he declares that boys between the ages of 14 and 16 cannot be employed in them. The decision came in the appeal of William Struther, of Macoupin County, who had been fined in the circuit court for employing in his mines boys under the age of sixteen years. The penalty was imposed under Section 11 of the child-labor law, which provides that children between the ages of 14 and 16 shall not be employed at certain specified work, nor in any work which is dangerous to life, health or morals.

In opposition to this, Section 22 of the general mining law provides that boys over fourteen years of age may be employed in mines under certain conditions. It was this section which Mr. Struther, as a mine operator, claimed that he had complied with and relied upon, for his defence. Both sides admitted that mining is a dangerous occupation. Here, then, were two state laws in conflict. Judge Puterbaugh held that the legislature did

not contemplate exempting coal mines from the general applications of the child-labor law and that the operation of the latter nullified Section 22 of the general mining law.

*How the Matter
Stands in
Pennsylvania.*

This action of the inspectors and judge in Illinois is in cheering contrast to the attitude taken in Pennsylvania in connection with a case now appealed to the supreme court. Judge Shafer of Allegheny County held that what is known as the "mine boys' law" which prohibits boys under sixteen years from working underground, is unconstitutional on what would seem to be gratuitous technicalities. State Mine Inspector Roderick, while enforcing the law, pending the appeal of the case, in all counties save Allegheny, published in his annual report a recommendation in favor of "a revision of the law to make the ages of boys of 13 or 14 respectively for outside and inside work," on the ground that "the law is undoubtedly working a hardship to the widows of many of the mine workers killed in this state." In other words, Inspector Roderick would hurry the children of widows to underground work at the age of fourteen for the sole purpose of relieving adults of the community from the burden of maintaining the widows and the orphans of men, their fathers, dead at their posts.

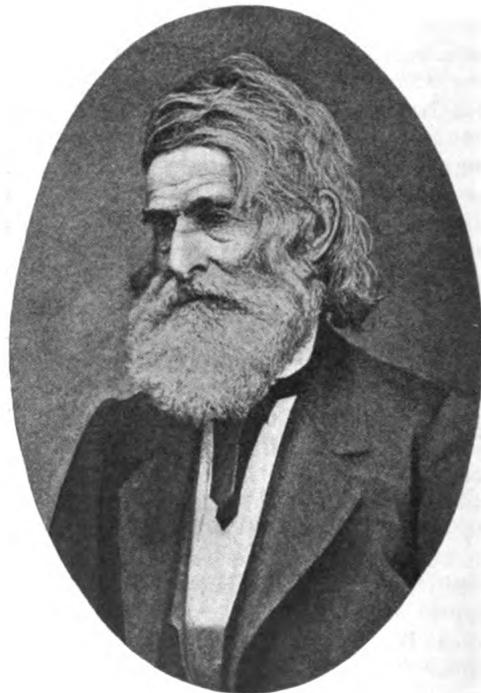
To shut children out from the mines is to stop at its source one stream of crippled and tuberculous industrial population, and the people of Illinois will year by year reap the advantage of their humane and enlightened action in this preventive direction. It is much to be hoped that the coming legislature of Pennsylvania may have for its guidance the decision of the highest court in the case appealed from Judge Shafer's decision; or failing this, that it may re-enact the enlightened principles embodied in the present protective measure, using a title so clear as to prevent any annulment on purely technical grounds.

Finally, the friends of the working children in Pennsylvania have a valuable field of activity awaiting them in providing scholarships for the young orphans of the perished miners, and in enlightening the mind of Inspector Roderick.

Pioneers of the First State Boards of Charities



FRANK B. SANBORN,
Massachusetts



SAMUEL G. HOWE,
Massachusetts



THEODORE W. DWIGHT,
New York

*From pictures taken in the formative years of the
movement.*

Pioneer Work in American Philanthropy

A Series of Reminiscences by Frontiersmen in Some of the Larger
Humanitarian Movements in this Country

Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES.

I.

The First State Boards of Charities

F. B. Sanborn

Concord, Mass.

It is the privilege of age to descant freely on the superior virtues of men in past generations; and Nestor was an instance, rather than an exception, when he told his younger comrades at the siege of Troy, that he never had seen, nor should see, such brave men as went on campaigns with him in former years. Even the unheroic Falstaff was once led to remark, "There live not three good men unchanged in all England; and one of them is fat and grows old." It is not exactly my condition; but the years speed by so fast, that we, who saw the first installation of boards of public charities in America, must take each opportunity to tell our more youthful successors what they were and what they did.

Our great Civil War was responsible for many evils, temporary or lasting; but also for some excellent benefits. It occasioned a wonderful quickening of the sympathetic affections, and taught men, long dissevered by distance or difference of opinion, to co-operate with each other. It also taught, as nothing else had done, the need of close and exact organization, since matters were to be handled in a large way; and this was specially true of charities and of correctional establishments. We had then in Massachusetts as governor a man of sympathetic and organizing nature, John Albion Andrew, and it was he who devised the plan for the first board of state charities, by that name (so far as I know), in the world—certainly the first in America. It was the year 1863, and he was aided in his purpose by a few of his legal and philanthropic friends in Boston, particularly by P. W. Chandler, Dr. S. G. Howe and Dr. H. B. Wheelwright, and his pastor, Dr. James Free-

man Clarke. The bill was drawn by Messrs. Andrew and Chandler and readily passed the legislature, where was the need of a board to take better supervision of the poor, the immigrants, the convicts and the insane, gathered in some forty public establishments, or entering the state by sea and land, and then lacking a general oversight and statistical presentation in yearly reports. This last point was much in Governor Andrew's mind, and when he appointed me first secretary of the new board, in September, 1863, and I had taken the oath of office, in my thirty-second year, he gave me special instructions looking to a broader collection of statistics than I was ever able to achieve. So considerable was the administrative and historical work devolving on me, in the three special departments of pauperism, crime and insanity, that it soon became so out of my power to pursue the inquiries desired on the questions of labor and capital, that a new special commission of labor was created, on which I served a single year (1865-66) as unpaid secretary.

My associates on the Board of State Charities were six gentlemen from different parts of Massachusetts, of whom three (Nathan Allen, Robert T. Davis and Henry B. Wheelwright) had a medical education, and three, at first, were merchants or manufacturers (Otis Norcross, Edward Earle and Theodore Metcalf). A lawyer (J. C. Blaisdell) was soon added in place of Dr. Davis, and late in 1864, Dr. Howe, "the Cadmus of the blind," as Whittier termed him, a philanthropist of experience in many lines of activity. He took the place of Mr. Norcross, and thus restored medicine to its leading place in the board. At this early date there were no state boards of health, lunacy

commissioners, or prison commissions in Massachusetts; our board had to fulfil, in a manner, all those functions. Dr. Allen, a wise old practicing physician, without much facility of expression, soon gave way to Dr. Howe, a man of genius, gifted in putting his thought into words, as chairman of the board, while I retained place as secretary for five years, and my energetic colleague, Henry Wheelwright, was executive officer (general agent) for the same period. These three (Howe, Wheelwright and Sanborn) formed the executive committee of the board, and naturally took the lead in its business; but we were heartily supported by the other four, and in that five years, from October 1863 to October 1868, accomplished much, that, as I look back upon it, seems very difficult to have been done in so short a period. We had little to guide us but our own experience, for no other such board was created till 1867, when New York and Ohio followed our example, but rather tentatively for a year; yet the native genius of Howe supplied us with principles, and the tact and energy of Wheelwright enabled us to put them into operation, or prepare the way for them later. Each one of the first boards, down to 1872, which then included Rhode Island, Pennsylvania and Illinois (1869) and Wisconsin and Michigan (1871) contained in their first membership men of this organizing and persuasive sort—such as Mr. Letchworth, Professor Dwight and Dr. Hoyt in New York; Mr. Andrews, Mr. Byers and General Brinkerhoff in Ohio; Mr. Wines in Illinois; George L. Harrison in Pennsylvania; Mr. Elmore, Mr. Giles and Professor Wright in Wisconsin, and Judge Walker and Bishop Gillespie in Michigan—to name no others.

*At the Close
of the
Civil War.*

When Cicero complimented Julius Cæsar on the immense task he must undertake, in resuscitating the republic and its provinces, after the wasting years of warfare, he said, "You must raise up and support all those institutions that now lie prostrate under the assault of war. Reconstitute the tribunals, restore public credit, restrain license, encourage families! Whatever is disorganized and going to ruin, your strict de-

crees must bind together." On a much smaller arena, but in something like the same disorder, were found the public charities, even of an old and well-ordered state like Massachusetts, in the midst of armies, and soon after their disbanding. There had been no invasion, as in Pennsylvania and Ohio; but many new inhabitants were entering our borders, from the South, from Canada, and from Europe to take the place of those drawn off by war; those, many of them, never to return, or coming back wounded, enfeebled, insane or inebriate, or with their moral fibre weakened or ruined by the lax régime of armies, or the indulgence shown to active service. The older laws of charity and penalty had been slackly enforced, and the general facts to be gathered from the official returns were not to be relied on. The whole system of state almshouses, established on a large scale ten years earlier, during active immigration, needed revision; and the classification of inmates in those four establishments was quite unsatisfactory. My first task then was to acquire the facts, historical and economic, in view of which my colleagues must act, in supervising and investigating the forty public hospitals, asylums, almshouses, schools, prisons, etc., which the state had put under our oversight; and in forming some conclusion concerning the management and cost of the 214 city and town almshouses and the poor-law administration of all the 332 towns and cities of Massachusetts. These, as being legally connected with the state poor-law system, must be understood before the whole subject could be grasped and reasoned upon. This preliminary work was done, with considerable labor, by the two salaried officers of the board, and presented in 450 pages of print at the end of a year. Meantime the board were carrying on a special inquiry into the merits and defects of the state almshouses and were prepared, at the end of sixteen months, to recommend definite measures, which were all gradually adopted, and are the basis of the legislation of the forty years since.

Still another inquiry was carried along by the secretary alone, in regard to prisons and penal law; and a report on this subject, covering 141 printed pages, with

copious statistics, was put before the legislature and the public ere a year and a half had expired from the date of our appointment. In all, more than 660 pages of solid history, reasoning and statistics, bearing directly on the complete reorganization of the public charitable and correctional system, were thus put within the reach of thinking men and women, with a result that naturally followed. The lawmaking power, slowly convinced, or relying on the authority of men supposed to know the facts, put in motion a change of statutes, which, followed up for ten or fifteen years, gave in substance the form of law, and took official administration, in what had been the careful conclusion of half a dozen thinkers and practical men, with the existing facts before them.

*Dr. Howe's
More Radical
Measures.*

At this point of time, say about March, 1865, the subtle and powerful influence of a man with a genius for public and private charity, Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, began to influence the board to more radical conceptions and measures. Becoming chairman of the board, and having influence with successive governors of the state, from his known success in whatever work of philanthropy he undertook, Dr. Howe diverged a little from the previous course of his colleagues. This had been chiefly to restore the excellent old theory of our laws to its proper function in practice—adapting it to changed conditions, and the shifting of population from country to city and village, and the influx of immigrants, much stimulated by the close of the war. Dr. Howe had proved his capacity for devising charitable methods, nearly forty years earlier, when, as a young surgeon in revolutionary Greece, he had to distribute alms to hundreds of hungry and ragged widows and orphans on the island Aegina. He there conceived and put in practice the principles of relief that are now recognized in all enlightened lands; and he had studied carefully ever since, in foreign countries and his own New England, the vital and safe maxims of philanthropy. Among these his cardinal maxim was that the family, and not the overgrown asylum or school, was the best place for the child

to be trained, the patients to be nursed, and the harmless lunatic to be cared for—in case these subjects of care were suitable for family life. On this point Dr. Howe held that more could be received into households than was then the practice, and that nothing but trying the experiment would prove how many were suitable. In his first report as chairman (January 20, 1866), he set forth these and similar views at much length, and the board unanimously accepted them; but rather as theoretically sound, than practically applicable. In illustrating them, Dr. Howe, briefly, favored teaching the deaf to articulate and associating the insane more with sane persons than was usual in the existing crowded asylums. On these two special points, controversies at once arose; the friends of the sign language for the deaf taking the alarm, and opposing articulation as a method; while the physicians in lunatic asylums generally denounced Dr. Howe as visionary.

The subject of teaching the deaf was then actively taken up by the board, and by the friends of Dr. Howe and his deceased comrade, Horace Mann, who had warmly favored articulation. A benevolent citizen of Massachusetts signified to the state government that he was ready to endow a school, in which Massachusetts children could be taught without sending them to the Hartford school, or leaving the state limits. The idea found favor; the legislature of 1867 chartered such a school at Northampton; Mr. Clarke, its founder, chose by preference the method of articulation; and the very successful Clarke School, now in its thirty-eighth year, is the result. In the same year, 1867, the board procured the establishment of a private charity, the Massachusetts Infant Asylum, which has had great success in saving the lives of motherless and deserted infants; and it also created, under the direction of the board, a visiting agency for the older children placed out from pauper schools, reform schools and almshouses.

In a previous year, one state almshouse had been converted to a primary school in which the children were to be called pupils and not paupers, and a second almshouse had been converted to a state workhouse for vagrant and vicious per-

sons sent in as paupers. These distinctions, so early made, have been kept up, except that the progress of Dr. Howe's idea of placing poor children in families, at service or as boarders was so constant that the state primary school became depleted, and was given up many years ago. Soon after my resignation as secretary, I was appointed an unpaid member of the board, and in 1874 succeeded Dr. Howe as chairman. His last act in that capacity was to set on foot an inquiry into the improper management of the one remaining state almshouse at Tewksbury; this I followed up, and with the support of the board succeeded in reforming it, and making it a hospital rather than a poorhouse. I mention this, however, as a result rather than the direct fruit of the first general policy of the Massachusetts board.

In New York and Pennsylvania. The New York board had a stronger membership in some directions, but had not the one man of special genius like Dr. Howe. For its different purpose it had, however, as the Pennsylvania board had, a philanthropist of Quaker antecedents—W. P. Letchworth in New York, George L. Harrison in Pennsylvania—who expended upon the work of their boards their own money liberally, as well as the resources of their trained and beneficent minds. To Mr. Letchworth is largely due the removal of children from the county almshouses of New York, and a general improvement in their architecture. He also collected by travel, inspection and correspondence, a great mass of useful information about the insane and their treatment, which long afterward was published in a valuable volume. Mr. Harrison did a similar work for Pennsylvania, and his board was mainly instrumental, as his successors have been and are, in improving the care of the insane, which still remain under the general oversight of the Board of Public Charities. Dr. C. S. Hoyt, long the secretary of the New York board, busied himself in many ways to advance its work, and was particularly active in removing from the state, without hardship, hundreds of the poor whose homes were elsewhere. Prof. T. W. Dwight, an eminent jurist, had the

prisons of New York more especially under his observation, but was also active, and a wise counsellor of the board, in its extensive general business.

Early Days in Ohio, Illinois and Rhode Island. The Ohio board accomplished little at first, its fearless inquiry into abuses having provoked animosity enough to secure its abolition for a time. It was re-established by Governor Hayes, afterward president, in 1876, and has been very effective since. The Rhode Island board of which Mayor Doyle, of Providence, and Dr. E. M. Snow, the sanitarian, were the first most active members, and soon Prof. G. I. Chace, has combined supervision with the daily administration of state establishments of various sorts, on a single farm near Providence; and the small size of the state makes this feasible. From the first it has been an efficient and progressive body.

Illinois was so fortunate as to have for its first and long-continuing secretary, F. H. Wines, who had by inheritance and training much fitness for the early work. As in Massachusetts, this was at first the collection of data; but soon the question arose how to provide for the fast increasing insane. Mr. Wines was instrumental in planting a new form of asylum construction in the states west of the lakes; the Kankakee Hospital was built in the form of a village, and free from the stereotyped architecture that had dominated such asylums till then. Its merits were more obvious while it was small, than in its present overgrown mass; but it operated a change for the better, and was typical of the broad spirit which long inspired the Illinois board, and led it to co-operate with the Wisconsin board in that union which prepared the way for the National Conference of Charities, so powerful an instrument in advancing the principles of public charity.

In Wisconsin and Michigan. The Wisconsin board, from its formation in 1871 till it was superseded by a less efficient body, the Board of Control, had strong men and women for its members, and a practical method of organizing the local charities of the counties, and combining them with the

**Pioneers of the First
State Boards of Charities**

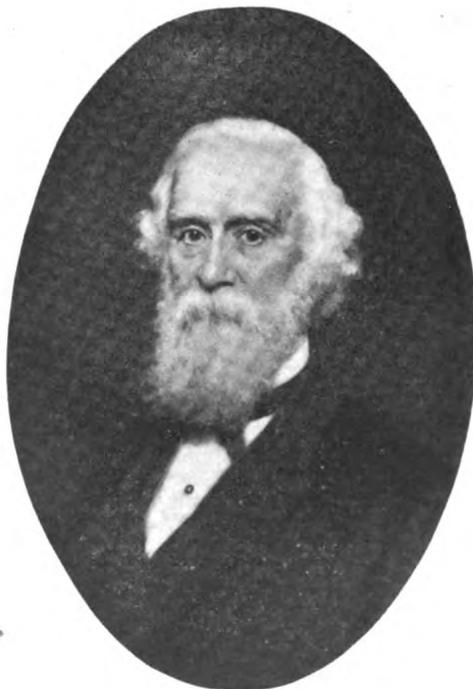
FREDERICK H. WINES,
Illinois



ANDREW E. ELMORE,
Wisconsin



GEORGE L. HARRISON,
Wisconsin



*From pictures taken in the formative years of the
movement.*

state's activity, especially in regard to the care of the insane. The leaders in this work, which came to a head and took the sanction of law in 1881, were Andrew E. Elmore, still living at the age of ninety, and Henry H. Giles, long since dead. They were ably seconded by their colleagues; but the rare persuasiveness and wonderful good sense of Mr. Elmore, and the persistency and clearness of mind in Mr. Giles, were the indispensable qualities for the establishment of the Wisconsin system of insane classification, which makes their state unique among the forty-five that compose the Union. Pennsylvania has adopted its principle, but with some modifications, and perhaps without that automatic efficiency of administration which I ascribe to the shrewd wisdom of my good friend Elmore. Its chief function is so to distribute the insane of the whole state, now approaching 5,000 in number, that the curative state hospitals shall seldom be crowded, and the separate localities shall have the bulk of their chronic insane within easy reach of their friends, and on large farms, where their labor can be usefully employed, both for their better health, and for their partial support. The cost of this arrangement is so ingeniously divided between the state and the counties that both parties profit by it, and desire it to continue. It is this which gives what I call "automatic efficiency" to the system.

Michigan did not long enjoy the services of Judge Walker, who with Mr. Brockway,

then resident in Michigan, was one of the early promoters of the board's organization there. But this state has had, from first to last, singularly good and equable fortune in the membership of its board. Its State Public School at Coldwater, following the general scheme of the Massachusetts Primary School at Monson, but improving much upon that, was the early work of the Michigan board.

Much more might be said, were there space or need, of the pioneer work of the early state boards. I have dwelt most upon Massachusetts, where the work is best known to me; not because I esteem that the best example in all things, but because it was first in the field, had the most varied duties, and was early able to reorganize the main system there. I never worked harder, in a long life by no means idle, than in the first two or three years of that Boston board; nor did we ever accomplish more permanent results, in a shorter time, than during the first four years. I ascribe this to a happy combination of diverse talents in the membership; we were either young and hopeful of good, or else aged with ripe experience, and were unanimously good-natured and tolerant of ignorance and dulness; which, if malice is not joined thereto, or self-seeking, are rather aids and securities for permanence in reformations, than distressing hindrances. Brilliant egotism and uneasy alarm at the prominence of other men are far worse obstacles to every form of good government.

Fellow Inmates of a New Jersey Cell

A SELF-CONFESSED WIFE MURDERER AND A THIRTEEN-YEAR-OLD BOY

The Philadelphia *Ledger* of October 23 published a dispatch from Bridgeton, N. J., in regard to a self-confessed murderer, in which was the following paragraph:

Frank Rasinger is apparently the least interested person in the arrangements planned for the forthcoming legal battle. He eats but little, talks less, and not once has he mentioned the name of the woman he killed. A playful schoolboy, eleven-year-old Morris Mittnex, is his cellmate. The boy, a sturdy, bright little fellow, was brought to Bridgeton from Millville for playing truant at school. He and the wife murderer converse but little, as Rasinger spends most

of his time in either pacing his cell or sitting moodily on the side of his bunk.

Apparently the staff correspondent who sent this information, the desk editor who wrote the headlines for it, and the readers of the *Ledger* have seen in this paragraph in which the name of the eleven-year-old boy is given, only an interesting phase of the story of the murderer. It does not appear that the relation of an eleven-year-old boy to the incident has called forth any editorial comment, any indignant correspondence from the newspaper's readers, or even any discipline or rebuke

from the state or county officials, to whom the jailer is presumably responsible.

In order that unwarranted currency might not be given to what appeared to be an utterly incredible story of cruelty and thoughtlessness, CHARITIES, with the co-operation of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, has made an independent investigation at Bridgeton; at Millville, where the boy was said to have resided; and at Vineland, where it was found that the boy really lives.

The name given in the paragraph quoted from the *Ledger* is not that of the boy, but of his stepfather. The boy's real name is withheld for the reason that he has already had more publicity than his offense deserves. Of him it is enough to say that he is a bright, active, red-headed, thirteen-year-old Hebrew lad. For three months in the summer of 1903, when he must have been eleven or twelve years of age, he worked for the Western Union Telegraph Company, in Philadelphia, earning from \$4 to \$5 a week, not counting extras in tips. He was discharged from this position, being unwilling to accept work in the office which would have paid him nearly as much, but was without tips.

In January of this year, the boy was taken before the juvenile court for breaking windows in a mission house on South Street, Philadelphia, at which time he was placed on probation, and the reports signed by his teacher indicates that until April, at least, he did well in school. In April the family moved to Vineland, the stepfather not being able to get steady work. Morris attended school a few days in the spring, running away from home to Philadelphia several times in the summer, remaining for several days at a time and then sending to his mother for money to go home. He attended school for only five days after the opening of the fall term, and on October 12 he was arrested and tried before Justice Walter Scott Brown for violation of the school law, the complaint being made by the superintendent and truant officer of the Vineland schools.

Morris pleaded guilty. His teacher testified at that time and has reiterated to the representative of CHARITIES, that the boy smoked on the school premises, that he carried dice, and was a disturb-

ing element in her class, but that he had done nothing particularly bad. The truant officer testified that he had called on the parents who told him that they were unable to control Morris; that he would stay out nights, and away at meal times. In conversation the officer said that it is his impression that the stepfather was rough with the boy and the mother too indulgent. The lad speaks fairly good English, and it is possible that the parents—who are comparatively recent immigrants—are conscious of a growing difference between themselves and the boy.

At the trial, the night officer testified that he had seen Morris on the streets as late as 12 and 1 o'clock, smoking cigarettes; the stepfather, that he was beyond their control; and the mother, that she had given up trying to control him, that she had previously sent him to a school for incorrigibles in Philadelphia, and now asked that he be placed in some school where he would be under restraint. Morris himself testified that he had been in the habit of staying out late at night.

Thus far, there is nothing exceptional about the story. It is obvious that the boy was on a downward track; that he had perhaps gotten beyond the disciplinary powers of his own family, and that, if one can speak of legal responsibility at his age, he was guilty as charged, of violating the school law. It is the second and third chapters that become interesting.

The justice's court found Morris guilty. *There being no guardian or probation officer willing to care for him, he was sent to the county jail to await trial in the juvenile court to be held in January.* That is the second chapter, and now for the third.

It appears that the prison regulations provide that children of tender years must not be lodged with common criminals. The turnkey at Bridgeton, being desirous of scrupulously observing this requirement, on becoming the boy's custodian, decided not to put him in the tiers where common criminals are confined, but in the third tier where a choice collection of very *uncommon* criminals are to be found. It is justice to say that the only occupants of this tier when Morris was placed there were two common prostitutes, the two

murderers mentioned, hereafter, having come in later.

From October 12 until Friday evening, October 28, that is, for sixteen days, Morris was in the constant company of the most degraded criminals. He was a cellmate of Rasinger who is on trial for the murder of his wife, and who does not deny his guilt. From this companion, Morris learned the life history of Job Williams who occupied a cell in the same ward three years ago for murder and arson. Another of the boy's jail-fellows was a man named Abel, a wife murderer and an attempted suicide. Abel was in the hospital ward, and whenever the sheriff released Morris from his cell, he "sneaked round" to see Abel. That he had seen him on the day of his discharge was evident from the boy's remark—"Abel was feeling more comfortable when he left Friday."

Across the hallway two women of the lowest character were imprisoned. One of these—a girl of twenty years—talked with him, relating in full the details of the Broadway case, in which she had been a witness. Broadway had been sentenced to seven years in state's prison for keeping a disorderly house. Another woman, thirty-five years of age, was in this ward for the same offense. These women were given the freedom of the hallway, and the truant, *because he was a young boy*, was likewise given this freedom at certain hours of the day. The under-sheriff says that he saw Morris in the arms of one of these women. When questioned by the under-sheriff, Morris said that the woman was reading to him from the Bible about Jesus. Although of Jewish parentage, the boy on being taken to jail, had asked the turnkey for a Bible "that he might read about the dear Jesus." The under-sheriff thought that this was an attempt to deceive rather than a deliberate expression of scorn for the New Testament.

Morris himself is particularly bitter in his denunciations of the turnkey. He declares that when he was taken to the cell, the latter asked Rasinger if he wanted a companion, and on receiving an affirmative answer, pushed Morris into the cell. The boy's mother asserts that when he was taken away he was well and strong, but that when he returned he was pale

and unable to stand up. At the time of the call by an investigator for CHARITIES he did not look well.

There is a fourth and brighter chapter still to be told. When Mrs. Clara T. Sykes, president of the Children's Aid Society of Vineland, read in the Philadelphia newspaper the statement that Morris was in the cell with Rasinger, she sent Joseph Spencer, who is an agent of the Children's Aid Society and is also under-sheriff of Cumberland County, to see what could be done to remove him. As a result of this visit, the sheriff at Bridgeton telephoned Justice Brown asking if the boy could be sent home. The justice consented, after some hesitation, to release Morris on his own recognizance. He was taken home by the under-sheriff and by this time has doubtless re-entered school.

How lasting will be the impression made upon the mind of this boy of thirteen years by his twelve days in jail—which, in the natural course of things, would have extended to at least ninety days—no one can tell. It is not easy to fix the responsibility. The officer who made the arrest and complaint thinks that the boy's associations in jail were no worse than the company he left in Vineland, but this may reasonably be doubted. The turnkey remarked that it is too bad that such a small boy should be "sent up," as the jail was crowded and there was no place for boys. The under-sheriff thinks that the officer should not have arrested the boy without knowing what would happen afterwards. The magistrate thinks that the fault lies with the parents; with men who keep their stores open late at night, etc.—no one in particular to blame although his later decision to discharge the boy might possibly be regarded as an indication that he had himself made a mistake. Many people in Bridgeton are inclined to hold the Board of Freeholders of Cumberland County responsible for their failure to provide a special place for children, while still others suggest that there is something lacking in the public sentiment of the community when, by the successive actions or neglect of truant officer, magistrate, sheriff, turnkey and freeholders, such an incident could happen.

To Country and Cottage

THE EFFECT ON INSTITUTION CHILDREN OF A CHANGE FROM CONGREGATE HOUSING IN THE CITY TO COTTAGE HOUSING IN THE COUNTRY

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II¹

Since things and experience, rather than words, are the main source of ideas with children, a rich and varied environment is one of the most important factors in their development. Unfortunately the vast majority of children in institutions pass their days amid surroundings that are dull, stale and unresponsive. The child delights in material that he can change and shape at will. He will amuse himself by the hour upon a sand pile or with a lump of putty, a handful of dough or anything that he can shape to the suggestions of his fancy. Herein also lies the charm in mud pies and rag dolls. Almost "any old thing" that the child can handle with ease and immunity is more entertaining and instructive than that which is fixed, inflexible or easily soiled.

There is but little that the child can do with asphalt pavement, brick walls, iron railings or stone steps. These confront him at every turn in the city home. He is himself in the plastic and formative period of growth and needs for his development a plastic environment. He will learn much through his fingers and toes if they are allowed to come into contact with earth, air, sunshine, water, and animate nature. Brick, stone and asphalt undergo but slight change with the march of the seasons. Winter and summer with them differ in temperature only. Such solid nonplastic forms were never intended to surround the home of childhood. Year after year during the early period of child life spent within the narrow confines of an institution so unchangeably and inflexibly environed can but stupefy the senses and arrest spiritual development. The best place for a child to perform the natural function of change and growth is in an environment that changes and grows. Nature alone can furnish this.

¹ This is the second of a series of articles by Mr. Reeder based upon the experiences associated with the moving of the New York Orphan Asylum from a "barracks" type of institution in Manhattan to the present site overlooking the Hudson.

The miracle of the changing seasons, the myriad forms of life that burst into being with the first days of spring, the opening buds, the first notes of the songsters among the trees, the plowing and planting, the gorgeous glow of sunrise, and the varied tints of sunset—all these teach lessons that are not found in books nor imparted by words. Let the child run and skip in Nature's own laboratory. To go barefoot in the cool, soft grass and mellow ploughed field, to wade in the plashy pool, to smell the new mown hay and the honeysuckle, to look on orchards blossoming, to find rabbits' and birds' and squirrels' nests, to observe the changes that come over cloud and air and sky from the "dewy freshness of early dawn to the restful calm of evening," to sit in the shade of trees, to swing upon the pendant branches, to catch fireflies; to swim, to skate, to look up at the stars; to watch the gathering storm, to recognize God's power in lightning and thunder, in torrent and gale; to walk to church along a country road, to gather wild flowers as you go, to search for apples in the orchard grass, or chestnuts in the woods, to pick cherries from topmost branches with cherry stained lips and fingers; to prepare the garden soil, to plant seeds and watch them grow, to cultivate flowers; to feel a part of all one sees and hears and does—this is life and this is childhood.

"Oh, for boyhood's time in June,
Crowding years in one brief moon,
When all things I heard or saw,
Me, their master, waited for,
I was rich in flowers and trees,
Humming birds and honey bees;
For my sport the squirrel played,
Plied the snouted mole his spade;
For my taste the blackberry cone
Purpled over hedge and stone;
Laughed the brook for my delight
Through the day and through the night."

This free communion with Nature is real soul nourishment and soul-emancipa-

tion. It furnishes the intellect with a wealth of fundamental ideas first hand; it quickens and exalts the imagination, stores the memory with "fair and noble forms and images" which will abide through all the ordeals with books and pedagogues, with business or professional reverses, with whatever awaits us of good or evil report.

In all this I have but imperfectly described the outdoor life and opportunities of the boys and girls of the New York Orphanage. In such an environment there is nothing hard, inflexible and unchanging. Earth and air and sky furnish the raw material of education, and the child is in constant touch with the plastic and shapable. The range and wealth of the ideas, as well as the value of the experience that arises out of such contact, is inestimable. Cities are not built with regard for the wants and requirements of childhood. To take the children of this orphanage back to a city home after two years of rural life here would be almost imprisonment for them. And yet their old home in the city included an entire block with much more spacious and beautifully located grounds than those of most institutions within the city limits.

But a rural environment reacts in other ways than those already mentioned. A child so surrounded, and stimulated by the elixir of pure air and Nature's sweetness and beauty, becomes more active, more dynamic than the child that is in contact with the fixed and the monotonous. He will kick out more pairs of shoes, wear out more clothes, eat more, meet with more accidents requiring minor surgery, and probably get into more mischief than his less strenuous brother. But his mischief is also more natural and wholesome, more open and above board, more the outburst of an exuberant spirit than the deliberate planning of an over-restrained child. When children are cramped for play space, as thousands in the city are, they are obliged to steal much of their fun. They are forbidden here and restrained there and prohibited in some other direction until they are forced by the irresistible play instinct within to scheme and plan by all sorts of covert methods to find amusement for them-

elves. They become as expert in dodging policemen or caretakers or shopkeepers as in escaping cars and trucks. They play "hide and go seek" with the officers of the law and thus start out in life headed in the wrong direction—against, instead of for, the safeguards of society. What a pity that a child that is by nature social should be forced by circumstances to become unsocial from the very beginning. Give the child plenty of room and plenty of workable material and all this is changed. But this means that the crowded street, the shopkeeper, the caretaker and the man in blue coat with brass buttons should all be left behind, and the fields and woods, the trees and brooks, wild flowers and fruits, substituted for them.

Within the grounds of this orphanage there are over one hundred cherry trees every one of which has probably been climbed by the boys, and most of them by the girls. Half as many apple trees have contributed in a similar manner to the children's dietary and athletics, while the chestnut trees are so numerous that they have not been counted. But the leaves and grass of every square foot under them have been raked over again and again by little hands and feet with each recurring autumn. A pocketful of nuts gathered one at a time in this way is worth a bushel bought in the market. It is like a string of fish that you have caught with your own hook.

The brook and the river, and where they meet—the swimming beach, have furnished pleasures and triumphs that will live as long as memory lasts.

All this and much more than is above enumerated is what we mean by an environment that is plastic. It means a succession of interests and opportunities all the year round. Each season brings a whole troop of new things. And Nature never tells the same old story in the same old way; there are always enough surprises in it to keep the child awake and alert. Would that every child might sit close to Nature's heart and hear the story for himself.

"Then Nature, the old nurse,
Took the child upon her knee,
Saying, 'Here is a story book
Thy Father has written for thee.'"

The Dregs of the Great Lakes

A STUDY OF CERTAIN OF THE LAKE STEAMBOAT MEN

Harry E. Hammond

University of Michigan

Much has been written about the men who "go down to the sea in ships," and they have been surrounded with a more or less romantic atmosphere. Not so much is heard about the men who man the steamers which ply upon the Great Lakes. Very few are sailors, in the old-time meaning of the word, for sailing craft are rapidly disappearing from fresh water. They are of an entirely different sort from the deep sea sailor, and cannot be picked out from among the various low-waged men in the lake ports, and indeed most of the latter have at one time or another worked on the steamers. Unlike the deep sea sailor whose longer voyages identify him with the vessel on which he works, their voyages seldom last more than a few days, at most a week or two, and as a general thing each trip is made with a different set of men aboard. The deck hands too often only work long enough to get a little money with which to go on a spree. If one berth is filled there are plenty of other boats on which to ship, and they never hesitate to draw the money which is due them, and to leave as soon as they can get ashore. During the season of navigation they work intermittently in this way, and in the winter many join the great army of tramps, who go South or beat their way in the North as best they can.

Among the men with whom I have come in contact, there are very few who began life on this plane. In fact, I only saw one young boy who looked as if he were just starting out to work for himself. Most of them lay their present condition to drink. However that may be, we find them now at the bottom of society and for the most part unfit to rise above their present status if they so desired.

Men on some of the finer lake steamers receive better treatment than I shall describe—are given better uniforms and somewhat cleaner quarters, but the condi-

tions set forth are those common on the class of boats known as passenger-freight steamers. A man, who wants to ship as a deckhand, goes to the first mate of the boat, and, if accepted by him, is entered on the time book. Thereupon he is set to work under the direction of one of the mates or the deck watchman. He is given a heavy truck for wheeling freight on or off. The work is hard and fatiguing, especially when a load is being put on or an incoming one taken off. This often takes a day or more in the case of larger boats, and the men sometimes work without a stop for upwards of twenty-four hours. The stops along the route do not require a great deal of work. Between times, the men are free to lie around the deck or go to the forecabin as they choose. The men are dirty and the sleeping quarters are as filthy as they themselves. Situated usually in the forward hold, where it is always damp and where the motion of the boat is felt the most, rough bunks are fitted with mattresses and blankets which seldom are changed until worn out. Then they are burned. The odor in this place is simply indescribable, and one unaccustomed to it becomes sick in a short time. The men's food is of the cheapest and poorest quality. On some boats there is a so-called dining-room for them equipped with wooden benches and bare wooden counters and in charge of the forecabin steward. This man is of a little better mettle than the ordinary deckhands and has to be able to keep them under control, a thing accomplished with a great expenditure of profanity and often of muscular energy. The hands are proverbially finding fault with the food and would soon drive a weakling out of the place. On the boats where there is no such dining-room, the food is sent up from the kitchen in large pans, one of meat, one of potatoes and vegetables and one of bread. With these come a large pot of coffee, tin cups, plates, knives,

forks and spoons, and the men help themselves and sit around on the freight. The talk is of a vile sort, showing a continual unclean state of mind.

To counteract the unsteadiness in their habits, one of the rules under which they work is that they may not leave the ship on arrival in port till the cargo is all off. As soon as this is done, the mate hands in the time book, and the men line up before the pay window to draw the few dollars coming to them. The pay is usually twenty-five dollars a month with board and a place to sleep. As soon as they have their money, off they go and are not seen again until the money is gone—drink, or gambling, or worse. As a rule a man does not stay more than a single trip, or, when the trips are short, a week. Those who stay longer are the exception. I have talked with some few who claimed to be supporting a family on their wages. They were steady in their habits, and stayed on the boats for several weeks.

A person who is thrown into this atmosphere for any length of time could not fail to become like these men in a little while, unless he were of extremely strong moral character and in that case—pardon the Irish—he would not stay there at all. The newcomer has to be one of them, for they are suspicious of anyone who lives among them and does not talk and act as they do.

All types are to be seen. Some have recently joined the ranks of the deckhands. Their faces have not yet acquired the beast-like look of the old-timer and still show some traces of better conditions under marks of dissipation. The majority are apparently from twenty-five to thirty-five years of age. Their clothes have the look of being worn continuously from the time they were put on until worn out, and it is evident that most of them have not seen a bathtub for a long time.

Some have been on the stage and I have watched deckhands perform slight-of-hand tricks, equal to any I have seen before the footlights. Singing and dancing are frequent accomplishments. It is a common saying that there is never a boat crew in which some man cannot sing and dance, and the saying is true. Such knacks come in handy to while away occasional spare time. After exhibiting

several tricks which were remarkably clever, I have heard a deckhand give a "lecture" which was positively the foulest piece of language ever uttered in my hearing. And it is often the likeliest looking men who are the most dangerous, because of the viciousness to which they have put their intelligence.

The firemen and coal passers are in many cases of a little better grade than the deckhands. Their work requires some skill and the firing crew, as a rule, does not change so often as the deck crew.

The lower officers, the water tenders, deck watchmen, wheelmen, lookouts, etc., are of another rank. They have separate places to sleep; in the case of the latter two and the mates there are special rooms. All these men eat their meals in the officers' mess room, where they have tablecloths, napkins, glasses and silverware, and are waited on by a man who is commonly known as the "mess-hog." Theirs is practically the same fare as the passengers, only the "trimmings" and fancy desserts are left off. The only officers who do not eat here are the captain, stewards and pursers, who have their meals in the main dining-room. The higher officers are very often married men and draw relatively good salaries, but many of them are given to unclean talk of which their conduct before the patrons of the line gives no inkling.

The Waiters The men with whom I have had the most experience are those in the stewards department—the cooks, pantrymen and waiters. These men, the waiters, have to present a better appearance, as they come in direct contact with the passengers, but underneath the thin veneer there is the same depth of depravity and vice, or perhaps reflection of social environment unfavorable to true development. As a class there is little difference in moral standard between them and the men who handle the freight, although their work requires considerable skill and dexterity and as a class the waiters hold themselves far above the others. When the old-time waiter, however, gets a little money he goes out on a spree with the regularity of any deckhand.

The waiters are required to get up at

five or six in the morning. On the best boats there are shifts of men who take turns on and off. One shift, for instance, starts to serve breakfast and works till nine o'clock, then another takes hold and works until time to set for the noon meal; the first set goes on duty again and the round is kept up. On these steamers they are expected to serve food only to the passengers, and when off duty are required to stay in their quarters. They are much better workmen than those on the second-class boats, being men of the class found in the best restaurants ashore. Those on cheaper boats are required to do a great deal of sidework, for, of course, the meals do not occupy the entire time, as is the case when served *a la carte*. If the men are gotten up at five o'clock there is some cleaning to do before the tables are set for breakfast at six. At seven breakfast is served, generally continuing till nine-thirty. Then the dining-room must be swept and placed in order for the day. A rest follows until eleven o'clock when work is begun on dinner or luncheon, and continues till two or later. During the afternoon there is usually little sidework to do and there is quite an interval which can be occupied in sleeping or playing games. On the passenger-freight steamers the waiters are allowed the run of the freight deck and this privilege gives them a chance to get fresh air. This is not taken advantage of by the general run of the men, for they do not seem to mind bad air and prefer to stay in their quarters to sleep or gamble. Supper lasts from five to eight, but after the meals of the day are over, the work does not always end. Often extra passengers must be supplied with cots and the hours are filled up till after ten in the evening. This makes a long hard day. During my work I have often spent sixteen hours on duty at one stretch. These long days, however, are frequently followed by very easy ones. When the ship lies in port, there is always general sweeping and cleaning to do, but some time is left to go ashore. For waiter's work the pay ranges from eighteen dollars to twenty-five dollars a month, in addition to board and room. Then, too, there are the tips which usually equal and in many cases far exceed the salary. It is really for

them that the men work. The companies know this and it is a factor that keeps the pay down.

The waiters come from all grades of life. Some have been waiters from the outset; others, failures, have drifted into it; elsewhere still others are working at this occupation only because their own trade happens to be closed to them for some reason. While I was on the steamers I took some pains to find out what had led men to become waiters. Quite a large proportion had taken it for their permanent work—probably as an easy way to get along—and these men are, as a rule, the best workers and also the most sociable ones. They are comparatively steady, energetic and usually in better physical condition. They know their business and understand the best ways of extracting a tip from the most reluctant of givers. Many could hold places in the city hotels, but in the summer want to get out of town for an outing.

*Some Types
of Men.*

Of another sort was an Englishman who had been a bookkeeper in the old country. He absconded with some money and came to America, where some of his relatives kept track of him, and got him a position in a Canadian city. He again yielded to temptation, and ran off to escape arrest. He started waiting table, and to-day is a man of forty-five, with no prospect of ever regaining his standing in the world. I have never seen him drunk, but he was continually taking a drink. His constitution was utterly shattered, and every little while he was obliged to go to a hospital to recuperate. He has recently died of consumption. Another waiter, and such for similar reasons, was a young Swede who had committed some misdeed in America and was saving his wages to get back to Sweden. A young boy of eighteen had been learning the brass-finisher's trade, when he had been laid off for a few weeks. Though he had resumed work at the end of that time he drifted back to the boat and was there at the close of navigation, probably a waiter for good. One of the worst cases was a man who had been a life insurance agent. There had been something crooked in his books. He was a drunkard and

first came aboard the boat clothed in rags, his own clothing being in a pawnshop. These redeemed, and his face shaved, he looked quite respectable. None of these men showed any regret for acts they had committed. They seemed to think it was all right and what anyone would do under similar circumstances.

Money seems to burn as long as it stays in a waiter's pocket. Practically all of them gamble and during the off-hours it is very rare that a game of some kind is not under way. Poker, craps and all sorts of games are used as a vehicle to get rid of or win money. The majority "plunge" till they are completely stripped by the craftier among them. One young man was almost a monomaniac on the subject. There was never a game in progress in which he was not found if he had any money or could inveigle some one of his companions into lending him some. Be it said to his credit that he rarely failed to repay a loan of this kind, although the creditor often had to wait for it. C— was too nervous to be a good player and his bad luck was proverbial. When he had lost all his money he would beg pathetically for some from a bystander, and it was hard to resist his appeals. Many a time he was in bed for the night when a game opened up, but he would get up and make for the table. Another of the same type was as regular a loser as C—, but it was a difficult matter to collect debts from him. After a heavy loss, he would swear off, only to break the vow the next time a game started. He held a fairly good position all season, but quit in the fall "dead broke." What money did not go into a game of chance, was spent on cheap jewelry and flashy neckties, his purchases affording great merriment to the rest of us.

One reason for this disregard for money and the future is the fact that a waiter does not have to plan where his next meal is coming from. A place to sleep is also provided on the steamer. Practically none have anyone for whose support they acknowledge responsibility. They treat with contempt the man who takes his losses to heart. Their utter lack of ambition together with the system under which they work, perhaps explains this indifference to the value of money.

One explanation of the low grade of waiters found on the boats is the fact that the better men stay in town, where they can make more money except in instances when they desire an outing, such as cited above, and stewards have to take what they can get. Many waiters who are shut out of the city restaurants on account of drunkenness, drift down to the docks and ship on the boats. To take a specific example, a man of fifty, a good waiter in his day, has lost his grip because of his fondness for liquor. He works steadily for a month and then goes off for a similar length of time, being available for service about half the year. He has had delirium tremens and is a nervous wreck. Winters, he earns his living honing razors or at laying up or fitting out boats after and before the open season.

On some lines negro waiters are used, but in my experience I have had nothing to do with them. Some stewards prefer them; others, after a single trial, have declared that they would never have another one on their boat because of their proneness to fight among themselves and with any one else.

The Pantrymen It will not be necessary to take up in detail the baggage men, bell boys, porters, and others whose duties follow not altogether different lines in which a steadiness is required which slightly raises the standard. The pantrymen stand between the waiters and the cooks. The kitchen in most boats is on the lower deck, the food being sent up from here to the pantry, where it is kept hot by means of a steam table. Here the pantrymen take charge of it and serve the vegetables, desserts, etc. The cutlery and dishes are washed here. Thus, in the pantry are to be found the chef, if there are roasts to carve, the head pantryman and several other assistants. It takes some skill and experience to fill the place of head pantryman or his assistant during a rush, when three or more vegetables must be dished out as fast as the chef can cut off portions of meat. More than that, the head pantryman has a gang of turbulent spirits to control, and it takes a driver to get anything out of them. Those who hold the place are in general worn-out waiters or waiters out of a job and the po-

sition is seldom held long by the same man. The spirit of restlessness or the desire to get drunk takes possession and he goes off, maybe to appear some time later clad in rags, his own clothes pawned in order to make the spree last longer. In this connection, the general use that these drifting bits of humanity make of the pawnshop may be mentioned. With one exception the dishwashers, who worked on the "Illinois" during the last summer I was on the lakes, said they had pawned their overcoats. The amount received varied from fifty cents to a dollar. They all expected to get them out again before winter, but in every case they would have to pay interest varying from thirty to fifty per cent—the price they paid for freeing them from the trouble of carrying the garment about during the hot weather.

One cannot wonder that the lake steamer men lose their finer feelings when he sees the way they live. Herded together as they are, in one large room known as the "flick" or "flicker," they sleep, dress and spend all spare time without the possibility of privacy. The very atmosphere has a demoralizing effect. Those who have worked on the lakes for a long time say that a steamboat "is the toughest place in the world," and from my experience I have little reason to doubt the statement.

In many cases they do not go by their

real names, even when these are known to their companions. On one boat, on which I worked for a time, there was hardly a man who went by his real name. The first name, sometimes alone, but more often with some adjective denoting nationality or home town, is the usual appellation. "Dutch Louie," "Sheeney John," "Alabama," "Little George," "Slim," are samples. One young boy named Edmund Brouillette was commonly known as Joe MacFraw. He had no reason to conceal his identity, but the alias clung to him for some reason that I could not find out.

Deckhands and waiters live their lives in the manner I have described, alternating work with dissipation in a way that gives them shattered nerves and weak, diseased bodies when they should be ready to rest back for their old age. Secure a position, earn an amount of money sufficient for their desires and an outfit of clothes, then throw this all away in a week or less of debauch and start out anew to go over it all again—that is the round. To the man who does not like to work long at a time the steamboat furnishes a place suited to his tastes, where the money comes fairly easily and in a quantity to immediately satisfy him. Manifestly such a life serves to accentuate the roving disposition that unfits men for steady employment which can make for self-dependence.

What Can Be Done in a Graded School for the Backward Child

Julia Richman

District Superintendent, New York City

In New York city the authorities in two public departments are responsible for meeting the requirements which legally entitle a child to obtain its work certificate. The health department must have documentary evidence that the child is fourteen years old; and the education department, through the principal of the school, must certify that according to the records of the school, the child has passed its fourteenth birthday, has attended school not less than one hundred and thirty days since its thirteenth birthday, and has completed the work of the 5A grade. (This

is scholastically equivalent to the academic requirements of the child-labor law of 1903.)

I cannot here enter into the conflict between the parents and the health department over the question of producing satisfactory documentary evidence of age. That merits a chapter of its own. My concern is with the school. I assumed the duties of district superintendent of schools in a section of the crowded East Side, at a time coincident with the establishment of the child-labor law. The number of children desiring to leave school in

order to become wage-earners, who were in grades lower than 5A, was appalling. Many were American-born, or had been in the United States for many years. That these children had not at the age of fourteen years, entered the fifth year of school was one of the clearest proofs that the schools of the past had failed in their duty to the community. My observations led to an investigation, the results of which were embodied in a letter to the Board of Superintendents, a copy of which follows:

December 7, 1903.

Gentlemen:

In my efforts to enforce the compulsory education law, I have encountered several cases where children, well past the fourteenth birthday, were unable to obtain certificates of attendance because they were in the primary grades instead of having completed 4B as your body directed. This has caused me to make some inquiries in the schools in my two districts, and the statistics appended show the result of that inquiry.

To be able to complete the work of 5A (next term's scholastic requirements), by the fourteenth birthday, a child must enter 4B by the thirteenth birthday, 3B by the twelfth birthday, 2B by the eleventh birthday. Allowing for the loss of but one term for a failure to be promoted, every child at twelve years should be in 4A or higher, at eleven years in 3A or higher, at ten years in 2A or higher.

In my two districts, there were on November 20, 1,719 children who on this basis will not be ready for work certificates when they reach the age of fourteen. Inasmuch as the majority of these children must become wage-earners at the earliest possible date, you can readily see the conflict that must arise between the school authorities and the parents, and the resulting hardships that must be imposed upon the children and their parents. Of these 1,719 children, 190 have come to the country within the last twelve months. I have not had time to analyze the make-up of the remaining 1,529, but my impression is that the causes that have led these 1,500 children to be no further advanced in school may be classified as follows:

(a) Foreign-born children longer than one year in the country who were unwisely classified and too slowly promoted.

(b) Children turned away from school or kept for years on waiting lists, in the days when principals had that privilege.

(c) Children previously "run out of school" for misconduct, in the days when records were kept less carefully than at present.

(d) Children excluded on account of contagion, in the days when school nurses were not able to control this condition.

(e) Children whose minds were spoiled, in the days when only a substitute was placed in charge of the afternoon part-time classes.

(f) Disorderly children.

(g) Truants.

(h) Defectives, either mental or physical.

(i) Children whose individual needs were overlooked, when promotions were made.

Of these 1,529 children, 277 are still in the first year, 307 in the second year, 662 in the third year and 282 in the fourth year. Of the 190 one-year-in-the-country-foreigners, 127 are in the first year, 31 in the second year, 24 in the third year and 8 in the fourth year.

I bring these facts to your attention in order to explain why I make the following request: Will your board give me as district superintendent authority special for the benefit of these children special classes wherever I deem it necessary? If this permission be granted, will your board prepare or cause to be prepared, as is your right, under section 1,084 of the charter, a simplified course of study for the use of these classes? This course of study, in my judgment, should be prepared with the view to concentrating the attention of pupils and teacher upon the absolute essentials demanded by the compulsory education law. The omission of paper folding, construction of paper boxes, knotting of cord, sight reading in music, illustrative drawing and many other requirements of our present course (even though they have a distinct educational value to the normal child of English-speaking parents) will make it possible to cover the work of two or more grades in one term. This will bring these children nearer the completion of the requirements of the law by their fourteenth birthday. If authority be given to me to form such special classes in the reorganization of schools on the first of February next, I can then give them my special attention and discover before many months which of these children can be pushed forward. As a result of this close investigation on my part, I should probably, inside of a year, be able to sift out such of these children as require special instruction on account of mental and physical weaknesses, which will naturally result in the formation of training classes for such children, a very great need in this section of the city.

This matter was favorably considered by the Board of Superintendents at a meeting December 28, and a resolution adopted requesting division superintendents to confer with district superintendents with a view to organizing special classes. I have no knowledge as to the formation of these special classes in other districts; I can report only for districts 2 and 3, over which I preside. On September 30, 1904,

there were in operation the following classes:

	(n Roll.
P. S. No. 2, 116 Henry street, four classes.	
First and second years, girls.....	39
First and second years, boys.....	37
Third year, girls.....	39
Third and fourth years, boys.....	40
P. S. No. 7, 60 Chystie street, two classes.	
Fourth year, girls.....	32
Fourth year, boys.....	37
P. S. No. 34, Broome and Sheriff streets, one class.	
Third year, mixed, { boys.....	31
{ girls.....	11
P. S. No. 42, Hester and Orchard streets, one class.	
Fourth year, girls.....	35
P. S. No. 75, Norfolk street, one class.	
Fourth and fifth years, boys.....	35
P. S. No. 92, Broome and Rldge streets, two classes.	
Fourth year, English, { boys.	17
{ girls	9
Fourth year for foreigners { boys.	10
{ girls	19
P. S. No. 120, 187 Broome street, two classes.	
Third year, mixed, { b. ys.	17
{ girls.	19
Third year for foreigners { boys.	11
{ girls.	20
P. S. No. 137, Grand and Essex streets, one class.	
Third and fourth years, mixed { boys	16
{ girls.	16
P. S. No. 144, Allen and Hester streets, two classes.	
Third year, boys.....	32
Fourth year, girls.....	32
P. S. No. 177, Market and Monroe streets, three classes.	
Fourth year, girls.....	28
Fifth year, girls.....	27
Fourth year, boys.....	43

This makes a total of nineteen classes, exclusive of three ungraded classes, composed of children mentally defective.

The principals who have adopted the plan with intelligence and sympathy are unanimous in their verdict as to its value, not only for the individual child, but also for the tone of the school. The boy or girl of twelve or thirteen or fourteen years, who is placed in a class where the work prescribed and the methods employed are designed for children from six to nine years of age, is almost without exception a burden to the teacher and a menace to the discipline of the class. The child's mind, sharpened by contact with the outside world, is matured be-

yond its years, and has developed a street shrewdness which makes it absurd to attempt to give it training designed for the baby mind. Even though such a pupil be an absolute illiterate, his place is not in a regular class with children of six or seven. His presence there is an injury both to him and to those little fellows for whom the class is intended. It is my opinion that no child, even though he be an illiterate, who has reached his twelfth birthday should be in any primary department, but should be placed in a special class, in the grammar department, in charge of one of the best teachers in the school, where the instruction given and the knowledge imparted should be chosen along the lines of least resistance, aiming to fit him to become a decent, self-respecting wage-earner and a creditable member of society.

Such children should be carefully watched and classified. If the backwardness be due to recent arrival from a non-English speaking country or from neglected education, good teaching will soon make good what is lacking. If it be due to defective mentality of congenital origin, special training classes for such children must be established by the Board of Education (some already exist), or the worst cases must be sent to institutions, where they may be helped, or if beyond the point of help, be kept out of harm's way. If it be due to undervitalization, then we workers must step in to provide proper nourishment, either by supplying the same at school, or by visitations to the home.

This plan, like all other plans, will work out admirably in every school where the principal has the light to see and the grace to carry out so wise a solution of a most vexatious problem. In a school where the principal cannot see, the case is hopeless. One can only pray that either God or the Board of Education may remove him or her before greater wrongs may come to the children. Until every principal and every teacher can be made to see that to save the soul and character of the child is a far higher achievement than to obtain a high average in arithmetic, grammar or spelling, it will be impossible to give every child a child's rights.



PALM LODGE SANATORIUM, PHOENIX, ARIZONA.

Phoenix

AND THE HEALTH-SEEKERS OF THE GREAT SOUTHWEST

Frank D. Witherbee¹

During recent years the climate of certain parts of Arizona, New Mexico and Texas has won for those sections a popularity which they have not altogether courted. Throughout the United States and even abroad, thousands suffering from tuberculosis have heard of its wonderful curative properties, and have flocked there to be healed. Experts have shown that one of the surest means of killing bacilli is exposure to strong sunlight, and if such conditions are to be found anywhere it is in the great Southwest. This may seem a sweeping statement, but competent judges have declared that even Egypt cannot offer climatic conditions so favorable to the purpose as those found in the Salt River Valley of Arizona.

The mountains of Colorado were formerly the favorite resort in the West for those suffering from all throat and lung troubles, but this valley has drawn many away because of its lower altitude. Phoenix, Arizona, which is the center of the region, is but 1,100 feet above sea level, and this height compared with the great altitudes in Colorado, makes it much safer for patients to return to their homes after recovery. One whose lungs have been healed by the clear, dry air of the mountains has had the cells stimulated and distended to such a degree that a return to a less invigorating atmosphere is inclined to leave them less active, with

¹ Mr. Witherbee spent a season in the Salt River Valley he describes. His work, formerly, for the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, and now as superintendent of the Joint Application Bureau of the New York Charity Organization Society and Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, led him to make a special study of this great social problem of the Southwest.

the result that the disease may again gain a foothold.

It is hard to realize what is meant by constant sunshine until a season is passed in this country. One year after another averages about ninety per cent of possible sunshiny days. Those who live in sections where heavy clouds and a down-pour may be expected any day, or even at any hour, can appreciate what a gain it is for a patient to be able to live almost constantly in the open air—to fairly “bake” in the strong sunlight for twelve or more hours and then to sleep, still out of doors, in the cool, dry, atmosphere of the night. This mode of living offers also the best possible protection to those who associate intimately with the sick one.

With all this sunshine, both winter and summer, there is the minimum amount of moisture in the atmosphere. Sufferers from a hot term in a great city know what it means when the weather bureau reports eighty or ninety per cent of relative humidity in the air. In Phoenix the average for the year is only forty-six per cent of relative humidity, while the records show as low as four per cent. An authority has stated that “a range in thermometer of sixty-five or seventy degrees, with an atmosphere saturated forty-five to fifty-five per cent unite in a condition ideal for man.” Winter days in Phoenix closely approximate these conditions, nor is the heat in summer by any means intolerable. Those who have experienced the severest heat during July and August maintain that it is not so oppressive as summer weather in the

Mississippi valley or on the Atlantic Coast. On a June day in Phoenix, when the dry bulb thermometer registered 115 degrees in the shade, the wet bulb registered only sixty-seven degrees. This would be equal to about seventy-seven in the East or on the coast. It is contended that it is during these hot dry days of summer, that the greatest curative effect is felt from the air, and that the most remarkable cures have been effected when patients have been willing to remain all summer, as well as during the winter months. Sore lungs are healed by deep draughts of the hot dry air, the whole body feels the effect of the "baking," and profuse perspiration serves the double purpose of ridding the body of impurities, and at the same time of cooling it by evaporation from the surface. Patients with greatly depleted strength sometimes find the nervous strain of the constant glare more than they can stand, but many who are vigorous enough to be about have made their greatest gains in weight and strength during the hottest months after gaining very little, or not at all, in the winter.

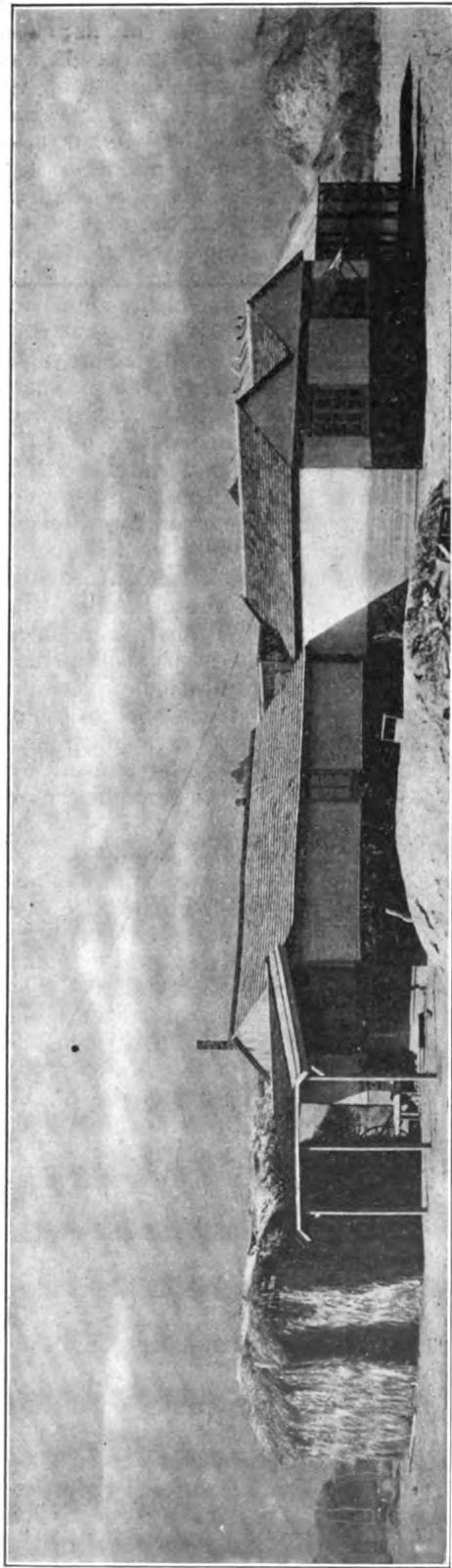
The Tent Groups on the Desert. Tenting is the best method of living for those who have gone to the Salt River Valley for their health. Many of the homes in and about Phoenix have a tent pitched in the yard, a sure indication of why the family is there. Out on the desert, at the outskirts of the irrigated parts of the valley, and extending to the foothills, there are tents of all sizes and descriptions. Some are in groups, and others stand alone; some are roomy and attractive, others are cramped and desolate looking. Colonizing has its advantages and its drawbacks, but, unless family or friends can accompany the invalid, group life is without question far superior to the solitary tent such as is seen frequently on the desert, or on some vacant lot near town. Some of the ranchers near Phoenix have made a specialty of providing accommodations for health-seekers, and offer tents furnished, or rooms in specially constructed houses, at prices varying from nine to thirty-five dollars a week. This includes table board at the ranch house nearby, and, except that there is seldom any medical supervision, conditions are

quite favorable. Not that the patients need much medicine administered, but all of them do need a physician's direction as to how much exercise is good for them at different times; and their minor ailments need more careful attention because of their lessened power of resistance.

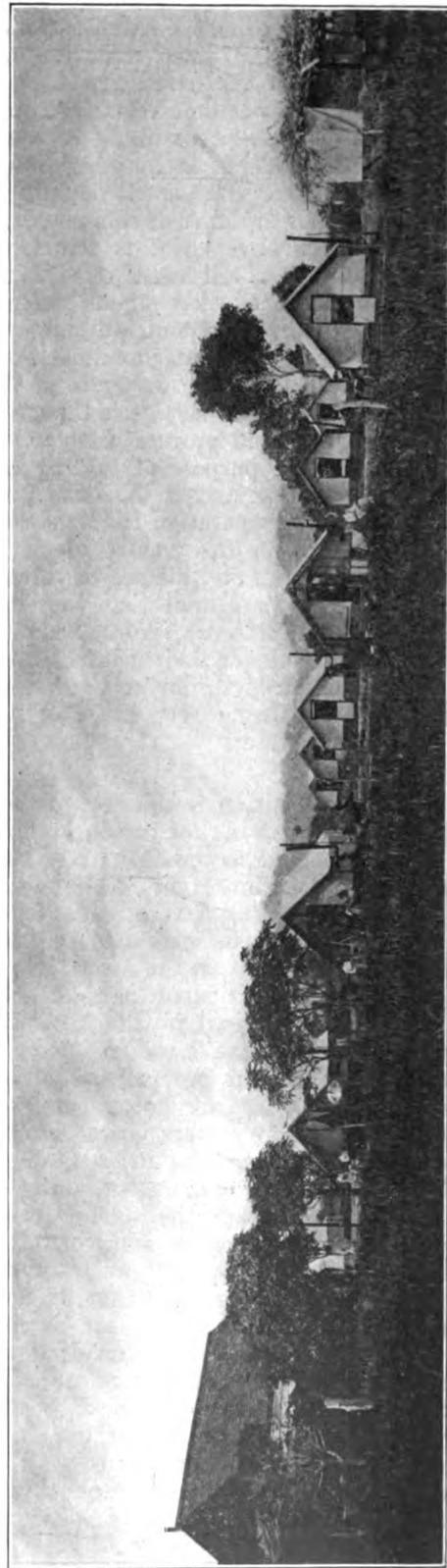
It will be observed that the expense of living in such tent groups is high, much higher than many can afford to pay for any long period. But one has to count on heavy expense in such a place, due partly to the fact that it is a health resort, and partly to the fact that freight rates to such isolated communities put a rather heavy tax on many of the necessaries of life. Such expense might be materially lessened if a number of persons living in a group should arrange for a co-operative kitchen and dining-room. This would insure regularity of meals and diet, which are often sadly lacking where people live alone trying to provide their own fare. Several of these ranch camps meet all the requirements of a comfortable place to live, but not all of them are desirable. For that reason it is always imperative that any newcomer should consult a reputable physician before deciding which place to select.

Palm Lodge is the only sanatorium in Phoenix which treats tuberculosis cases solely. The rates there are from twenty-one to thirty-five dollars a week, and this includes medical attendance and diet and care of a high standard. The Arizona is a general sanatorium but accepts those suffering from tuberculosis if in the first stage of the disease. St. Joseph's Hospital, under the care of the Sisters of St. Joseph, is well equipped for general purposes, but is nearly always full to overflowing because of the great number of people who go to Phoenix too late and without funds sufficient to provide them with the necessary care. This class of invalids constitutes one of the saddest features of the mad rush to the West in search of new health and strength.

Health Refugees. Out of a winter population in Phoenix of some 15,000 or 16,000, it is estimated that from 3,000 to 5,000 are visitors, most of whom are health-seekers. They have been drawn there by the wonderful stories told of the



A CAMP IN THE ARIZONA DESERT.



A RANCH CAMP; A PRIVATE ENTERPRISE.

climate and its power to heal; but there are few who realize just what such a journey involves and how hopeless may be their quest. Because Phoenix has a climate that is unrivaled, it is expected that it can work miracles of cure in every case. As a matter of fact, the great majority of people come too late to be helped by any power on earth. A local physician, with eighteen years' experience, says that four-fifths of those who have come to Phoenix should never have left home; another sets the proportion at two-thirds. Whatever the exact number may be, one has only to walk up and down the city streets and count hundreds of such wasted folk. Thin and wretched looking, with the image of death stamped plainly on their faces, one can but marvel at the inexcusable stupidity on the part of physicians or friends who have sent them hither to die friendless and alone. Homesickness plays upon their little remaining strength until they are no longer able to be about, and despair in its worst form is added to the immeasurable sufferings of the disease. The story is told of a young couple scarcely out of their teens, who were married so that the girl might accompany her lover on his venture for renewed health. They were hardly established in a tent on a ranch just outside the town when they were found both in tears, the boy saying that he would rather die at home than live such a forlorn existence. The next morning found them on their way back with the absolute certainty that the young husband could not live. Physicians who do not understand the spiritual resources of their patients well enough to know whether they can successfully fight the worry and homesickness of such a sojourn, as well as the inroads of the disease, have no right to set themselves up as advisors in a matter necessitating such a hazardous undertaking. A newspaper man from Grand Rapids, Mich., was sent to Phoenix with his sick wife, leaving their three children at home in the care of relatives. They pitched their tent on the west side of the town where the attending physician found them and their effects, as he expressed it, "shoe-opening deep in the sand." The woman was refined and used to many comforts, so that the forlorn con-

ditions, coupled with worry about the little ones at home, brought on tubercular brain trouble and she died. Another sick woman in the last stages of the disease was sent from a town in Ohio, leaving her husband and five children at home. A physician who called in to see the woman her arrival, remarked, "If you wish my advice, you'll take the next train home and tell your doctor that he never was the mother of five children else he never would have sent you away off out here in your condition."

The Lodging-house Evils.

Perhaps the worst evil in such a place as Phoenix is a situation which makes it possible for sick people to remain about the town when the only place where they can possibly derive good is on some ranch in the outskirts or out on the desert. Phoenix is full of lodging-houses, in most instances nothing but furnished-room establishments which do not supply meals. Their keepers make a great pretense of taking no sick people. Advertisements loom large with this one condition. As a matter of fact, it depends altogether upon how sick the person is who applies for accommodations. If the patronage of these establishments were not made up very largely of those who come seeking health, four-fifths of them would go out of business. Some of them make no discrimination at all, taking all who come except, perhaps, those unable to walk. The better places, however, are more particular, and no one who has ever experienced it can forget the awful sense of ostracism which follows his efforts to get suitable quarters. At all good houses, the stranger meets the kindly but firm inquiry as to whether there is anyone sick in the family, and if he is truthful to a nicety, he may rest assured he will never get in. Even if he succeeds in evading the issue, the gentle but decisive hint is dropped that if the sick one—and there is scarcely one case in a hundred where that is not the reason for being there—is coughing too much or is otherwise objectionable, the family will be asked to leave.

This is as it should be, only the discrimination should be much more strict—strict enough to run almost all such houses out of business. No one suffering

from tuberculosis should be allowed to go to such a climate and live under conditions infinitely worse for him than those from which he came. A room in a barrack-like lodging-house, with such meals as the average restaurant serves, with the attendant lack of real social intercourse, is not living for even the strongest and most self-reliant individual. It is a miserable existence with no argument in its favor. In none of these houses has the landlady time to wait on those who are unable to do much for their own comfort, and many die, neglected and alone.

The Work-seekers. The heedlessness, shown when physicians or relatives, or even friends, send a patient to Phoenix alone and with scant means for his support, deserves to be called criminal. The blundering argument is made that all the sick one needs is to get to that country and his condition will permit of his doing light work which he can easily find. He does not expect much return for his services, but he is contented with the prospect of earning only enough to live on for a few years since he hopes that at the end of that time he may return well enough for his regular work. Such is the optimism which is nearly always characteristic of the disease. But the facts are these: that this incapacitated one is going to a country swarming with people looking for like chances; that it is essentially a ranching community where the bulk of the workers, to be of any service, must be able to get out and hustle early and late, plowing, sowing, reaping, herding cattle, often standing in water all night long to irrigate, doing the thousand and one arduous tasks that require a skill and experience, to say nothing of a strength, which not one in a hundred of these applicants ever had; that what few chances there are for light work are of a sort he ought not to accept since they are usually too confining; that if he has the slightest abnormality of temperature, he should not lift a finger to attempt any continuous task; that wherever consumptives have taken up work in desirable climates, they have by their underbidding and their numbers, steadily forced wages down to a point where, because of high prices for nearly every neces-

sary of life, they can scarcely earn enough even to live. And as if these were not enough, he finds on many sides an almost hardened indifference to his pitiable need. This is not because residents of Phoenix are lacking in the finer feelings which prompt to charitable service, but because the people of the East and Middle West are, by their lack of forethought, putting upon them a burden which in no sense belongs to them.

The Work of Relief.

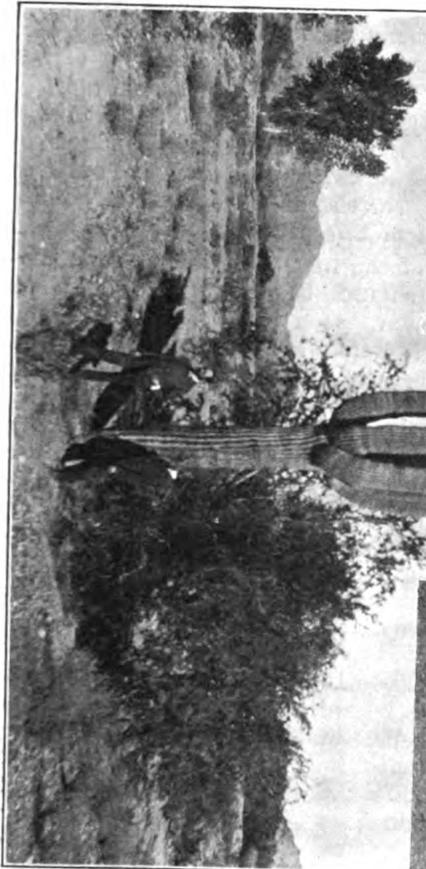
Much has been done and is being done every day to relieve the sufferings of many who have been too scantily provided for. St. Joseph's Hospital is largely supported by volunteer contributions gathered from citizens of Phoenix, and the capacity of the free beds is taxed to the utmost all the time. The Arizona Sanatorium charged off accounts amounting to \$2,000 last year to profit and loss, accounts which were expected to be paying ones, but which some patients found themselves utterly unable to meet. All of the local fraternal lodges and the churches make continuous provision for from one to six strangers. The lodges are in a much stronger position than the other organizations, for they have only to draw upon the patient's home lodge for the necessary funds, but even then the demands upon the members' personal interest and sympathy are large. Many private individuals also, in a quiet but no less effective way, are making it possible for numbers of needy ones to enjoy the benefits of this wonderful climate.

Besides all these the Maricopa County Almshouse cares for from twenty to thirty patients. The supervisors say that the poor in the almshouse cost the county \$5,000 per quarter, and three-fourths of this goes to alien consumptives. Many of these inmates have some provision made for them by their own people when they first arrive, but this rapidly dwindles and often stops entirely after the stay has been protracted for some time. A young woman was sent to Phoenix by her former employer, a physician, by the way, who paid her salary for a long time, but his interest finally lagged, the income stopped and the girl died in the almshouse. A young

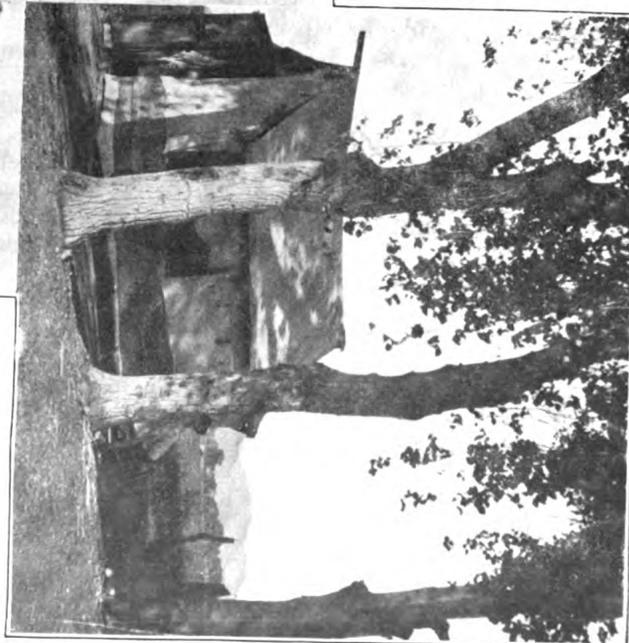
A NEW HAMPSHIRE SCHOOL
TEACHER'S ATTRACTIVE
DESERT HOME.



OUT ON THE
DESERT.



A TENT THAT MAKES FOR
HOMESICKNESS.



man came from Michigan where his mother had mortgaged her home and raised \$100 to send him. His railroad fare, some clothing and other necessaries made a heavy drain on this scant sum; the balance was soon gone, and after living at a starvation standard when only a liberal provision would have brought him any benefit, he, too, died in the almshouse. A young man landed in Phoenix from San Francisco with three dollars in his pocket. He went to the almshouse at once, to die. The supervisors say very frankly that they cannot afford to make provision such as these patients need, for they well know how expensive is the proper diet for tuberculosis patients. Indeed, the supervisors might well argue that the only safeguard which the taxpayers have is to make the care of such charges inadequate; otherwise the rest of the country would make Phoenix the dumping ground for all its poor suffering from the white plague. The country at large must wake up to the enormity of this imposition and make some provision for its sufferers other than shoving them off on another community to be cared for, even though that community may be blessed with an abundance of sunshine and pure air.

*Where Should
Responsibility
Rest?*

Some are advocating that private philanthropy or public enterprise in different states should erect sanatoria in the southwest country to which all such needy patients might be sent; but with the wonderful strides which are being made in the treatment of tuberculosis even in the most humid climates, it is becoming apparent that climate is but a part, and not the most important part, of successful treatment. If each community grapples with this problem intelligently, such places as Phoenix will have to shelter only those who can actually afford to go so far and to meet the necessarily great expense which such a sickness entails. No one can afford to go who cannot see his way clear to live comfortably, free from worry and the need to do arduous labor, for a year at the very least.

A word of warning may also be given to the well who often undertake to ac-

company the sick. Many have thought that with their health and strength it would be a comparatively easy matter to earn a livelihood and so provide adequately for the needs of the family there. Practically, however, these find they are confronted by many of the same conditions that hampered the sick man. It is difficult to find work of any sort, although they may be perfectly able bodied, and wages never can be adequate where there are so many men after the same job and each one under the dire necessity of accepting whatever he can get at any price. The only sure way is for the whole family to have a reserve fund large enough to take up ranching and carry it on successfully, or else an income entirely independent of any personal effort.

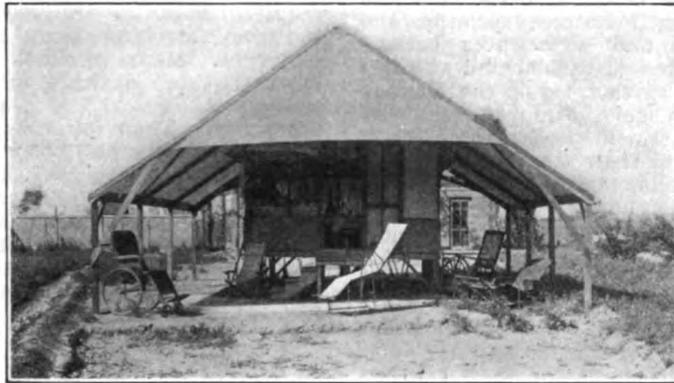
One of the items for which ample provision should be made is wholesome amusement, such as horseback riding, driving, golfing and all like diversions which help to while away much time very profitably. It is pitiful to see young fellows who have come to Phoenix for their health, hanging over the gaming tables, of which every saloon has a complete layout, spending the time which should be lived in the open air in a foul-smelling ill-ventilated groggery. One young fellow who, when he first came, was offered several light jobs, refused them saying he expected money from his father regularly. He received \$100 which was apparently spent gambling, for it was soon gone, and he is now sleeping in saloons for the want of a better place. These establishments keep open day and night, Sundays included. Another young man was found hazarding in such places the scanty means with which the Women's Christian Temperance Union had been able to provide him to buy his meals. Such are the possibilities for ill-advised diversions if one's bent leads him in that direction.

Salt River Valley is with justice pointed to as one of the most ideal climates in the world. The wonderful cures it has effected read almost like miracles. Some of the foremost citizens of Phoenix and its vicinity have come there apparently beyond hope of recovery. To-day they are most active in

developing its ranches, building its irrigating systems, and promoting all the larger interests of the county and territory. A local estimate goes so far as to say that ninety per cent of those who go to Phoenix in the first stages of tuberculosis have been cured, sixty per cent of those in the second stage, and ten per cent of those who had been considered incurable have been restored to health and usefulness. With such a record it is no wonder that Phoenix is

deluged with many who should never have left their homes.

Phoenix and the great Southwest offer the forlorn hope, how forlorn most people learn too late. If the anguish which they go through and which often can end only with death, could be forced home to those who are responsible for their being there, the great Southwest would be less hampered in the field of service which its wonderful climate fits it to perform.



A CITY DOOR YARD TENT.

“Methods of Social Advance”¹

Reviewed by C. C. Carstens

Assistant Secretary, New York Charity Organization Society

Within the compass of this little book there is contained a series of seventeen essays on various subjects besides the editor's introduction, *Distress and Its Prevention*, a title which expresses more definitely than the name of the book itself the purpose for which these papers have been gathered under one cover. They are of varying length, interest and worth. Among the authors we find such names as H. Rider Haggard, Mrs. Helen Bosanquet, T. Mackay and C. S. Loch, associated with others less known on this side of the Atlantic. Most of the papers have appeared in the *London Charity Organisation Review* and were originally presented at special meetings of the council of the London society. In breadth of view they bear testimony to the searching inquiry and liberal spirit of the council's discussions. At first glance the book appears to be but a disjointed group of essays, but closer reading brings out the underlying thought. They seem to fall natu-

rally into four groups, the first of which is in general concerned with the physical welfare of England's citizens.

Nowhere as much as in the out-patient department of a hospital does unintelligence, carelessness and criminal neglect in rearing children become so apparent, perhaps even to the point of over-emphasis. In every community there are schools, hospitals and charitable agencies struggling to inculcate better habits of life, but they are still so little co-ordinated as to prevent full utilization of the service that each can render. In spite of legal and medical efforts to stem the tide of infant mortality the rate is still abnormally high in most communities, and such children as survive too often carry with them to their graves a strong predisposition to fatal lung affections, deformities and imperfect development.

There is this same lack of co-ordination in the treatment of tuberculosis. As long as the disease was deemed hereditary and incurable, charity might well be pardoned for an attitude of hopelessness and helplessness toward this “dispensation of Providence,”

¹ *Methods of Social Advance*. Short stories in social practice by various authors, edited by C. S. Loch, secretary of the London Charity Organisation Society. Macmillan, 190. Pp. 192. \$1.50.

but when Dr. Koch established the fact that tuberculosis is preventable and curable he increased the responsibility that a community must feel for the welfare of its suffering citizens manifold, and now charity is girding itself to work hand in hand with hospital, physician and teacher to combat its ravages.

In general, the movement against tuberculosis has been most thorough and comprehensive in Germany, and this has been due in part to the preventive as well as the curative measures of sick clubs and insurance societies. When it was found that half the applicants for sick pay in these societies between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine were from patients suffering from tuberculosis, insurance societies and private charities and legislatures became aroused to the need of radical and effective measures. As a further result the English friendly societies have begun a study of German sanatorium methods which must result in benefit to their members, and will lessen the large demands this disease is now making on private charity.

The sweeping declaration of England's army board to the effect that the English stock has greatly deteriorated physically may be true or not. Military reports certainly show an alarming increase in the number of men offering themselves for military duty, who are physically unfit for it, but in its economic aspect this deterioration, due to the gathering of great masses of population in towns and cities with its attendant vices, no community can afford to neglect. By gymnastics and military drill in well-ventilated buildings the urban population must have restored to it in as large measure as possible the conditions that make for a healthy body which outdoor manual labor offers to the masses in the country.

A second group of essays concerns itself with the enforcement of sanitary measures among the poor, both in the prevention of overcrowding and in the eradication and prevention of contagion, and with a study of the unemployed.

In an address entitled *Agriculture and the Unemployed Question*, Mr. Haggard discusses the reasons which lead young men to the cities and suggests certain remedial measures which he thinks might well be undertaken. One of these is the purchase and re-selling of land in small portions by a syndicate of men who stand for philanthropy and five per cent. His estimation of the economic competence of the average town man as distinctly above that of the countryman places an under value upon rural life if the same comparison is applied to the United States, and his regret over keeping children in school so long that they cannot later be accustomed to work upon the land, while perhaps a natural sentiment for one who estimates country life so highly, to an American smacks of masses and classes.

Mrs. Bosanquet in a short and enlightening essay sums up the English experience in relief works as a means of meeting distress caused by want of employment, and shows the difficulty of abiding by fixed principles selected *a priori* in a subject as yet so little studied and less understood. She quotes the three conclusions of the Board of Trade in the *Report on Agencies and Methods of Dealing with the Unemployed*, 1893, firstly, that offer of work without discrimination to all applicants is likely to attract large numbers of a class for whom it is unlikely to be of permanent benefit; secondly, the success of relief work is very largely a question of supervision and administration, more careful discipline being required than on ordinary work; thirdly, the most searching test is continuity of employment. Many who will work for weeks together three days in a week, would be weeded out quickly if compelled to work every day. Then follows the discussion of England's *Municipal Labor Bureaus* organized under the act of 1902, and her hope that emigration might prove a remedy against overcrowding. The correspondence of any notable increase of immigration with a period of economic stress gives point to the remark that the English "are too comfortable at home to wish to uproot on a large scale—sensibly more comfortable in each decade."

A third group of essays considers the conditions which produce increased income and its better distribution, and industrial partnership or, as it is more usually called, profit-sharing, is illustrated by citing the plan of the South Metropolitan Gas Company in which four thousand men have an average interest of forty pounds per workman. This investment acts like a vested interest which becomes a wholesome check upon extreme mobility of labor and upon increasing discouragements to owning property. It is in connection with this that the apprentice system is urged to diminish the supply of unskilled labor by diverting young boys to the more skilled industries. The system of allowing a youth "to pick up a trade" and of using "learners," now generally in vogue, is apt to develop him into an incompetent workman, and cannot be said to have adequately taken the place of the apprentice system. Under the new plan, it is proposed that the apprentice live at home instead of with his master, and that he serve under several different masters in succession who bind themselves to teach him his trade thoroughly. The extreme division of labor which, for example, has developed as many as forty-four distinct classes of workmen where a century ago one single butcher with his apron, ax and knife did it all, must interfere with the renewal of the apprentice system on any large scale, and it is more natural that we should look to the trade and technical schools in our cities to provide the knowl-

edge as well as the deftness needed for tasks requiring skill.

In this group of essays there is also a thoughtful study entitled *Wages and House-keeping*, by Mrs. Bosanquet, on the relation of distribution to sufficiency of income as a safeguard and an antidote to the pawning habit. She rejoices over the disappearance of the "general shop," which corresponds with our corner grocery, and which is as surely doomed, and she urges as a substitute the co-operative store whose success has already enabled its patrons to receive a dividend of a shilling and sixpence in the pound in the south of England, while in the north the dividend is almost double.

The last group deals with the problem of distress and its prevention from the standpoint of a larger view of the economic, political and social questions involved. The method of "compounding" the rates, namely, the payment of the poor rates by the landlord for all the tenants on the property in consideration of which the government allows him a rebate not to exceed twenty-five per cent, is declared unwise because indirect and because it deprives the tenant of the feeling of responsibility for civic conditions. While the rich man's rate may be large, it may stand for little while the poor man may prove the more scrutinizing and careful critic. This leads one naturally to Mr. Mackay's paper on *Poor Law Reform*, in which he urges that the distribution of poor-law relief be placed in the hands of a committee of the County Council nominated by the Local Government Board. By this plan he hopes that experts may be secured for its administration and representation may be given to voluntary and endowed charities, and that dis-pauperization may result from a division of labor among these agencies.

In such a wide-reaching discussion as this, the problem of endowed charities comes in for its share of attention. The gifts which represent the thought of another time and are struggling still to serve men in the form of charitable and educational bequests, have in England reached a point where they

are performing their functions imperfectly. To bring these back so that they may be the complement of the statutory system, as they were in the Elizabethan period, is a task of great magnitude, and for this work Mr. Loch urges that a charities board be constituted similar to our state boards of charity. Charity organization committees have in certain instances brought about a co-ordination of resources, but in order that endowments may not become again and again instances of that "strange social paradox"—a charity that makes people less charitable—he believes that a national board which can consistently adapt the gifts of a previous generation as well as those newly created, is a positive need.

In the essay entitled *A School of Sociology*, E. J. Urwick urges the necessity of a revaluation of our various social institutions and a study of social conditions. Possibly the claims of sociology have been over-emphasized by the chairs of sociology in American colleges and universities, but the service that these professorships have rendered in acquiring a more accurate knowledge of social organization has been most helpful. Sociology in both countries is subject to a common danger, namely, that the lecture room shall be too far removed from actual affairs. Every social institution which keeps a record of its investigations and of its work can very well become a laboratory for the social student, and the disassociation of the lecture course from this raw material has been lamentable.

It is, indeed, a good sign and worthy of recognition by learned bodies that a society established primarily for organizing charitable relief should at all times look beyond the problem of the moment to the wider civic needs and give time and thought to a discussion of methods in vogue in paying taxes, to physical training, to the distribution of income among independent as well as dependent, and to the development of an apprentice system which shall accord with the needs of the day, at no time forgetting its original and primary purpose.

Among Prints and Publications

The chief bibliographer of the Library of Congress, A. P. C. Griffin, has compiled a number of serviceable lists of books and periodicals, and the last of these, dealing with the subject of immigration, has just been issued and is of special interest to social workers. Its purpose is to show material on the history of immigration to this country, with discussions of its economic influence, but the list takes in outside works dealing with emigration from one foreign country to another, political and economic studies of conditions abroad, and handbooks issued by several of the western states to encourage settlement. That the list includes

181 titles, with 259 references to periodicals, 100 congressional documents, 50 immigration reports, 31 treasury decisions and 103 consular reports, indicates the richness of the material already in hand bearing upon a subject of such increasing importance in the United States. That much remains to be done, however, in first-hand investigation and exposition of the actual conditions and results of present-day migration, is indicated by the fact that of the references to Italian migration into this country fully half hark—in all modesty be it said—to the special May number of CHARITIES dealing with these strangers within the gates. Only

a few titles have been published in English upon Polish, Hungarian, Slav and Russian immigration, which will be discussed in the December magazine number of CHARITIES—on the Slav and Magyar in America—a number which can only hope to suggest some of the lines of inquiry which open up so fruitful a field that Miss Balch of Wellesley College last spring determined to spend the next two years in making it her special study. Suggestions for this number will be gladly received.

The bibliography is published in an especially workable form. A prefatory note groups writers and subjects as to the special phases of immigration they take up and the attitude of the writer toward this subject. A tabulation of articles by years impresses the reader with the time element in so progressive a movement.

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Very quaint are many of the purposes for which the charitable of earlier generations have left benefactions and endowments, and one of the series of articles which readers of CHARITIES may expect during the coming year will have to do with this very subject, taken up not only in its whimsical, but in its vital considerations by C. C. Carstens, who has made it the subject of his doctor's dissertation. The current issue of the *London Charity Organisation Review* tells of such a benefaction, mention of which is not out of place in a column of book notices, because it shows, if nothing else, what encouraging progress grown folks have made in their estimate of what books are good for the average boy or girl. In the parish of Childwall, Liverpool—the name is not in apropos—a return has just been issued by the Charity Commissioners, showing that Ellen Halsall, by her will dated September 24, 1734, devised an annuity of twenty shillings to the minister of Hale Chapel and his successors in trust, to apply the same yearly in the purchase of "the most easy, choice, valuable, authentic, approved and elaborate treatise of, in, and upon the study, science, art, rudiments and learning of arithmetic and mathematics," to be used by boys born in the township, with a preference to any boys of the Halsall family who might fall into necessitous circumstances, and who, doubtless, would find much consolation in primers of arithmetic.

To revert to a bit of slang:

Wouldn't that make you late? It would the average public school youngster.

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The digest of *Charity Legislation in New York*, which is being published by the New York State Board of Charities as part of its thirty-seventh annual report, has been completed by the state printer and will presently be issued by the board. This work, which covers 1,147 pages, with a copious

index, embraces references to charitable enactments from early colonial days to the close of the nineteenth century. The board believes that such a publication is necessary to a thorough understanding of the history of charity legislation in New York. "From no other source," says the preface, "can this important information, having so direct a bearing upon the welfare of thousands of people, be secured."

While some of the more important statutes are given in full, it has been possible to give only a brief digest of most of the laws affecting the poor and the administration of charity in New York. By opening this field of information to the student, interest ought to be stimulated which should be productive of beneficent results. The digest, moreover, should furnish the basis for a more detailed and comprehensive study of these laws, one that will explain the causes which led to their enactment and the principles or policies upon which they were based. Mr. Heberd and his colleagues are performing a definite service.

The book is divided into three general parts covering, respectively, charitable legislation under the Dutch, under the English and during the period of American statehood.

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As the old round had it, "Nor you, nor I, nor every one knows"—at least not every one who is in receipt of formal communications from the general secretary of the Orange Bureau of Charities—that the signature is that of a man who can write as entertainingly of nature and of such like as made *Snowbound* beautiful, as he does incisively on tramps and mendicants, on evil housing conditions and of the vagaries of wife deserters and chronic paupers. But those who have read William Potts' *From a New England Hillside* will hail with warmth the publication of a second little volume *More Notes from Underledge*,¹ which has just been issued by Dodd, Mead & Co.—a book which mirrors charmingly the life of a peaceful philosopher, one who knew Farmington of eighty years ago, or makes you think he did, and treats of the manners and customs of that time. He is a philosopher who muses over his pets, his occasional visitors and the winds and the scenery with a delicacy of touch and ever-ready sympathy that make one wonder why more good poets have not been practical reformers.

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The Principles of Relief, by Edward Thomas Devine, was issued by the publishers, the Macmillan Company, the past week. A treatise on the theory and practice of charitable relief, applying in detail a relief policy applicable to American conditions, falls so entirely within the field of CHARITIES that an easy way of describing

¹ "More Notes from Underledge." Potts, Wm. Dodd, Mead & Co., 12mo. cloth, net \$1.00.

it is to outline its main divisions. These are four in number.¹

I.—PRINCIPLES.

There are sixteen chapters in part I., as follows:

- I Social Debtors.
- II Essentials of Relief Policy.
- III Standard of Living.
- IV Elimination of Disease.
- V Housing Problem.
- VI Relief of Families at Home.
- VII Relief as Modified by the Constitution of the Family.
- VIII Breaking up of Families.
- IX Dependent Children.
- X Dependent Adults.
- XI Family Desertion.
- XII Intemperance.
- XIII Industrial Displacement.
- XIV Immigration.
- XV Discrimination in Relief.
- XVI Restatement and Conclusion.

II.—TYPICAL RELIEF PROBLEMS.

A digest of seventy-five actual cases.

III.—HISTORICAL SURVEY.

- I The Reform of the English Poor Law.
- II Public Outdoor Relief in America.
- III Private Outdoor Relief in America.
- IV.—EMERGENCY RELIEF IN DISASTERS.
 - I The Chicago Fire.
 - II The Johnstown Flood.
 - III The Paterson Fire and Flood.
 - IV The Hard Times of 1893-4.
 - V The Baltimore Fire.
 - VI "General Slocum" Disaster.

In line with a broad campaign of education, the executive officers of the National Child-labor Committee are engaged in the preparation of a classified bibliography, in order that those who may desire to inform themselves on the conditions of child labor in this and other countries, and the progress of restrictive legislation, may be able to know what has been written on the subject. The committee is gathering a valuable collection of newspaper clippings, pamphlet literature and special reports, as well as of books and monographs relating to child labor. It will appreciate the co-operation of any person who will bring to its attention any book, pamphlet, or article on this subject, published in any part of the United States. Where it is possible for those interested to send copies of reports of addresses, of local investigations, or of any material whatsoever, they will be carefully preserved in the files of the committee and made available for workers in other fields. This is a practical form of co-operation for every one interested in child labor.

The committee is also preparing leaflets dealing with such general topics as *Child Labor and the Public School*, *What Parents Owe Their Children*, *the History of Child-*

¹ *The Principles of Relief*, Devine, Edward T. Macmillan. Cloth, 12mo., 498 pages, \$2.

labor Legislation in the United States, *The Essentials of a Good Child-labor Law*, *The Experiences of Different Communities in the Enforcement of Child-labor Legislation*, *Children at Work in Various Industries*, *Methods of Work for Investigators*, *How to Co-operate with those who Enforce the Law*, *How to Maintain Effective the Interest of Local Bodies*, and a number of other topics. These will be issued from time to time for distribution through state and local committees, clubs and associations.

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For a year past, CHARITIES has published occasional articles by Miss Frances A. Kellor, resulting from her investigations into the question of employment agencies, as fellow of the College Settlements Association, and on October 22 announcement was made of the formation of an inter-municipal committee to take up in a systematic way other problems which group themselves naturally about the household. It is especially timely, therefore, that Miss Kellor's book, *Out of Work*,² "a study of employment agencies, their treatment of the unemployed and their influence upon homes and business," has been issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons. It contains the record of the practical investigations made by Miss Kellor and her assistants in New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Chicago, investigations which were carried on both in the capacity of employer and in the guise of servants, teachers, stenographers, models and general workers seeking positions.

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"The never-ceasing battle with poverty and the degeneracy of the pauper and the vagrant who are beaten in the struggle," is the ground cut out for himself by Robert Hunter in his book on *Poverty*³ just issued by the Macmillan Company. That a person in Mr. Hunter's position should estimate that ten million people fall within this category should be enough to gain readers for the book in an effort to ascertain this ground. The writer has had a number of vantage points from which to glean experience and data bearing upon the subject. In Chicago he was for several years a resident at Hull House, organizing secretary of the Bureau of Charities, superintendent of the Municipal Lodging-house and chairman of a tenement inquiry committee which did good work under the City Homes Association. Coming to New York, Mr. Hunter was brought face to face with the ingrowing problems of the East Side as head-worker of the University Settlement, and was personally interested in directing a number of special inquiries, inquiries that dealt with such varied subjects as child labor, tuberculosis, fake installment sales, civic centers and the like.

² *Out of Work*, Kellor, Frances A. Putnam's. 12mo. \$1.35.

³ *Poverty*, Hunter, Robert. Macmillan. Cloth. 12mo. \$1.50.

Loose Threads in a Skein

The plea of a too common complaint was put succinctly on a postal card which found its way to a New York charitable organization, thus:

"Please call to see me as I am in need of health and oblige,

"Mrs. —."

To be appreciated one must go abroad, and therefore it is that an American eye lights with rare gusto upon an item which appeared last month in one of the English hospital publications, giving what purports to be the yell of the class of 1904 at Wichita (Kan.) Training School for Nurses:

Staphylococcus, streptococcus,
Microbes all!
Sterilize and fumigate,
Watch them crawl!
Big germs, little germs,
Short and tall;
Fat germs, lean germs,
We kill them all!
Antisepsis, that's our call,
We're the largest class of all!

"We are glad that English nurses," says the English journal, "do not find it necessary to yell."

MORE OF MRS. MALAPROP UNDER ECONOMIC STRESS.

It will be remembered that a prize of a big red apple has been offered by this department of CHARITIES for the most whimsical list of words and sayings run across by social workers in dealing with applicants or others. The competition opened with a list from the Associated Charities of Washington. Here are some rivals from the registration bureau of the New York Charity Organization Society:

"A flying kidney."
"Brain fever in the head."
"Vowles out of order."
"Justice Memorial Church."
"A Catskin growing over his sight."
"The sitting hospital."
"Cut wood until his hands were covered with whelps."

An inquiry for "The Society for the Perdition of the Poor."

Some folks' notions of how to help a charitable institution run contrariwise to common sense, or, as Dr. W. P. Jacobs, superintendent of the Thornwell Orphanage of Clinton, S. C., expresses it, "The first thing you know somebody will get hurt if this thing goes on"—a remark brought out by a letter received from a southern brother. "I want to help the orphanage all I can," ran the letter, "and have long wanted to be of service to it. So I have hunted up an orphan boy I want to send you. He is the terror of our little town; so I think I will have no trouble in getting the con-

sent of parties in sending him. We all rejoice in your noble work!" Commenting upon this letter in his little orphanage publication *Our Monthly*, Dr. Jacobs admits he is like Bre'r Rabbit or Bre'r Fox, he forgets which—"We ain't sayin' nothin'."

A bit of color is lent to an annual report just issued by Webb's Academy and Home for Shipbuilders, which, in compliance with the wishes of its founder, combines a trade school and a home for aged, indigent or unfortunate men "who have been engaged in building hulls of vessels or marine engines of such in any section of the United States, together with the wives or widows of such persons." In his address to the students last June, T. Commerford Martin, past president of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, told some personal reminiscences of the formative days of his life passed in the shops of Thomas Alva Edison, who, in spite of the genius that has caused the world to regard him as our typical Yankee inventor, often says that the only inspiration he knows is perspiration. "To work twelve hours at a stretch is a fair stint," said the speaker, "but I have known his demand on our efforts to run to twenty-four hours and then forty-eight hours, and even seventy-two. The work of years was thus concentrated into a few hours, and it is needless to say that such continuity of attack on the secrets of nature was rewarded by some of the most notable inventions of which the last century or any century has record. I do not commend such a strain, but one who goes through an ordeal like that comes out of it with a sense of having lived to some purpose, especially when tangible and glorious achievement follows. We used to wonder, half asleep, how Edison stood it, for only a body of steel and a soul of flame could endure the rigors. I well remember that Nikola Tesla, the great electrical inventor, who had entered Edison's employ soon after coming to this country, asked him what the secret was. Ever ready with a joke, even after weary hours of fruitless research, Edison said laughingly: 'Oh, that's easy! Eat a Welsh rarebit for breakfast every morning.' Sure enough, Tesla went off, nothing doubting, and ate his toasted cheese as a morning meal for some weeks, until at last his doctors intervened. Whether in joke or in earnest, we were kept up to the search for the goal with a push of an irresistible energy. Did a man feel that he was working at a profitless solution of some difficulty and go back to the 'Old Man' with a complaint or a sigh, he got simply the laconic injunction: 'Fool with it till you do.' And we fooled till we did. The father of a young man came to him for a motto that the boy could take out into active life with him. 'Never look at the clock,' said Edison."

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In the Field of Politics. CHARITIES has no politics. It is not, however, without a certain degree of interest to point out that the man whom the American people have chosen to be president for the next four years is the man who, as governor of New York, appointed the Tenement-house Commission of 1900; that the man who has been chosen to be governor of the state of New York has made an authoritative statement in regard to the management of charitable institutions which has been hailed with satisfaction by all good citizens; and that the man who has been chosen to be attorney-general of New York, won his present favorable reputation in large measure as Justice Mayer of the Children's Court of the city of New York.

It is to be hoped that an analysis of the attitude of successful candidates in other states toward charitable and social matters will afford equal ground for satisfaction. That certainly has been the case in Colorado, where after efforts to defeat Judge Lindsey of the Children's Court, in the primaries, in the conventions and in the courts, he was nominated by all political parties and carried the city of Denver against an independent candidate put up by a local machine, by a clean majority of 50,000 votes.

The Corlears Hook Park. Corlears Hook Park is located on New York's East Side just where the river makes a magnificent bend opposite the Brooklyn Navy Yard. With the exception of the Battery, it is by far the best site for a river front park on Manhattan. But a narrow strip of land between the park and the water is owned by private parties. And the exact angle of the bend has been held, so it has always been declared, by an estate which could not dis-

pose of it to the city because the heirs were minors.

During the Low administration, East Side social workers centered their efforts on the acquisition of the river front strip. The project was practically through the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in December, when a technical flaw was discovered in the official advertisement, and the matter was laid over with assurances from the hold-over members of the board that the incoming administration would take it up.

No steps have been taken. Meanwhile ground is being broken for a ten-story mill on the point-site which the officials had stated could not be purchased, and report has it that the water front may similarly be built upon, shutting in the park.

There is only one possibility of forestalling the erection of the mill at the point. That would be an exchange of water front property a few blocks north now used as a city yard. It is a bad chance, but a chance. But there is no reason why any attempt to buy up and build up the river shore before the park, cannot be forestalled by the city authorities.

The incident shows, once more, the need for co-ordinated, intelligent action affecting the park situation in New York. Not only are the wrong sites likely to be purchased, but the right sites are being lost.

Family Desertion Legislation in New York State. The committee on desertion of the New York State Conference of Charities, of which Frank E. Wade of Buffalo is chairman and the appointment of which grew out of a conference called by the New York Charity Organization Society in April, 1903, held its final meeting in New York on

November 4, and adopted a draft of a desertion bill which it recommends to the charitable organizations of this state for endorsement. The decision reached by the committee, but not without a sharp difference of opinion, limits the scope of the bill specifically to abandonment of children on the part of either parent or other person charged with the care and custody of a child, and makes this a felony punishable with imprisonment for a period not to exceed two years, or a fine of one thousand dollars, or both. This fine may be applied in the discretion of the court to the support of the abandoned child. The exclusion of wife desertion where the welfare of children is not involved, from the provisions of the bill was made on the grounds that charitable societies rarely find it necessary to make provision for deserted wives who have no children, that such desertions are more frequently spurious or in part justifiable, and because it was felt that a community that is ready to stamp the abandonment of children as a felony may not be willing to include desertion of a wife without children in the same category.

The proposed legislation takes the form of an amendment to chapter 3, of title 10 of the New York penal code, but does not affect sections 287, 288, or 289, or other existing provisions of law relating to abandonment or other acts of cruelty to children.

The amendment would add a new section as follows:

293a. Abandonment of children: A parent or other person charged with the care or custody for nurture or education of a child under the age of sixteen years, who abandons the child in destitute circumstances and wilfully omits to furnish necessary and proper food, clothing or shelter for such child is guilty of felony, punishable by imprisonment for not more than two years, or by a fine not to exceed one thousand dollars, or by either or both.

In case a fine is imposed the same may be applied in the discretion of the court to the support of such child. Proof of the abandonment of such child in destitute circumstances and omission to furnish necessary and proper food, clothing or shelter is *prima facie* evidence that such omission is wilful. The provisions of section 715 of the code prohibiting the disclosure of confidential communications between husband and wife shall not apply to prosecutions for the offense here defined. A previous conviction

or convictions of felony or misdemeanor shall not prevent the court from suspending sentence upon a conviction under this section, or from arbitrarily fixing the limit of imprisonment or fine, in case the imprisonment or fine is imposed upon conviction herein.

*The New York
Juvenile
Asylum.*

The comprehensive plans for a cottage colony at Dobbs Ferry, N. Y., for the New York Juvenile Asylum,¹ are nearing fruition and on Wednesday, October 26, the friends of the asylum were invited to inspect the progress the work has made. The ceremonies were in fact of a dedicatory nature; a large number of guests were present and some 300 of the children sang.

Mornay Williams, president of the board of directors, presided, Dr. Donald Sage Mackay acted as chaplain, and addresses were made by Mr. Williams, Supt. Charles D. Hilles and Dr. Enoch V. Stoddard, president of the State Board of Charities. Mr. Williams stated that a large part of the credit for the carrying out of the undertaking was due to Mr. Hilles. The latter outlined the plan of the new colony both as to buildings and methods in this, one of the most resourceful experiments yet undertaken for treating delinquent boys. Dr. Stoddard expressed the interest of the state board in the new venture of an old institution.

After the exercises, the visitors were given opportunity to inspect the buildings and grounds. The location is ideal. Fifteen cottages are nearing completion, and one schoolhouse, and a power house are almost ready for occupancy. Two cottages one a dormitory, and the other an individual room cottage, have been put in complete order and gave an idea of what all will be like in arrangement and home-like interiors. The cottages will each house twenty boys, the dormitory cottages having two dormitories of ten beds each and the house cottages having twenty single rooms.

None of the buildings is yet occupied, but the advanced stage of the work indicates that within a short time a beginning will be made and another of New York's old barracks institutions will be spread out on a hillside. Of what this has meant in the case of the New York Orphan Asylum

¹ See CHARITIES, May 3, 1903.

Mr. Reeder's articles running in the magazine numbers of CHARITIES are concretely expressive.

*Seeking a Site
for the
New Boys'
Training School.*

The commission appointed to select a site for the New York State Training School for Boys, which is to take the place of the House of Refuge on Randall's Island, has been looking about for a suitable place upon which to locate the school. The statute, chapter 718 of the laws of 1904, provides that the commission, of which State Comptroller Otto H. Kelsey is chairman, shall select suitable lands, comprising one thousand acres as near as may be, within fifty miles of the city of New York upon which the school is to be located, provided the legislature of 1905 approves the selection and makes the necessary appropriation to purchase the property. The commission desires to find a good, but not a high-priced site, a considerable part of which shall be good farming land. There must be a good water supply, suitable facilities for sewage disposal and convenience of access to the railroad, so that a switch can be constructed on the school lands. It is to be hoped that the commission will be able to find such a site in time to present its report to the incoming legislature.

*Plans for Public
Charities of the
City of Cleveland.*

The Director of Charities and Correction of Cleveland, Ohio, announces the inauguration of an exceedingly important reorganization, with an entirely new plant and buildings, of the municipal provision for the care of the dependents of that city. He is quoted in *Co-operation* as follows:

"In the first place we will have 1291 acres to start with—the 850 just purchased, and the 441 acres of the city cemetery land immediately adjoining. It will be many years before the cemetery is used as such, and we can safely count on having 250 acres of it for 'colony' use for the next fifty years.

"This fall we will send a number of able-bodied infirm inmates to the great farm, and possibly a family or two, to build roads and remove the timber growth in places, and develop several natural springs. They will live in some of the farmhouses on the tract. Employés of

the city engineering and park departments will begin the work of laying out the colony site on symmetrical and pleasing lines. Next spring we will begin to build the main infirmary building—a large, plain, comfortable two-story structure—where the aged and helpless inmates will be housed.

"Then the construction of the cottages for the other inmates will be begun. These cottages will be grouped around the main building. A number of inmates will be housed in each cottage, and will have a dining-room and sitting-room in common, but each married couple or single person will have individual sleeping quarters, and a little patch of ground or garden all their own.

"We will build the infirmary buildings just as fast as we can get money. We will have at least \$25,000 in the infirmary fund to start with. The sale of the present infirmary grounds and buildings will bring us about \$90,000, and the sale of our Lorain street farm will bring \$50,000 more. This money will erect all the new infirmary buildings.

"After the infirmary buildings, we will build a detention hospital at the colony farm. Next a tuberculosis sanitarium will be built, and the present sanitarium building will be used as a hospital for contagious diseases. Then a convalescent hospital will be built, where convalescent patients will be taken from the City Hospital. With the new contagious and detention hospitals, the City Hospital would be greatly relieved, and would be used as an emergency hospital. The colony farm is the highest point in the county, and is an ideal location for the new tuberculosis sanatorium."

Thus far the plan sounds peculiarly attractive and seems likely, if carried into effect wisely, to place the city of Cleveland in the first rank of American cities in its care of the sick and poor. The director of charities and correction goes on to say, however, that:

"Ultimately, perhaps within a few years, the workhouse will also be located at the colony village. To-day the present workhouse and grounds could be sold for \$100,000, which would amply provide for the new workhouse buildings. Many prisoners could be worked on the farm.

"A home for girls along the lines of the Cleveland boys' farm, and a home for drunkards—that is, a place to cure men of the drink habit—are also probabilities. All these institutions could be widely scattered over the great tract of land, and not conflict with each other in any way."

It is to be hoped that these latter plans will not be carried out. It would, in our opinion, be most unfortunate to add either penal institutions or institutions for children to the general colony plan above outlined for the care of the sick and the poor. The children should certainly be cared for elsewhere for their own good, and the prisoners should be cared for elsewhere than at the institution for the sick and poor.

*In the Wake
of Pudd'n Head
Wilson.*

The exhibits at the St. Louis Exposition of bureaus of criminal identification are already bearing fruit. The address last month by John Kenneth Ferrier before the National Prison Association, and reviewed by Dr. Barrows in CHARITIES of October 29, attracted widespread attention among the practical prison men present. Almost simultaneously comes the announcement that the Baltimore police department has adopted the finger-print system which is the distinctive feature of the system in use at Scotland Yard, London, and which is in use also by the New York State Prison Department.

The movement in this direction is a matter of concern not alone to prison manager and detective force, however. The necessity of accurate physical descriptions in cases of migratory mendicants of a criminal or semi-criminal type makes it of keen interest to the medicancy department of the New York Charity Organization Society and to workers of other charitable organizations and agencies who must deal with vagrants of this class. Perhaps the greatest drawback to the general adoption of a scientifically accurate system of identification in this country has been the relatively great cost for plant and operation required by the Bertillon system of identification, until recently the recognized standard in this field. The method of identification by thumb prints has long been known in quarters more official than those which lent themselves to the whimsical minis-

trations of Pudd'n Head Wilson, but the difficulty has been to devise a system of classification by which a particular thumb print among the many impressions on file would reveal itself when wanted. This difficulty has been overcome at Scotland Yard.

The apparatus for taking finger prints consists merely of a sheet of glass, a small rubber roller, a little printer's ink and a sheet of white paper. The individual whose finger or thumb print is to be taken presses it upon the sheet of glass, over which a thin coating of the ink has been spread by the roller, and then presses it on the sheet of paper, making a print or impression.

It is claimed by those having practical knowledge of this method of identification that the thumb print impression alone renders identification by a central bureau possessing a similiar impression absolute. For a number of years to come, however, it is probable that some features of the Bertillon or other systems will be retained as auxiliaries, particularly such features as photography and simple physical descriptions.

Pending the possible abandonment of the more cumbrous and intricate features of the Bertillon system, however, it will be a simple matter for police departments possessing the Bertillon plant to add the simple thumb print apparatus to their equipment, thus establishing a bureau capable of useful interchange with the officials of smaller cities and rural townships who, it is to be hoped, will acquire the new system.

*English
Sanatoria for
Workers.*

The National Committee for the Establishment of Sanatoria for Workers Suffering from Tuberculosis is the self-explanatory, if cumbrous title of an English organization formed in May of 1903, under the auspices of the Hospital Saturday Fund. It is "an exceedingly representative body," under the presidency of the Right Hon. Sir Savile Crossley, Bart., M. V. O., M. P., and includes all the great friendly societies and trade unions which have branches in London.

In a circular recently issued by the committee its work is described substantially as follows:

By means of subscribed funds it is proposed to erect a first-class sanatorium for the accommodation of two hundred patients, on a scale less expensive than anything hitherto attempted, but without sacrificing any feature essential to efficiency. It is intended that the sanatorium shall be self-maintaining. In allotting beds a strong preference will be given to patients in the earliest stages of the disease. A feature of the scheme is that selected patients whose disease is arrested, shall perform a certain amount of outdoor work, and that, in time, a properly equipped farm for the partial training of suitable cases in agricultural and allied pursuits may be developed. It is hoped that in this way they may be fitted for a return to wage-earning under conditions which will not bring about relapses.

Notes of the Week.

State Conferences of Charities.—Three state conferences of Charities and Correction are in session this week, the Iowa at Sioux City, the Missouri at Springfield and the Massachusetts at the New England city of the same name. Three more state conferences follow next week: New York at Syracuse; Indiana at Terra Haute and Illinois at Rockford.

The Terra Haute conference meets under the presidency of Demarchus M. Brown. One of the strong features of these Indiana conferences are the "round tables." Five are planned this year—on state institutions, county charities, city charities, dependent children and delinquent and neglected children. Among the "out-staters" in attendance will be Prof. Charles R. Henderson and Ernest P. Bickwell of Chicago, and Alexander Johnson, secretary of the National Conference.

The Illinois conference meets under the presidency of John A. Brown of Decatur. Several important reports are anticipated, notably on county charitable and correctional work, juvenile courts, woman's reformatory work and care of feeble-minded women, relation of women's clubs to public institutions, care of epileptics and tuberculosis.

Neighborhood Workers' Association.—In order to be of use to the volunteer workers in the settlements of New York city, the Neighborhood Workers' Association has decided to begin two classes. The first classes will open November 16, at 10.30, for ten weeks, one lesson each week. The lessons will be given at Hartley House, 413 Forty-sixth street. Miss Hofer and Miss Cooley, who will conduct the courses, are instruc-

tors at Teachers' College. Miss Hofer's work includes lectures and demonstrations in the art of conducting organized play. She will give suggestions also as to the most effective way of arranging for festivals in the clubs and settlements, and will suggest songs and music. Miss Cooley will instruct club leaders and class teachers so that they may help the children in various kinds of hand-work, basketry, weaving, raffia and cord-work. Applications should be made to Miss May Matthews, 413 West Forty-sixth street.

Twelve Years in St. Paul.—The Associated Charities of St. Paul held its twelfth annual meeting October 10. The steady gain which this society shows is encouraging. The number of workers has been nearly doubled during the six years. A. W. Gutridge has had charge of the work, with a corresponding increase in financial support. The general secretary in his report emphasized that while the society is a bureau of information concerning the needy for the use of all the charities of the city, its principal business is non-material relief giving, strengthening defective personality; that after the material relief is supplied the principal part of the charity work remains to be done. Friendly visiting is on an especially strong footing in St. Paul.

An Army Post Tuberculosis Camp.—A tent camp for fifty cases of tuberculosis has been established in the grounds of the Naval Hospital, at Pensacola, Fla., pending the selection of an abandoned army post for a permanent sanatorium for the treatment of cases of tuberculosis arising in the United States Navy and Marine Corps. The Bureau of Medicine and Surgery, of the Navy Department, is now making a study of the abandoned posts in favorable locations, but the authority of congress will be required before a title can be acquired and work begun by the Navy Department.

Negroes in Baltimore.—The Maryland Bureau of Statistics and Information is about to make an investigation into the industrial condition of negroes in Baltimore city, with a view of ascertaining just what advancement has been made by that race. The police department of the city by order of the police board, will take up the census, which will afterwards be compiled and analyzed by the bureau and published in its annual report.—*The Charities Record.*

New York Suburban Home for Convalescent Women.—The Pelham Home for Convalescent Women was opened on October 19, and it is now ready to take women alone or with one child. If suitable applicants are found, the matron, Mrs. S. N. Moore, asks that she be communicated with beforehand. Her post-office address is Pelham Manor, station Pelham, and telephone 23 Pelham Manor.

How a Tuberculosis Association Was Formed in a Small City

Harriet E. Thomas

Secretary Charity Organization Society, Newport, Rhode Island

A striking example of what good work may be brought about by the quiet influence of a public-spirited man is shown in the organizing of the Tuberculosis Association in Newport, R. I.

Less than one year ago, J. Truman Burdick, who had been quietly interesting his friends in the crusade against tuberculosis carried on in other cities, persuaded the Charity Organization Society, of which he was a charter member, to present that work to the general public at its annual meeting. The speaker chosen was Dr. William H. Peters, of Pine Ridge Camp, near Providence, who aroused an interest in the subject which was followed up by appointing a committee from the Charity Organization Society to confer with the Newport Medical Association, the Board of Health and the Newport Hospital, with the idea of a permanent organization.

Newport's situation is exceptionally favorable for stamping out this disease and its popularity as a summer resort has appealed strongly to the commercial spirit of the people as an incentive to cleanse the city from anything which might endanger the health of the community and make it less attractive to the summer visitors.

The last report of the Board of Health gives the percentage of deaths from tuberculosis as about eleven per cent. The report is incomplete because of indifference of physicians in sending data. This large percentage and the fact that successive reports show tuberculosis to be on the increase were reasons for taking immediate steps toward its prevention, but these facts failed to arouse the enthusiasm of the people to the point of action.

The city is fortunate in having as a summer resident Dr. Henry Barton Jacobs of Baltimore, secretary of the National Tuberculosis Association, and a general meeting of the people was called to listen to a practical address delivered

by him on tuberculosis and its prevention. Enough interest was aroused to inspire James Brett Stokes and others to take active steps to provide necessary funds for the work. During the season, through this enthusiastic leader and others of the summer residents, about \$7,000 was collected for the use of the association and enough sustaining members obtained to insure a fair income indefinitely or until the community has been educated, the disease has been practically wiped out and the local Board of Health can hold it in check.

The association has outlined its work along generous lines. It has a committee on relief and care to look after the needs of individual cases; each patient referred to the association is examined by the dispensary committee of five physicians who separate the hopeful from the hopeless cases and advise as to home or institution treatment. A committee on education has arranged for a series of lectures to be delivered by the physicians to the teachers of the public schools and others to the general public and it also has a large amount of matter printed for general distribution.

A thorough disinfection of all houses where tubercular cases have lived in recent years is to be taken up with the Board of Health. The necessity of milk inspection has been made a strong point and has been so thoroughly discussed that the milkmen of the city and vicinity have had meetings to arrange for general plans to meet the requirements of the association. Arrangements have been made also to send some patients to Pine Ridge Camp, R. I., where land has been given by Mr. Stokes and cabins donated by generous Newporters, so that a permanent haven is provided for needy cases.

To keep all these interests active and to centralize responsibility, a secretary has been engaged who will take general charge of the work. The association is fortunate

in securing for this position Christopher Easton, who has for some time been in charge of the Tuberculosis Infirmary on Blackwell's Island, N. Y., and who brings with him not only this helpful experience, but also a thorough knowledge

of milk inspection and its needs. The citizens of Newport and the press have given to the association a generous sympathy that has been inspiring and hopeful, and it begins its work with confidence and courage.

American Charities in German Eyes

When Emil Münsterberg, president of the department of public charities of Berlin, visited America this fall to study American charities, he found a good many men and methods and movements to compare with his own work. One thing only he could not comprehend, and continued to speak of with wonder, and to turn about curiously before his deep-seeing German eyes, and that was the emulsion of charity and politics which he found in every city under the name of public relief administration.

"You must work earnestly against this," he said. "I cannot believe that such a condition of affairs can stand against public opinion and it is for you to create this public opinion and take the departments of charities, tenements and health as much out of politics as you have the department of education."

On the hasty comparison of a hard-driven traveler these things were found much further advanced or in greater number in America: private and non-religious charitable organizations; preventive work of many kinds; the spirit of benevolence prompting to large gifts; the spirit of self-support among the masses of the population, the standards of the paid charity and social workers. On the other hand, the public charities of Germany distribute relatively more relief, in charge of trained workers and with the help of hosts of volunteer helpers, all in a frictionless, undisturbed manner in which political parties and patronage have no part.

A report will be published by Dr. Münsterberg in his magazine, *Zeitschrift für das Armenwesen*, but for American workers he anticipated this to a certain extent in an interview with a representative of CHARITIES. The paper on *The Problem of Poverty* which he read before the Congress of Arts and Science at St. Louis and before the New York School of

Philanthropy, will lead to a lively interest in his impressions after they have been thought out in the atmosphere of his own work and ideals. Dr. Münsterberg said:

"Three years ago I wrote a paper on American charities, drawing my information from literary sources and the reading of reports and discussions. I gave my German readers my impression of the great variety of American charities and told them that private charities were here much more extensive and of greater value than those under public administration. I said, too, that the private charities were greater in number and more varied than those in Germany. I am glad that during my present trip I have had an opportunity to supplement my impressions gained by reading by a personal and more precise study of the work done in several American cities.

"I directed my attention primarily to a study of the endeavor to promote co-operation among different societies and workers, in the recognition that has come of the importance for different charities in the same city and same country not only to work in the right way toward the accomplishment of their own purposes, but to have accurate information of the work and methods of others and to proceed together with intelligence, in a way that on the one hand will teach the public the best way to do charitable work, and on the other will help the poor by the surest and most appropriate means that may be enlisted in their behalf. As a corollary, co-operation rightly carried out must prevent the giving of alms to worthless persons, and the protection of the public from beggars, vagrants and impostors.

"It is in these ways that co-operation works in Chicago, Boston and New York, the cities in which I have given careful attention to a study of it. In these three, if it is not successful, I think it is not

the fault of the method nor of the men and women engaged in the work, but the fault of a human institution which has to deal with different personalities, on the side of the giver hard to teach, and on the side of the receiver in conditions which it is very difficult to improve. The striking feature of the co-operative work of your organized charities is the registration, by which accurate records are kept in accessible form, and brought to date every day. It is much to be desired that their use be extended until no one begins giving aid to an individual or to a family without consulting them.

"To me it was surprising to find that the work is done chiefly by paid agents who are assisted by greatly varying numbers of volunteer helpers. The number of the latter seems to be very small in New York and Chicago, but large enough in Boston where I was told there are one thousand. In the administration of the poor law in Germany we have to deal chiefly with volunteers who give of their leisure and service. The paid worker is almost unknown other than in clerical or routine positions, and conditions are such that one who works for pay is on a lower standard than the volunteers. Quite the opposite is the case in those charity organizations in America which I had opportunity to know best. The paid workers are men and women of good education who make a profession of their work. They are well trained by their organizations and by the newly organized schools of philanthropy. I think that in the paid workers of the societies I studied most, there is as much ability, knowledge and devotion as can be desired of volunteers.

"In spite of many instances of affiliation I was surprised to find only a few societies in a really close relation. Nevertheless, the connection between societies is much closer than it seems on superficial examination. It is not based on formal expressions of co-operation. A very great deal is done by the general secretaries and managers and it is through the personal relations existing among them that real co-operation is chiefly brought about. In New York I met nearly all of the principal officers and understood that they form a sort of social regiment which does not need written by-laws because they

work with the utmost knowledge and science and with an admirable devotion, all on similar lines and in hearty accord with each other. The effect is that much is accomplished by personal agreement and understanding, and that all the secretaries endeavor to raise the standard of the whole.

"I had the pleasure of meeting some of the presidents and trustees of the charitable organizations of New York. From this meeting I carried away a vivid impression of men who devote not only their money but their knowledge, their time and, above all, their hearts to charitable and social work. One who is not familiar with the conditions of American public life cannot understand why these men are not the heads of the different departments of the public administration, but public administration is so mingled with politics, that charitable people are not inclined to give their means or their energies to public relief work because they are not sure that both will not be abused. In New York and Brooklyn there is a strange state of affairs. Not a cent is spent in public outdoor relief. Boston spends from \$70,000 to \$80,000, an amount small in comparison with the amount of outdoor relief distributed by German poor boards. But because the need of outdoor relief is not to be contested, private charitable organizations supplement the failing public work and in many cases distribute large sums annually. The city itself contributes to charitable institutions for the aged and infirm, to hospitals for the sick, and children in private institutions, chiefly orphanages, are paid for at a certain sum per head.

"I saw a good deal of the public charitable institutions, but cannot judge whether or not the number is sufficient or whether it is a just complaint that often persons are admitted only as they have influence, or whether there is waste of money in erecting the plants. But in all that I have seen the buildings and the management deserve praise and in part admiration, perhaps the buildings of newer construction, such as the Cook county institutions at Dunning, are somewhat too luxurious, and perhaps the Blackwell's Island almshouse is somewhat too old-

fashioned. But the management and condition of all the public and private institutions I have seen is good. The sums expended are surprising, especially the amount derived from private sources.

"It is very difficult to judge whether the whole amount of the expenditures for public work and private charities is sufficient for the needs of the poor population. If we compare the population of Germany with that of the United States and the sums spent in public and private relief, I think that the amount spent in the United States would seem insufficient; but it is not possible to thus compare the two countries because of widely varying conditions. Our people are more accustomed to receiving help of various kinds than are Americans, and this is a leading factor in the drawing of a comparison. A second factor is the stand taken by private societies in America in favor preventive measures, and a third their effort to give work to all who are in need of it. Without doubt there is more opportunity in America for those who are willing to work than there is in older countries.

"The spirit of self-support is stimulated, too, by the so-called social settlements. We have establishments connected with our parishes, which are provided with sisters working under the direction

of the clergy, but their work is more strictly charitable and religious than social, such as is characteristic of the neighborhood work done by the leader of the American settlement assisted by his residents. These wish to live with the neighbors on democratic lines. They excite and promote manifold forces of self-support, of education, of physical and psychical training, and heighten the standard of the whole population in which they live. It is not alone the work which is done, but primarily the spirit of neighborliness, kind-hearted, devoted, understanding finely the needs of the people, which distinguishes this work. The men and women who are the heads of these settlements are a type of high-spirited and educated devotees who give their personalities to their fellow citizens without stint. It is a real pleasure to stay with them and to enjoy the gay and simple spirit of their houses.

"It is very difficult to express impressions immediately after having received them and I hope that what I have said will not be taken as a definite judgment. But I can say definitely that I have formed a strong impression that the charge of utilitarianism which is so frequently applied to American institutions, must be withheld in the field of charities and social work; indeed, that, on the other hand, we are discussing a work and a spirit of unlimited idealism."

Donors of Russian Charities a New Class

With the development of industrialism in certain of the great urban centers of Russia, tendencies are observable which have especially characterized America during the last half century, according to M. Jules Goujon, a Frenchman who has been a resident of the empire for thirty-nine years and is a member of the Board of Trade of Moscow. What President Hadley of Yale has enjoined as the trusteeship of wealth perhaps expresses the tendency which M. Goujon has been impressed with as the grounds for similarity between the two countries, claiming indeed, that, in this respect, what might be called the "new Russia" more closely approximates America than do any of the other Euro-

pean countries. With the development of great factories, mills and foundries, there has risen a class of men not of the nobility, unused to the heritage from one generation to another of great estates, men who have made money easily and give easily, and who are establishing in a hundred ways enduring philanthropies through bequests and through generous gifts before their deaths.

The French colony in Moscow has itself founded a number of large charities. Many of these are identified with *Paroisse Francaise of St. Louis*, a French Catholic church founded in 1789, about which are grouped not only schools for girls and boys, children of the French colony, but an asylum for aged persons

in which certain of the couples live together. M. Goujon is an officer of the parish as well as counsel for the French Mutual Society of Moscow and an honorary member of the *Association de Bienfaisance*, so that he has intimate knowledge of philanthropic movements in Moscow more than the average business man.

Each society is required upon its organization, to make application to St. Petersburg. At the end of six or eight months, an instrument of some forty paragraphs, defining its scope, is issued by the minister of the interior. Once this commission is in hand it is very seldom disturbed. To change a word of it so as to modify the work of the society is a matter of moving mountains. All resources of charitable organizations must be in real estate, state bonds, or funds in the Imperial Bank, and reports are rendered annually to St. Petersburg.

Poor relief of the city had for four years been carried forward on a modification of the Elberfeld system, Moscow, with its million and a quarter people being divided into fourteen districts. Workhouses are maintained in connection.

"There is a new class of Russians," says M. Goujon, "of whom little has doubtless been heard in America, who in their sympathies and actions resemble very closely some of your foremost business men. They are the founders of the schools and hospitals which are springing up all over. In Russia, as in America, the fathers of some of these most prosperous men have been very poor; the sons have been self-made.

"A difference between Russia and America is that while here a charitable undertaking is started, endowed and run privately, in Russia it is turned over to the local authorities and managed by hospital and charity boards. When a man gives enough to pay for the organization of an institution and its maintenance it is given his name by the town. In Moscow for instance there are some of the finest clinics in Europe some enormous buildings in all. In Moscow and St. Petersburg all workmen have to pay a small annual sum to secure their admission to these hospitals in the case of sickness. In other towns and

in the country the hospitals are free and the confidence of the peasants in the institutions has been won.

"Similarly in the case of schools. The government gives very little money for public schools, and not many private ones are carried on, for, from the government standpoint, they are likely to teach matters not on the official program, but in the cities and provinces local boards are nominated representing the people and schools are founded by citizens of wealth and turned over to these.

"In Moscow also, there are some fifteen day nurseries. Another enterprise is a great lodging-house maintained by the Brothers Liapin where 16,000 people can be accommodated at two and one-half cents per night, which includes a glass of tea and sugar and a piece of bread. In a field in which, so far as I know there is no counterpart in American benevolence of a private sort, have been the gifts of two large insane asylums for the city of Moscow. The Russians are less nervous people than the Americans and I doubt if insanity assumes such large proportions as with you, but the need for provision is being recognized in the larger cities. We lay insanity mostly to vodka. In the provinces, demented folk are kept in their own families, and if violent, are held in chains.

"Perhaps the best known charity of Moscow is the great orphan asylum, which is part of the Empress Maria charity works, where 14,000 children are maintained in a great barracks-like institution. Younger children, the foundlings and baby orphans, are given out to the country women back from Moscow, and cared for at the rate of two rubles a month for a child. After they are seven years of age they are taken back to the asylum where they are given schooling and taught some work, then to be apprenticed or started in life in some other way. Perhaps it is the rigor of the winter or the crudeness of the care given by the Russian foster mothers, but the fact remains that seventy-six per cent of them die within the first five years. The Russian mother is more phlegmatic than the American. 'God gave me my child,' she says, 'and God took it away. Glory to God.'"

In the Name of Charity

WHAT LIES BACK OF TWO RAIDS ON HOMES FOR EPILEPTICS IN CHICAGO

Ernest P. Bicknell

General Secretary Chicago Bureau of Charities

A recent Chicago story of imposture in the name of charity, affords a text for charity givers and students of sociology. The lessons which may be drawn from this story are rather obvious, but it may be allowable to refer to two or three of them.

1. The pathetic demand for a cure for epilepsy and the totally inadequate response of medical science, drives victims of the disease to grasp at the promises of quacks and irresponsible promoters of so-called "homes" and "sanatoriums."

2. The universal respect for the garb of the nurse and of the sister of charity, makes those garbs a peculiarly effective aid for the collector who asks money in the name of charity.

3. The ease with which the common, unthinking impulse of charity may be exploited almost with impunity, offers a constant temptation to the unscrupulous.

Five or six years ago William Held established what he called the Illinois Home for Epileptics, in Chicago. It was a private institution and his advertised purpose was to treat epilepsy by methods which it was promised would cure the disease. Mr. Held at that time was not a physician, and his methods of treatment included little or no medicine. The home had two departments—pay and charity. To support the charity department, Mr. Held employed as a solicitor a woman named Rachel Gorman. Rachel Gorman was not and is not a graduated nurse, but she arrayed herself in a striking costume which suggested at once to all beholders that she belonged to some order or group of nurses. She collected money from the down-town business district, but frequented the saloons and race tracks, where it was said she received generous contributions. After two or three years Mr. Held discharged Rachel Gorman. The reasons he gives for the discharge are that the woman drank to excess; that her character is not such as is consistent with the work which she was employed to do, and finally that she did not make a satisfactory accounting for her collections.

The Illinois Home for Epileptics, after moving from place to place in Chicago, was transferred finally to Arlington Heights, a suburb, where about two years ago the building was destroyed by fire. The home has not been re-established.

After leaving the employ of Mr. Held, who since the opening of his home had obtained a degree of doctor of medicine, Rachel Gorman persuaded S. F. Cleveland, and another man, known as "Doctor" Gibson, to join in the establishment of an enterprise which was given the title of the American Chronic and Epileptic Association. Headquarters were established at number 1015 North Clark street. Mr. Cleveland was manager, Rachel Gorman occupied the "charity chair," and "Doctor" Gibson attended to the medical treatment.

Affairs did not go well with the American Chronic and Epileptic Association. Rachel Gorman charged Mr. Cleveland with various shortcomings. Mr. Cleveland declared that Rachel Gorman did not "turn in" as much of her charity collections as agreement called for, and that she was intemperate and associated with bad characters. The woman employed several assistant collectors, and garbed them all. Patients were not cared for at the home, but came there once a week for treatment. It was apparent that the number of such patients was exceedingly small. "Doctor" Gibson was said to administer a certain kind of a drug or medicine alike to all comers. What this medicine was, did not appear. Mr. Cleveland complained bitterly that he had been deceived in "Doctor" Gibson, asserting that when he entered into the partnership he had understood that Gibson was a doctor of medicine.

An open rupture among the officers of the home led to Rachel Gorman and "Doctor" Gibson leaving Mr. Cleveland and starting an organization of their own, known as the American Epileptic Charity Association, but later as the "Rachel Gor-

man Home for Epileptics." The Rachel Gorman Home was said to be located at Round Lake, Ill. Mr. Cleveland moved to 1065 North Clark street where he opened a home for epileptics and called it the Cleveland "Neurotarium." Mr. Cleveland employed one Dr. W. S. Maharg, as physician to his institution. Dr. Maharg claimed to have an unfailing remedy for epilepsy; also for tuberculosis.

Rachel Gorman with a corps of assistant solicitors in uniform, began an extensive campaign for funds. Cleveland's Neurotarium also put a corps of solicitors in the field garbed as nurses, the costume being different from that of the Gorman collectors. During a period of perhaps eighteen months Rachel Gorman sent seven patients to board in the farmhouse of a Mrs. White of Round Lake, Ill.

In June, 1904, Rachel Gorman purchased a house in Blue Island, and from that time the Rachel Gorman Home for Epileptics was advertised to be there. A city office of the home was maintained at 91 Wisconsin street. The number of solicitors, in striking green garb, increased to eight or perhaps more. Certain of these women were unfavorably known to the police. Some of them, on being interviewed, stated that the average daily collections for each solicitor were about \$6. It continued to be quite impossible to get any evidence that a larger amount of charity was being performed than was expressed by the care of one or two epileptics at the house in Blue Island.

Dr. Maharg, physician to the Cleveland "Neurotarium," not satisfied with the income from that institution, opened a dispensary for the treatment of consumption at 954 North Clark street. This enterprise he called The Nazarene Medical Mission. He employed a number of solicitors, put them in a garb suggesting the trained nurse, and set them to raising money. The neighbors noticed that these women would enter a house of the number given in the morning, would presently reappear in nurses' garb, and that in the evening they would return to the house, leaving the uniform and depart in street dress. The matter was brought to the attention of the police who raided the house in October and found it vacant, except for the belongings of the collectors. Dr. Maharg was

arrested and in the police court fined \$100 and costs. Not being able to pay the fine he was sent to the House of Correction. This was the beginning of police activity so far as epileptic charities were concerned.

Rachel Gorman's office on Wisconsin street was next raided, and the uniforms of her collectors seized, together with papers and printed matter. Records showing their operations were captured in this way. These showed that Rachel Gorman and her corps of assistants were collecting a surprisingly large amount of money from the charitable people of Chicago. One slip dated July 8, 1904, showed collections made amounting to \$164. Governor Richard Yates and William Jennings Bryan were shown to have each given \$100. The statement was made that Rachel Gorman had paid \$3,000 upon the Blue Island property which she had purchased, and that she had a bank account of several hundred dollars on the date of the raid. She had sent her uniformed collectors to the state Republican and Democratic conventions at Springfield, and had other collectors operating in St. Louis. A deposit slip was discovered showing a bank account opened in a St. Louis bank with \$358 as a beginning. A warrant was issued for Rachel Gorman's arrest, but she was found confined to her home in Blue Island as the result of an injury received as she explained through falling on a defective sidewalk. She threatens to bring a suit for large damages against the city of Blue Island because of this injury. The Blue Island City Council has passed an ordinance prohibiting a home for epileptics within the city limits, and Rachel Gorman has been notified to move out. At present her threat to sue the city for damages seems to restrain the Blue Island authorities from proceeding actively against her.

The police have warned the proprietor of Cleveland's "Neurotarium" that his collectors must be kept off the streets, under threat of arrest and the closing up of his institution. Other "charity" schemes have been recently checked, also, and evidence relating to the true character of two or three more has been submitted to the police authorities and is now under consideration.

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An Active Society. The Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, which held its public annual meeting on Monday evening of this week, is not only one of the oldest and best established societies in the United States, but it has become one of the most enterprising, energetic and successful. In the society's annual report which was read at the well-attended meeting in Griffin Hall and in the addresses by Miss Richmond and others, the main emphasis was placed on social conditions and their improvement, rather than on work for individuals. In previous year, especially through the two excellent little booklets, *Short Stories*, the efficient help given to individuals has been dwelt upon and, as Miss Richmond did not fail to point out, the society in the past year has manufactured more short stories than ever before, even though in the addresses and in the annual report they give way to the larger social aspects of the society's work. The address of the evening was by Edward T. Devine on the modern city: what it means and what it lacks.

The striking fact was brought out in studies made by the Philadelphia branch of the Collegiate Alumnae Association, and published by the society in its report that there are at least six distinct cities within the city, one of which only can accurately be described by the phrase sometimes applied to Philadelphia as a whole, a city of homes; another is a foreign city and still another, a city of the homeless—made up largely of lodgers. These studies make no claims to exhaustiveness, but they lead, nevertheless, to some very just and very interesting generalizations. The leaflet can be obtained on application to the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity.

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Six Cities Within a City. The First, Second, Third and Thirty-ninth Wards, grouped as the southeastern district of the society, combine to make Philadelphia's so-called "Foreign City." The population, 138,195 persons, in the 1900 census, consists chiefly of Italians, Slavic Jews, Poles and Swedes. There are 20,000 Italians, and, counting those in the adjoining district, 50,000 Slavic Jews. The society's problem here is greatest, according to the directors' report, and the system has been reorganized to meet the special conditions. Thus, the district superintendent recently appointed speaks Italian.

The overcrowding, worst in the Second and Third Wards, is extending southward, "so that rents are advancing in the First and Thirty-ninth Wards." Inspection of one Italian neighborhood showed that 104 out of a total of 366 families "occupied only one room, where they cooked, ate, slept and lived. . . . Out of 167 houses inspected in the Italian quarter, only 65 have water within the building; the remaining 102 depend upon yard or court hydrants, and sometimes one hydrant has to supply all the houses opening upon a court."

"A Town of Room Renters" the report calls the district that is made up of the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Wards, "containing Italians and Slavic Jews on its southern edge, Slavic Jews in the centre, Irish on the water front and a negro population to the westward, with Americans and Irish of fallen fortunes in the business section to the north." The population of the district is 47,472, although the space covered is but little over a square mile.

Other divisions are "A City of Toilers," the society's southwestern district,

including the Twenty-sixth, Thirtieth and Thirty-sixth Wards, with the bulk of its 121,300 population, Irish native Americans and negroes; "A factory City," the northeastern district, including the Eighteenth, Nineteenth, Thirty-first and Thirty-third Wards, with an area of nearly eleven square miles, and a population of 235,153, "chiefly American and North European," with natives distinctly preponderating; "An American City," the Twentieth, Twenty-ninth and Thirty-second Wards, with a population chiefly native of 143,261, scattered over three square miles, and "A City of Homes," being the society's West Philadelphia district, the Twenty-fourth, Twenty-seventh, Thirty-fourth and Fortieth Wards.

Summing up the situation, the report says:

The relief of distress can no longer be undertaken with safety by old-fashioned dole charities, operating for a few months in winter, chiefly by means of grocery orders, from an office where small effort is made to know the individual applicants. Such remedies only aggravate the disease and make the poor more miserable. It is quite true that more relief is needed than is now being given; but it is also true that those who need relief are cruelly injured by receiving doles alone. Relief divorced from personal service is like medicine divorced from treatment.

What is the real remedy? It is found in a return—laborious and awkward at first it may be, but still a return—to the village ideal. To relieve distress the city must be broken up into workable districts, small enough to be known and understood thoroughly by charitable workers selected for their devotion and intelligence. Whenever a new case of distress comes to light in one of these districts, prompt measures should be taken to meet the immediate need; but, then, without a moment's delay connection should be made with those who knew the family before the time of need. This may require visits widely scattered; it may require correspondence with San Francisco, or Georgia, or Maine; it may require careful planning on the part of a good many different persons, and the calling in, for unbefriended cases, of a charitable stranger who will undertake to visit regularly and be neighborly (what we call a "friendly visitor"); but it is only the old-fashioned village ideal translated into modern terms and adapted to modern conditions.

*Emmaus Home
and Its Work
in an Exposition
City.*

Even before the St. Louis Exposition opened it was evident that one of the greatest needs would be a home for girls who were attracted to the city by the hope or the promise of employment. To meet this need a committee of women was organized and Emmaus Home was opened. Girls already betrayed are cared for in rescue homes, and this is kept for girls not fallen, but without friends and in special danger.

Some representative of the home is constantly at the Union Station looking out for girls who are strangers and alone. Many are found who have gone to St. Louis with no assurances of work, no friends in the city, no acquaintance with it and no provision for lodgings. Others have been attracted by offers of high wages for easy work, which on arrival they find to be far from decent. At first the Union Station was closed to those who wished to carry on the undertaking, but a grand jury decision following an early instance of a flagrant sort, opened the doors soon after.

A girl of sixteen years was found in the company of a disreputable woman who had visited the country town where the girl lived and persuaded her to leave home, without her family's knowledge. She was persuaded to leave the woman, her people were written to, and a relative came on the first possible train and took her back home. Eight German girls were brought over on a promise of employment in their government's exhibit, but when they got to St. Louis, learned that they had been deceived and that their would-be employer wanted them for immoral purposes. They appealed to the German consul, and were put in charge of the Emmaus Home, while their case was being investigated. Fourteen Japanese girls now in the home wish to remain and tour this country on the stage. The Japanese commissioner wants to safeguard their return to Japan and they are being held for deportation. Many girls from the small towns or the country districts of neighboring states have been persuaded to return home; and for many, respectable work has been found.

The home is primarily for transients,

but a few working girls who earn only small wages are allowed to stay. All pay as much as they can afford toward their maintenance.

This work is supported by voluntary contributions and the financial problem has been a difficult one, so that its future is not yet certain. For a few months after the close of the fair the need will be even more acute than it has been hitherto, on account of the large number of girls who will be thrown out of work. It is hoped to continue the home for the benefit of working girls who would otherwise be forced into undesirable boarding-houses.

In the six months since the Emmaus Home was opened, under the superintendency of Miss Harding, 174 girls and women have been cared for, the average number in the household being about twenty-two. Twenty-six states have been represented, and there have been girls also from Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Japan and Hawaii.

Notes of the Week.

Masters' School Day Nursery.—The Masters' School Day Nursery, located at 519 East 86th street, New York, was opened October 31. This nursery is under the management of and is supported by the Misses Masters' School Society, an organization of the young women who, at various times, have been in attendance at the school in Dobbs Ferry. Situated as the nursery is, in close proximity to the East river, and with ample space for a playground in its large lot, it will fill a need long felt in this particular neighborhood. The house itself is well equipped and is one of several in New York which could serve as models for those meditating the establishment of like charities. It is four stories in height, with side light on the east and can accommodate from fifty to sixty children. The basement floor is given over to a reception room, kitchen, dining-room and laundry. The kindergarten, matron's office and toilet room occupy the first floor, while the second is devoted exclusively to the children of the nursery—the front room being fitted for play, while those in the rear are equipped with a number of little white iron cribs. The fourth story is reserved for the use of the matron and her assistants. A visit to this new institution will amply repay one, as well as be gratifying to those who have its interests at heart.

Women and the Nation's Health.—Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New York, delivered a lecture

last month before the annual meeting of the Massachusetts State Federation of Women's Clubs, in session at Lowell. *Woman's Duty Towards the Health of the Nation* was Dr. Knopf's subject, and this was his characterization of it: "Broader education, heroic example, self-sacrifice, much work and a great deal of devotion are necessary to the American woman if she wishes to do her whole duty towards the health of the nation." Three of many concrete suggestions made by Dr. Knopf were these: "Let the woman join rational movements which tend to combat intemperance and excesses of all kinds. Let the woman of culture and refinement teach her less fortunate sister the art of cooking and housekeeping, so that the home of the ordinary laborer may, too, be made more attractive and the saloon will cease to be a temptation to him. Let the woman of wealth and influence help to create better and healthier tenements for the poor, more parks and playgrounds for the children, healthful places of amusement for old and young where the laboring man may take his wife and children on a Sunday afternoon and partake of non- or only slightly alcoholic drinks with his repast."

Juvenile Court Conference in Philadelphia.—At the invitation of the social service section of the New Century Club, under whose auspices the Philadelphia Juvenile Court and probation work have been brought up to their present standard, representatives of organizations in Philadelphia and vicinity, which are working for the betterment of children, met for conference November 2 and 3. Three sessions were held. Juvenile court and probation work for 1903-1904 were reported upon by those who are directly engaged along these lines—the College Settlement, homes, orphanages, boys' clubs, child protective societies, the Society for Organizing Charity. This was especially useful in giving a clear idea of the varied sides to work for children, and in securing co-operation. Offers of help as to houses and care were made with respect to juvenile court children. A second conference will be held at the club in January to consider legislation that is needed. The social science department of the New Century Club is in charge of Mrs. Frederic Schoff, president of the National Congress of Mothers.

Charitable Properties, New York.—According to the annual summary of the exemptions of church and charitable properties in Greater New York, prepared by the Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations in New York city, hospitals in Manhattan have holdings amounting to \$12,277,000 on Manhattan, \$14,782,000 in all boroughs; homes and day nurseries, \$1,373,800 on Manhattan, \$1,852,500 in all boroughs.

Second Massachusetts State Conference

A REMARKABLE SERIES OF MEETINGS IN SPRINGFIELD

The Second Massachusetts State Conference held a remarkably interesting series of meetings at Springfield last week, six sessions in all. While the attendance was not as large as was hoped for, particularly from the western part of the state, it was of good quality and the meetings went off with spirit and interest. The registered attendance was 275, of whom about two hundred were from Springfield and vicinity, and the rest were from Boston, Worcester and neighboring cities.

The hospitality and welcome from the city of Springfield were delightful, beginning with the reception given by the College Club to the delegates the first evening. The Union Relief Association of which Nathan D. Bill is president and Mrs. E. R. Whiting secretary, was at the head of all the good works, and thanks to them, everything passed off smoothly.

As Leontine Lincoln, president of the conference, is also chairman of the State Board of Charity, his opening address on *The Demands of the Present Charity Situation in Massachusetts*, was naturally largely concerned with the work of that board, and with the changes in legislation or other action recommended by them. The address gave a very full view of the present condition of state charitable work. There was not so much matter for discussion in the various statements and statistics given as interesting reading, of a sort which generally appears only in the voluminous reports of state boards, that are seldom if ever read by the public at large.

Mr. Lincoln said:

The welfare of society demands of the state a twofold duty. As the organ of society, it is under obligation both to benefactor and beneficiary. As the natural guardian of the delinquent, defective and dependent classes, it should see that they have the best care which their condition requires. Its duty to the industrious, the competent and the thrifty, upon whom its highest well-being depends, requires it to see that this is done with the least burden to them consistent with such care.

And the state has not done its full duty to society when it has provided institutions of care and agencies of distribution of its bounty. Protection alike to those who receive, those who administer and those who provide, demands the establishment of a strong central authority, with power to inspect, to investigate, to supervise, to co-ordinate methods and activities.

After describing the work of the Massachusetts State Board, which is supervisory so far as institutions are concerned, but has executive powers in the care of unsettled poor, neglected and dependent children and younger juvenile offenders, Mr. Lincoln suggested the following lines along which reform is needed:

Many boys now sent to truant schools under the charge of truancy should really be brought into court charged with more serious offences and sent by the judge to more appropriate institutions. It is manifestly unfair for a boy whose only offence is truancy from school, which may be the result of discouragement, from his backwardness and inability to learn, to be forced to a dangerous association with those who have been before the court for stealing, vagrancy, breaking and entering, and malicious mischief.

The 207 almshouses in the state are on the whole in a creditable condition, and the local charities show a readiness to adopt the recommendations of the state board. The large proportion of comparatively young people in almshouses of the state is remarkable, and has become a subject of investigation upon which it is hoped the state board may soon be able to report; 1,248 inmates of almshouses are between the ages of 21 and 50 out of the total 4,818. In relief given by cities and towns to the poor in their homes one practice there is that the overseer of the poor should discourage; that is, in cases where the father or husband, the wage-earner of the family, is living and where the family applies for relief through the wife or children. Of course, these cases are fully investigated before relief is given, but the educative influence on children to allow them to ask aid for their parents or themselves is dangerous, inasmuch, as it leads them to feel from an early age that public relief is something to ask for and depend upon.

When we consider the large amount of money contributed annually by the charitable people of this commonwealth for the support of private institutions, it certainly appears that there should be a more efficient way of their knowing that the purpose

of such contributions is being fulfilled properly. The contributors, the managers and the beneficiaries alike would be benefited by such visitation and report as the state board would make. If abuses or mismanagement exist, as has been sometimes charged, the fact should be shown; if abuses or mismanagement do not exist, there should be some central authority to attest that fact. The board asks for no inquisitorial powers. It asks only for the same authority to inspect and report to the legislature on these institutions which the state confers with regard to its own institutions and the city and town almshouses.

The state by incorporating them is responsible for their existence. The fact that they are incorporated leads many to contribute for their maintenance, feeling that the state gives them a standing that is not given to other institutions, strictly private.

State Inspection of Private Institutions. Corporations whose personal property has been exempted from taxation are required to submit to the state board printed or written reports for their financial year. These corporations number 463; of these 388 made complete reports. These reports shown a total expenditure for the year of \$5,320,623; total amount of property owned and occupied \$17,725,052.

It has been acknowledged in Massachusetts that it is the duty of the state to provide in some measure for the treatment and prevention of tuberculosis, but there is still a wide difference of opinion among those who have considered the question from a medical, humanitarian or legal point of view whether the state should care only for curable cases, leaving the cities and towns to care for chronic patients. I believe each city and town should support special hospitals or provide isolated buildings at other hospitals for their chronic tuberculosis cases.

The amount of money expended in our state for the care of the dependent, defective and delinquent classes cannot be definitely ascertained, as a large sum is given directly through strictly private channels besides the large amount given by churches and beneficent orders. The cost of maintenance of the defectives of the state is \$1,974,066, of delinquents is \$1,016,500, and of dependents is \$2,718,142, making a total of \$5,708,708. Adding the amount expended by the charitable corporations, \$5,320,623, makes a grand total of \$11,029,331. Assuming our population to be 2,800,000, this makes a per capita annual payment for all our population of \$3.93. Is this too much? Probably not under existing conditions, but it is so much subtracted from the fund that would otherwise go for education, culture and the higher things of life.

Two great things there are to make the work of the state more effective; first, a

more active co-operation of all charities, and, second, a more active and intelligent public interest.

Comments were made by Judge Maynard, of Springfield, and the Rev. Bradley Gilman, formerly of Springfield, but now of Boston. The latter gave an interesting account of a wonderful up-to-date prison in Egypt which he had visited recently as well as many other foreign prisons.

Work for Children. The three sessions of Thursday were on a high plane, both as regards papers and discussions. The morning session on work for children in small cities opened with a paper by Miss Lucy Wright who has been with the Associated Charities of Taunton, on co-operation between general and special agencies in the care of children. Miss Wright's paper was well written, practical and also ideal, and, the sure proof of a good paper, provoked good discussion, started by the Rev. Clark Carter of Lawrence, who showed how hard it is to get expert help for difficult cases in smaller cities unless you are near enough to Boston to be able to come and see the secretaries of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and of the Children's Aid Society. Mr. Carter suggested that possibly a union of smaller cities might engage between them one trained agent for helping in their children's problems. Miss Woods of the Children's Aid Society of Worcester, Mr. Bullock of the Hampden County Children's Aid Society, also spoke.

Seymour H. Stone of the Boston Children's Friend Society, read an excellent paper on placing-out, which it seems can never be described or discussed too often, even in Massachusetts. He considered that the best possible work for the child is done by the visitor who is caring for not more than seventy-five children, preferably between fifty and sixty. The arguments for placing-out as put succinctly by Mr. Stone are the following:

Would you rather have your own child brought up in a quiet, comfortable country home under the loving care of a good man and woman, or in an orphan asylum among a hundred other children, under the diffused and necessarily impersonal charge of a matron? Would you wish your boys and girls brought up together as brothers

and sisters in one family, or prefer to have them all separated and sent to various institutions according to sex and age? In short, would you wish your child to be provided with a mother and all the individual interest and attention that a happy childhood demands, or would you wish him to be part of a big machine, lonely and unidentified among a hundred others?

Mr. Southmayd, visitor of the State Board of Charity considered that 200 children are not too many for a visitor, although it seemed as though his principal interest was to make sure that the home was a good place rather than that the boy was developing to his best advantage. The differences between finding a good home and making a good boy, and friend, were marked in the differing points of view.

Finally the Rev. Frederick B. Allen, of the Child-Helping Conference of Boston, read a paper on supervision and publicity as a means of improving child-helping work, and showed what a stimulus to better things is good visiting to an institution, and what a safeguard for the care of the little children. It is not so much a means of showing up extravagance, poor management or fraud, as of guidance in the best ways of conducting one's affairs, and opening up new horizons to the often puzzled managers. Edward A. Hall, president of the Springfield Council of St. Vincent de Paul, favored the plan and felt that it would surely help towards better understanding of new ways and serve as a spur for those who were too easily satisfied with their own methods:

We live in the days of the X-ray and the searchlight of the twentieth century, and the institution that cannot stand the supervision and inspection of its work and management by boards of charity and commissions selected for the purpose, should be given leave to retire from business.

David F. Tilley of Boston, member of the State Board of Charity, presided over this meeting, and mention should be made of the attractive qualities of the little hall in the Art Museum where all the day sessions were held. The pleasantness and neighborliness of a small and cheerful hall certainly are a distinct help in discussion.

Probation. The afternoon session on probation, a valuable and unusual meeting, was presided over by Frederick G. Pettigrove, chairman of the Massachusetts Prison Commission. His opening address took the form of a report on the growth of probation in Massachusetts, and being spoken, not read, showed with its mass of figures and dates, the mastery of his subject by the speaker, who is sometimes called the "Father of Probation in Massachusetts."

The showing was indeed good, and to give it point, was followed by a short, stirring address from Mrs. Elizabeth L. Tuttle, of the Superior Court of Boston, the first woman probation officer in the world, on *The Positive Influence of a Probation Officer*. The examples which she gave from her own experience of the good accomplished and the influence established, were really inspiring. She said, and everyone must agree, that only individual work with individuals, and long and patient care, counts in the end. Judge Copeland of the Springfield Municipal Court, opened the discussion on Mr. Pettigrove's report, favoring probation before sentence, or with suspended sentence. Judge Charles A. DeCourcy, of the Massachusetts Superior Court, showed by figures the good results of probation in his own court, and advocated more uniform records of the probation officers throughout the state. He felt that the success of the system depends on the enthusiasm, ability and character of the officer, and that there should be some means of ascertaining if the eighty-five probation officers are doing the best work possible. Penal Commissioner Martin held that the community, and not a paid officer, should be responsible for a man released on parole, who should, he urged, be unhampered by suspicion, as was the system of Deer Island, Boston. He used the word "spy" for the paid official. This brought out a warm reply from Edwin Mulready, probation officer from Rockland, who showed that the probation officer is truly a friend and helper. Perhaps to those at this meeting the most interesting part came in the opportunity of realizing the personality of the various speakers, and the part that that must play in regard to the prisoners in their

charge—an interested judge like Judge DeCourcy, probation officers like Mrs. Tuttle, Mr. Mulready, and Mr. Wise can make any system good.

Juvenile Courts. The evening meeting on juvenile courts, with its introductory address by Judge Jabez Fox on the *Parental Aspects of Chancery*, followed by Judge Stubbs on the Indianapolis Juvenile Court, gave one an idea of how Massachusetts must catch up with the western ways of dealing with children. Not a criminal court, nor a police court, but rather a parental court is needed, said Judge Stubbs, whose entire time is taken by this work. Through the freedom given the judge, by the Indiana law, he can dispose of his children in a very much greater variety of ways than can the average judge. Judge Stubbs' story of "Eddie" is a classic. Miss Lucy F. Friday, probation officer of the Children's Court in Baltimore, followed with a historical account of the juvenile court movement and of its success in Baltimore. One point made by Miss Friday was that in cities where a juvenile court is established, the commitments to institutions are very much less in number as a result of careful investigation.

Organized Charity. The meetings of the last day were on associated charities work in smaller cities, and on public relief, with the almshouse foremost in consideration. It might have seemed as though these topics would not attract the general public as much as those concerning children, but the best audiences turned out for these meetings, presided over respectively by Dr. C. L. Nichols of Worcester and the Rev. Arthur Lawrence of Stockbridge.

Miss Mary L. Birtwell of Cambridge in an interesting paper on the many and varied needs of a single family, said:

Material relief may be necessary, but unless it takes its proper place in relation to more vital needs, good, constructive work is impossible. It is a fact full of significance that relief societies are coming to a clear recognition of this principle, and are finding themselves in full accord with charity organization societies.

The need often has its root in the character of the needy and cannot be removed

unless the character is reached. This is hardly possible except through personal influence, which to be effective must not be temporary or spasmodic. Hence the need of volunteers who will give continuous care to the poor in their homes.

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, of the School for Social Workers, Boston, spoke of the many opportunities for the individual to work to-day in association with other charity workers, and the advantages of this co-operative effort. She concluded:

But, after all, hours spent in taking counsel and in association, do not obviate the need of individual service. To the poor people we must go one by one, as man or woman, if we would get into the sympathetic friendly relation which is helpful to either side. While we rejoice in the great gains association has brought about in our generation, let us hold fast still to the old and ever-new method of the New England village—informal, personal contact, sharing one with another in a democratic and friendly intercourse.

Miss M. F. Witherspoon, of the Worcester Associated Charities, started a most animated discussion by her paper on relief distribution by the associated charities. Miss Witherspoon showed that the smaller cities have in many cases a different problem to solve, having no relief-giving society with which to co-operate other than the overseers of the poor, and asked:

Shall we run the risk of a new society being formed which will probably repeat the same old story—first, antagonism, then co-operation, and finally federation? Is it not time for us to set aside the fear of the demoralizing effects of handling relief and frankly accept and acknowledge the responsibility, even though it does mean eternal vigilance?

In the discussion in which Miss Smith, Miss Breed, Mr. Paine and others entered somewhat tempestuously, it was urged that there is a danger of pauperizing the rich, that can best be met by raising relief on the "special case system," and that there are real dangers when a society with a small staff undertakes the responsibility of administering a relief fund to the exclusion of such important work as training of volunteers and associating together the charities, churches and charitable individuals in the community.

Miss M. V. Clark of the State Charities Aid Association of New York gave the chief paper of the afternoon on the almshouse as a test or an asylum, showing that the almshouse is in truth rather a test of character than of neediness—some would rather starve than go to the almshouse, others would rather go to the almshouse than work—the trouble with the almshouse being, not that it is too attractive to the unworthy, but that it is too unattractive to the worthy. The Massachusetts method of town almshouses, when the average number of inmates throughout the state is less than ten, seems expensive, and not conducive to the best care of the inmates. A combination of several towns would seem a wiser course. Dr. Donlon, of the Lowell Almshouse, spoke with great discouragement of politics in almshouses, and Miss Curtis of the State Board of Charity explained that the authority of that board could not be invoked to order changes, as supervision and report are its two qualifications. Mrs. Alice N. Lincoln, formerly of the Pauper Institutions Trustees of Boston, spoke of the great improvement in almshouses seen in Glasgow and

Sheffield, where homes more or less independent for the worthy poor were attached to the regular almshouse buildings. Wm. Hopewell, state inspector of almshouses, approved of Miss Clark's paper heartily, and gave instances of poor management in small almshouses.

The following officers and executive committee for the year 1905 were announced at the morning session, and it was rumored that the meetings would be held in Boston:

President, Robert Treat Paine, Boston; vice-presidents, Miss Elizabeth C. Putnam, Boston, Nathan D. Bill, Springfield, Charles A. De Courcy, Lawrence; treasurer, Joseph G. Thorp, Cambridge; secretary, Miss Frances R. Morse, Boston; executive committee, Dr. Walter E. Fernald, Waverly, Dr. E. O. Otis, Boston, James B. Carroll, Springfield, Max Mitchell, Boston, Matthew B. Lamb, Worcester, Mrs. E. R. Whiting, Edward A. Hall, Springfield; Miss Alice L. Higgins, Miss Frances G. Curtis, Joseph Lee, Charles W. Birtwell, Dr. T. J. Giblyn and David F. Tilley, Boston; Professor Francis G. Peabody, Cambridge; Miss Georgie Bacon, Worcester; John C. Hammond, Northampton; John A. Collins, Boston; M. A. Warren, Worcester; the Rev. Clark Carter, Lawrence; and Jeffrey R. Brackett, Boston.

The Fifth New York State Conference of Charities and Correction

THE SYRACUSE MEETING UNDER THE PRESIDENCY OF ROBERT W. HEBBERD

Mr. Heberd's Presidential Address. In a forceful address as president of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction, which opened at Syracuse Tuesday evening, Robert W. Heberd reviewed the growth of New York public charities, and was emphatic in pointing out certain pressing present needs. He declared for the extension of the civil service system to county and municipal institutions throughout the state. He brought home tellingly that the thousand feeble-minded persons now in local almshouses contrary to law, should be provided for in state institutions. The condition of the women, he said, often leads to scandal. Likewise abuses have gone on in the placing-out of children by county officials because neither adequate authority, nor means have as yet been given the State Board of Charities, of which Mr. Heberd is secretary, to supervise the treatment of these wards.

The present conference is the fourth that

has been held in New York state. Mr. Heberd reviewed the sessions which met successively under the presidencies of William P. Letchworth of Portage, Robert W. de Forest, former Tenement-house Commissioner of New York, William R. Stewart, formerly president of the State Board of Charities, and Thomas M. Mulry, head of the St. Vincent de Paul Society. Mr. Heberd told of the earliest provisions in New York state for the care of the poor; of the almshouse erected in the eighteenth century where New York's City Hall stands to-day; of the ordinance of 1641 which provided that the penalty imposed for selling unpolished wampum was to go for the use of the poor; of the Duke of York's laws which were passed when the English took possession in 1664; of the organization of the Society of New York Hospital in 1771, and so on up to the present day. He showed the development of the poor laws from the early harsh rules which provided for lashes for those

who disobeyed them, thirty-nine for the man, and twenty-five for the woman, to the present humane statutes.

"When one studies the history of charity in this state," said Mr. Heberd, "he has a right to feel that he is a citizen of no mean country. For over a hundred years has New York made steady progress in the works of charity and reform. If, at times this movement seems to have swung backward, it was but gathering momentum for the irresistible forward movement that was sure to follow.

"Step by step has this magnificent structure of charity been erected by good men and good women, who have given unsparingly of their time, their means and their strength, until it stands to-day an imperishable monument to their patience and their devotion."

Of the needs of the future, Mr. Heberd more than anything else emphasized that of a more general diffusion of knowledge respecting charity and reform work which should hasten the day when the people of this state will appreciate the fact that those chosen to relieve the needs of the poor shall be selected because of their character and intelligence, and not through any personal or political pull or influence.

"There is in our English tongue," he said, "a little word in common use, a word that under ordinary circumstances we hear with no quickening of the pulse. But not so when this word is used in connection with the charities. Politics and charity. How sinister the significance, when we know that in every state where partisan politics is allowed to interfere with the administration of charity the results are most unfortunate. The principles enunciated on this subject by the two principal candidates for the office of governor at the recent election, must have been particularly gratifying to the members of this conference.

"Fortunately, in the state charitable and reformatory institutions, the state civil service law and the presence of independent, philanthropic citizens on the boards of management have helped to preserve conditions practically, if not entirely, free from partisan influences.

"On the other hand, in the county and municipal service, and particularly in some of the rural communities to which the rules of the civil service have not yet penetrated, injurious political influences continue to manifest themselves in a greater or a lesser degree. For a long time those interested in the welfare of these county and municipal charities outside the classified service, have hoped that some practicable method would be found for extending the state civil service rules to cover this class of institutions."

Taking up the more particular needs of the various branches of the state's charities the speaker pointed out that while the almshouse system of the state has practically been reorganized during the past few years, politics in some of the counties is producing

its usual results. He urged that keepers and other employes now unclassified be chosen through the competitive system; that idiots and epileptics be removed to state institutions; that the commitment of vagrant and disorderly persons to almshouses be discontinued, and that the almshouses be made simply homes for the aged and dependent poor.

Preventive Social Work.

Professor Hamilton on Preventive Social Work. Have the American people, in a large measure lost the countenance that beams and radiates friendship? This was the contention of Prof. James H. Hamilton, headworker of the University Settlement, at the Wednesday morning session in delivering the report of the committee on preventive social work. "The smoldering fire," he said, "breaks through the crust of reserve in times of crisis, but preventive work calls for a constant habit of friendliness, and an open, frank, and hearty expression of it wherever man rubs elbows with man. The social worker is, therefore, moving in the right direction as he goes among his fellows with cordial recognition in his face. . . . He is to be warned against the grim visage and the absent manner. The café habit which is growing in some sections is a wholesome one; it and the like tend to build up a character among men which means re-employment for the unemployed, which reaches out after the unfortunate, and which at the same time restrains wayward inclinations."

The report held that preventive social work suffers from want of a clear philosophical basis. The ideal of the social work is a normal, correlated and functioning society. The number of paupers, of criminals and of defectives is evidence of social sickness. They mark the extent of imperfect functioning. The preventive social worker has to do with treatment, but treatment of the disease of social organs and not of the individuals; such organs as the family, the church, the school and the state.

Under the first of these headings, Professor Hamilton discussed the tendency among settlement workers to get hold of young people and children, to the exclusion of their parents. "The thoughts and aspirations of the young are of the new world, and they readily attach themselves to persons of American antecedents. The parents are excluded, to some extent by a foreign language, and to a great extent by foreign associations, sentiments, feelings. There is evidently danger here lest family sympathies be unmade in the effort to make Americans of the young. These are most essential to the making of Americans of the proper fibre and texture. The process may seem less rapid when this factor is subserved, but the results are much more worth while. There is such a thing as a shoddy product

in nationality making. The feeling of the middle-aged immigrant may be about ninety per cent foreign. If the feelings and sympathies of the children are, say, ninety per cent American, there is too narrow a margin of sympathy within the family; it is likely to lose nine-tenths of its value as a socializing force. It may become a desocializing force because of the discords and antagonisms that develop. The feelings and sympathies of the children should also root back into the old world and this end might be fostered through appropriate lectures, literature and entertainments in the language of the fathers. The social center may also do something to increase the margin of American feeling among the older people through talks and literature upon American history and American institutions in contrast with old world history and institutions given in a language which they will understand. The margin of sympathy may be still further increased through plans for united action on behalf of social or civic betterment. And it may be still further increased among young parents through the agency of mothers' clubs."

*Democracy
in the
Schools.*

"Government by the pupils for the pupils," was advocated by Principal Charles R. Drum of the Prescott School, of Syracuse, in a paper following Professor Hamilton. He described the successes which have been made through the introduction of the self-government principle in the public schools, and ascribed it to the power of the dramatic instinct in childhood. It is merely the carrying out of the idea of the story of the mother who punished her boy by tying him to a post on the porch. He immediately turned himself into a cow and spent a pleasant hour chewing the cud and whipping flies with an improvised tail.

"The spirit of democracy as expressed by co-operation in school government," said Principal Drum, "has entered the common school. True to the law, the results are good. Instead of preaching the abstract the pupils are given a chance to live in the concrete; they are citizens, real live citizens, of the school municipalities. The power of a young leader among young people is greater than that of any adult. It is sound wisdom to harness the strong, manly though sometimes mischievous boy to the load drawn by the teacher that he may help pull it; he seldom fails if given a chance. The so-called incorrigible boy is often a misunderstood boy. In a school of teacher-bossism and domination, free expression is unknown except upon the streets and in the home.

"The pupils of a school government select delegates to conventions, nominate, and elect officers who perform the functions of their respective offices with dignity, delight, courtesy, and wisdom. They enter into the spirit of it with interest and zest. A new idea of school affairs possesses them. They

are a part of it and have a voice in the making and execution of laws. As a listless reading class awoke and did better work under character suggestions, so has been transformed the schools whose pupils are real citizens active for the general good. 'Are you an officer?' asked the teacher of a small boy. He proudly replied, 'No, but I am a citizen.'

"In one school was a boy so mean that he would bring live rats and release them upon the schoolroom floor. His mother said that he was mean as a baby. An election placed him in a position of trust and the change was marvelous. He became a better boy. In another school, a boy was irregular in attendance, untidy in dress, and almost incorrigible. A place of responsibility in the school government caused the formation of better habits of dress, conduct, and attendance."

Organized democratic school government is the use of the imitative instinct for creating a better citizenship. It is an expression of trust to which every child responds. It gives free opportunity for the exercise of choice thereby training the will. Therefore from the nature of the case we would expect a reduction of delinquency in schools practicing it, and as a matter of fact known from personal operation and experience that it has the effect desired.

Child Labor. "In the enforcement of child-labor laws there are three persons who must face the

situation with more than ordinary interest," said Myron E. Adams of Welcome Hall Social Settlement of Buffalo at the Wednesday morning session, "and the efficiency of these laws depend largely upon the attitude that they take. They are the employer, the parent and the child, and they have the right to know why they are discriminated against in the matter of their right to employ and be employed.

"It must not be taken for granted that these laws will be understood equally by those who made them and by those who have always regarded the employment of children as a necessary part of the present factory and economic system. The employer has exploited the usefulness of the child. In the progress of the industrial world the child has often been made to do the work of the man. With the aid of machinery and nimble fingers he is able to do as much as the man could do before him. The employer sees no relation between the leisure of the child and the industry of the man. The character of the children who play about his factory or his store is often of the kind that suggests the need of restraint rather than of freedom. He may know something of their need of money and may consider it a meritorious act to provide employment for those who need it badly. Overlooking the fact that by doing so he is really relieving the one who is much more responsible for the care of his family from

the same privilege and is infringing upon the child's right to devote at least a small part of its life to the natural pursuits of childhood. Often not knowing the conditions in which the child lives, it is almost impossible for the employer to understand the great need the child has for the most adequate preparation for a life that will require the use of every power, either natural or acquired.

"The reasons for the restriction of child-labor are manifold. If the employer will read the history of industrial England in the middle of the nineteenth century, he will find a picture of the appalling results of child labor. If the employer says that these conditions do not apply to his factory or store, let him remember that in the majority of states at the present time there are laws which regulate the labor of children and that these laws determine the limit to which his competitor, as well as himself, can go in the matter of employment. If these regulations were withdrawn and his competitors had no scruples against the employment of children, he would feel very soon the effect of the smaller wage and the longer hours that generally attend the substitution of children for adults. Then the great problem would come, how to cut down the expenses to meet the reduction of the competitor, and in these days of the smallest possible waste there is no doubt that the burden would very often come upon the child. The employer ought to see that when this law is enforced equally that it works him no hardship while it is a positive boon for the child who soon enough begins to labor for his daily bread."

Treatment of the Criminal.

Treatment of the Criminal. Justice Julius M. Mayer, attorney-general-elect, reported for the committee on the treatment of the criminal, reviewing the work accomplished by a special committee appointed a year ago at the Buffalo conference to secure adequate provision for the reformatory treatment of male misdemeanants over sixteen years of age. A bill was passed, as result of the committee's work, which will go into effect January 1 next, and through which the institution now at Hart's Island, set aside by former Commissioner Thomas W. Hynes for less hardened offenders, will be known as the New York City Reformatory for Misdemeanants, and male misdemeanants between 16 and 30 years of age will be committed there from the city of New York, on indeterminate sentences not exceeding three years. A board of parole consisting of nine persons is provided for, a distinctive feature, of which is that the courts and magistrates committing the misdemeanants are to be represented on this board and thus have a substantial influence in determining as to the release or parole of prisoners. "We

think," said Justice Mayer, "that this will bring about a closer and more agreeable relation between the courts and the persons having the custody of prisoners, a result mutually desirable; and in the end we hope this plan will prove of substantial value to the inmates and to the reformation desired to be attained." Justice Wm. E. Wyatt, New York, Justice Robert J. Wilkin, Brooklyn, and City Magistrate John B. Mayo have been the judges appointed. The report noted special appreciation of the work of Dr. Samuel J. Barrows during the progress of the bill.

Confidence was expressed by Justice Mayer that in thus establishing the principle under such auspices as would involve the least expenditure, legislation comprehending a reformatory system throughout the state could be attained through gradual application and growth.

Religious Influence in Prison Work. *Religious Influence in Prison Work*, was the subject of a paper by the Rev. Thomas J. Mulvey of Brooklyn, who

divided it into two classes which he called the spiritual and the philanthropic. The purely spiritual view, he said, means "work done for the souls of men and women" "to regenerate them in the sight of God" "in the order of grace and solely for their conversion;" the philanthropic view embraces also "work done for their material and temporal prosperity or betterment," "material assistance given them in the prison itself and especially help given upon discharge;" it consists "largely in the hope held out to them of alms of money or clothes or of employment to be furnished or procured for them." Of this latter, he said, he had not been impressed by its utility as he had seen it abused and had seen so-called religion professed or shammed merely to get the help thus offered under its name.

The speaker described the Sunday mass, the weekly instruction and obligation of confession, special religious exercises, general around Easter time, known as missions, or what might be called religious revivals, and entertainments provided under church auspices. The Saturday afternoon confession in the King's County Penitentiary was described in detail. "In the men's prison the priest goes into a cell and the penitents assemble in the corridor and go in to him one by one and make their confession. There you meet all manners and classes of men. They kneel down beside you and accuse themselves fully and sincerely and contritely of their offences against God. There you meet crushed and broken reeds, torn hearts, victims of folly and dissipation; men who had ideals and prospects in life and failed to live up to them, and others who never had anything but the surroundings of filth and squalor; some, the victims of circumstances, and some the victims of injustice or ingratitude which drove them to despair; the weak and the strong and the

erring and the foolish, all meet you there freely and frankly because they at least want to do better. This is in my opinion, the greatest and most potent influence brought to bear especially on this class of men. After the heart to heart talks which take place there, men have stood up and gone out determined to lead better and honest and purer lives, and as far as good resolutions can go, went out as good Christians and citizens as could be wished for."

In the opinion of Father Mulvey, first offenders are often permanently benefited by religious influences, but it is different with habitual offenders, especially with the victims of intemperance, vagrants and petty thieves. But on the whole, he held, religion is a power for good in prison work.

Methods at Elmira. "The big stick which we are hearing so much about nowadays, may make nations stand in awe of us but it never has reformed a criminal," said Dr. Charles F. Howard, of Buffalo, president of the board of managers of the Elmira Reformatory, in a paper on the present methods and work of that institution. "I do not wish," he said, "to detract in the least from the good work accomplished by Mr. Brockway during his twenty-three years of valuable service. The general plan for the reformation of the young men committed to our care is the result of that man's genius; we have not changed the principles as laid down by him, but we have changed the methods of applying them. Corporal punishment at the reformatory was discontinued voluntarily by Mr. Brockway in 1889, more in deference to the wishes of the managers than from the conviction on his part that as a disciplinary measure it has been a failure. We now have no physical punishment for an infraction of the rules of the institution. In 1900, 130 men were locked in cells continuously for various offences; at the present time no one is in solitary confinement. This improvement in my opinion, has been brought about by the action of the board of managers directing that any officer who strikes an inmate except in self-defense or to quell a mutiny, shall be dismissed; by taking away the authority an inmate monitor once had to issue reports against other inmates; and last, by impressing upon each and every prisoner that he will have an equal chance with every other one to progress and gain his liberty, and giving him the privilege to seek an interview with the superintendent or a manager at any time to rectify any fancied or real wrong which he might have or had suffered at the hand of an officer or inmate."

Dr. Howard described also various health measures which have been introduced, notably the examination of the mental condition of inmates upon their arrival (no less than seventy-eight were transferred to Matewan State Hospital when the system was

put into use), and the segregation of the tuberculous inmates and their transference to Clinton Prison, which is located in a climate especially beneficial for the tuberculous. As evidence of the success of the school curriculum covering thirty-one different trades, the erection of two officers' residences, a large power-house, a chimney, 125 feet high, and the trade school building itself, were adduced. Over sixty per cent of those paroled last year went out to work at the trade learned in the reformatory. During the past year 600 men have been paroled, the largest number in the history of the institution. Eighty-six per cent of those paroled in 1903 made good reports for six months or more and obtained their absolute discharge.

At the close of his paper, Dr. Howard referred to politics as a "menace to the proper management of the state charitable institutions. Even a chaplain cannot be selected without first receiving the endorsement of the head of the organization in his respective county. It behooves those composing this conference to keep a sharp eye on legislation and see that no law is enacted whereby the ward-heeler can be placed in control over those poor unfortunates in this state. If Governor Odell had carried out his plans to have a law passed abolishing the board of managers of Elmira Reformatory, I am positive that to-day we would have a politician such as graces (?) the wardenship of Napanoch, at Elmira, instead of the capable, humane and talented man we now have Colonel Joseph F. Scott."

Dependent, Neglected, Delinquent and Defective Children.

Detention Place for Children.

What might be called a moral quarantine station, was advocated by Mornay Williams, president of the New York Juvenile Asylum, in his report as chairman of the committee on dependent, neglected, delinquent and defective children. Mr. Williams showed the advances which had been made in the treatment of juvenile delinquents from the days when the author of *Old Bailey Experiences*, published in 1833, railed at what he called the absurdity of the practice of passing sentence of death on boys under fourteen years of age for such petty offences as stealing a comb, or a sixpenny storybook, or a man's stock.

Mr. Williams contended that the adoption of the indeterminate sentence does not solve the question of the treatment of children, for, he pointed out, the child who needs reformatory care may not be a delinquent, that is an offender, at all. Mr. Williams, therefore, advocated the establishment of a preliminary place of detention for the determination of the needs of the child, where he should become the subject of careful observation, and from which he would pass

directly to his own home or a new home, or if unfit for return to his family or for placement, he could be made the subject of reformatory care in a suitable institution, in which there should be an attempt to classify on lines of moral progress. He criticized severely the custom of classifying children as technical dependents, or technical delinquents, and the resulting classification, in some quarters, of institutions on similar lines. "As a matter of fact," he said, "the line between good and bad, between contaminating and contaminated does not run at all on the legal distinction between dependent and delinquent. A boy who is convicted of the violation of a city ordinance by playing ball in the street and breaking windows is a legal delinquent who may be, though technically guilty of the charge, in no proper sense a delinquent, while the child who was committed solely on the ground of no proper guardianship, but who has been accustomed to associate with drunken and immoral persons, whose mind has become thoroughly polluted, whose vocabulary is largely composed of the thieves' argot, and who is already past master in the lower grades of vice and crime, is not legally a delinquent at all, but is actually a fountain head of immorality and evil for all of his companions. What then is needed is a new classification in the administration of institutions for children, based upon observed character, not on any preliminary charge; and the reformatory training needed is the training which should be proportionate, in duration and in character of instruction, to the character of the child, not at all to any supposed penalty based on the commission of a misdemeanor or a crime."

*The School
is a Training
Place for the
Home.*

Charles D. Hilles, superintendent of the New York Juvenile Asylum, which is just about to open its new cottage colony at Dobbs Ferry, spoke of the school as a training place for the home and made a plea for increased expenditures for dependent and delinquent children. "The average American wage-earner," said he, "of the class receiving less than \$1,000 per annum, expends ten per cent more on each member of his family for the necessities of life than the city of New York expends on each child in one of her institutions.

"We boast of our liberal provision for police and fire protection, of our parks and public works, and yet nowhere in this country of ours, save probably in the territory south of the old Mason and Dixon's line, is less money appropriated for the care and maintenance of public charges of this class. The city of New York annually expends \$50 on each child in the public schools; she annually expends \$15 on the education of each child in institutions. She would seem to say that if the preferred stock is worth 100, the common stock is worth only 30. Massachusetts spends two and one-half times

as much on one child as New York does, and the average cost per capita in juvenile institutions of the North and West is double the allowance made by New York city.

"The cap sheaf of this notable inequality is that if a boy on the eve of his sixteenth birthday were to seriously offend society, he would be committed to one of these institutions against which the city discriminates, while if he were to defer the deed a day, he would become a ward of the state and have expended for his care and maintenance double the sum that would have been appropriated in the first instance."

Mr. Hillis criticized magistrates who commit children for short terms and discharge them without reference to the result produced—regardless of the child's fitness to return to society.

*Parental
Responsibility
Held to Book.*

*The Life of the Street as it
Affects Juvenile Delinquents,*
was the subject of a paper
by Judge Robert J. Wilkin

of the Children's Court of Brooklyn, who urged that the responsibility for the bad conduct of a child should be kept as close to the attention of a parent as is possible, and that frequently the only live, active manner in which to do this to-day is through monetary channels.

Judge Wilkin told of the boy of the immigrant parents who live in quarters so crowded that he is practically pushed out into the world; the boy whose father and mother are indecent; the child of forced or compromised marriages; the son of gamblers and the like conditions, all of them, which tend to degrade boyhood. The effect of the latitude and liberty of the street is to lead such boys to the commission of petty or serious crimes, whereas the same liberty for the boys of responsible parents has only a refining effect upon moral sensibilities and powers to govern themselves. "My appeal to-day," said Judge Wilkin, "is for consideration of a system of returning to the parents more personal responsibility for results as expressed in the action of their children brought before the criminal courts. It seems to me that children must have the freedom of the streets. The complex condition of our great cities, if it proves anything, proves that large numbers of children must of necessity frequent the thoroughfares, especially in the neighborhood of their homes; if so, efforts must be made along the lines of meeting these conditions; to make the streets of a city so that children will not hear adults using obscene, indecent or profane language, will not have the constant sight of drunkenness; but more, I urge, bring back to the parent his responsibility to the body politic, of the proper care and training of his child.

"By the amended provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, the parent of a child committed to an institution pursuant to any provision of law, may be examined to ascertain his ability, in whole or in part, to con-

tribute toward the support of such child, and an order may be made by a court or magistrate directing that he shall make a weekly payment for the purpose. The law preserves the self-respect of the parent, preserves the relationship between the parent and the child. It in a way compensates the state for the expenditure incurred in caring for the child; and many times it punishes the parent by a sort of continuous fine for his neglect or wilful connivance at the offence for which the child was committed to the institutions. In the borough of Brooklyn, where such orders have been made, the city has collected \$3,858, the terms of commitment have been very much shortened so that the city has been relieved of the cost of the care, the institution has been relieved of the expense of the enforced payment, and, best of all, the child has been returned to his home surroundings in a much shorter time."

Institutional Care of Destitute Adults.

*Shop-schools
for Dependent
Blind.*

The "short-sighted leading the blind," about expresses the efficiency of American public provision for dependent defectives of this sort according to Dr. F. Park Lewis of Buffalo, president of the State Commission to Investigate the Condition of the Adult Blind, at Thursday morning's session. Dr. Lewis summed up the result of the commission inquiry of a year ago and made a telling statement of present needs.

"There is no class that appeals more immediately to the sympathy," said he, "or that touches more deeply the well-springs of charity, than the blind. There is consequently no direction in which giving has been less wisely bestowed and in which charities are less productive of permanent result. There was a time when people generally felt that if a man was blind, he could not work and must be cared for. That time has passed. We now recognize that among the blind there are differences as great as among those who see. There are some who would work in any event; who would, in spite of difficulties apparently insurmountable, earn a livelihood. There are others who would never earn a living.

"In order that a blind man may become self-supporting in any technical or professional occupation, he must in these days of fierce competition be not only as well trained but better trained than the man who sees, and even with such training, some aid in the beginning is usually necessary. There are those who, having lost their sight through accident or disease in young manhood or middle age, never have been able to acquire proficiency in any trade not requiring sight. They find a vast gulf between themselves and any possible employment. For the helpless blind we are

willing to provide asylums but why not do the more difficult, but not more expensive thing and prevent large numbers of these semi-helpless ones from becoming absolutely dependent. We might have several hundred citizens instead of several hundred paupers.

"In two days the state of New York has thus far fallen short in its provision for its blind wards. (1) For those who have lost their sight since reaching manhood or womanhood the law provides no training. (2) For those who have been trained and are ready and anxious to begin work to put their education to account, there is a little help needed at the outset, for lack of which the long and expensive training goes for naught. This the state has not yet provided for.

"Not almshouses, not merely educational institutions, but shop-schools—a new thing under the sun—founded on an appreciation of the special needs of the blind, are the results of the best thought of modern philanthropy in the world along these lines. Germany, England and France have all given most earnest study to the problem but, curiously, progressive America, with its extensive philanthropy, has been laggard in recognizing the needs—the right—of a blind man to be taught self-help. Such a work school has been established in Boston. Initial provision has been made in Michigan and Wisconsin, but the recommendation of the New York Commission that a permanent commission be appointed to make the beginnings of a system of local shop-schools was vetoed by the governor, who, in a memorandum expressed his opinion that the state was doing all that it should for its blind wards. The needs of these blind men and women are obvious. Their possibilities have been demonstrated. The especial lack and short-sightedness of our system has been pointed out. The duty and the responsibility of the state toward them must now be determined by the citizens."

*Address
of Commissioner
Tully of
New York.* *Improved Methods of Caring
for Destitute Adults* was the
subject of James H. Tully,
commissioner of Public

Charities, New York city. Mr. Tully reviewed the development of public charities in New York from early days down to the current year when the departmental appropriation is \$1,977,490.16—from the first workhouse on the City Hall site where the maniac and the unruly, the poor, the aged and the infirm were all confined to "the county farm in the Borough of Richmond where three cottages of modern design and equipment arranged for by my predecessor, Homer Folks, are about ready for occupancy. Two of these are intended for aged women and the other for old married couples. This is a new departure but I believe it is in the right direction.

"The character of the help employed in the public institutions should be changed," said Mr. Tully. "Although much superior

to the prison help formerly assigned to that work, it is unsatisfactory and undesirable. This cannot be done unless the rates of pay are made large enough to attract steady and reliable people. The prisoners, of course, received no pay and their successors so little that it fails to secure satisfactory people. The attention of the city authorities has been called to this and it is hoped that in the near future it will be remedied to some extent at least.

"Any intelligent effort to deal with the problem of the care of the destitute must recognize the different classes of destitution and their causes. The vicious and ill-tempered should certainly be kept apart from the refined well-behaved dependent one. It is with this end in view that the cottage system—alluded to before, as inaugurated on the New York Farm Colony at Staten Island—was started and will afford, I have no doubt, an excellent means of developing the idea of segregation.

"There is another class of destitutes that should receive special care, *viz.*: the destitute blind. Without a doubt the blind should be kept and cared for separately as they require special care differing from that which would in a general way suffice for the ordinary dependent one.

"The improvement in the method of living which the progress of the age has evolved throughout the civilized world and especially in these United States should be shared by the dependent ones."

Care and Relief of Needy Families in Their Homes.

The report of the committee on the care and relief of needy families in their homes, was given by the chairman, George A. Lewis, of Buffalo, and was a review of the origin and development of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the lay organization of the Catholic Church which is given over to charitable works. The society is remarkable for its democracy in the sense that its workers are all volunteers, and that its aim is to have its entire membership take a personal hand in carrying out its purpose.

The society was founded in Paris in 1833, in the office of an obscure newspaper, where Frederick Ozanam, a student of eighteen years, and a mere handful of impeccable but earnest youths, set out to answer the reproaches of the philosophers of that day, particularly the disciples of St. Simon, which were directed against Christianity. "Show us your works and we will believe you have some reason for your faith," was the taunt. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul was a direct answer to this challenge. In twenty years the original eight had grown to a membership of 2,000 in Paris alone. They were bringing relief to 5,000 families representing one-fourth of all the

dependent poor of the city. Five hundred conferences had been organized outside of Paris, and the work was in progress of extension to Belgium, England, Spain and America. The first American conference was founded in St. Louis in 1845, New York city following in 1848. In 1898, the total number of conferences reached 5,500 with a membership of over 100,000 in all parts of the globe, there being over 10,000 members in the United States. Primarily the spirit of the organization appeals most strongly to young men although in practice the measure of youth is one of devotion and zeal rather than years. The resources and government of the society are kept strictly in the hands of its own membership. The foremost end which is aimed at is the preservation and maintenance of the home, but a variety of special activities have been developed in the way of prison work, clubs, night schools, offices for medical and legal advice, agencies for placing orphaned Catholic children in Catholic homes and safeguarding the conditions surrounding them in the families of their foster-parents, etc.

The Control of Volunteer Charity Visitors. was the subject of the Rev. D. J. McMahon, D. D.,

supervisor of Catholic Charities of the Arch Diocese of New York. Father McMahon praised the development of systems of friendly visiting among the poor. He contrasted the use of visitors under the so-called poor's tithes of the Jews and the work of the deacons and deaconesses and simple members of the early Christian churches with the attitude of pagan Rome. The largess for "bread and the circus" given for political reasons was not evidence of charity but of chicanery to win the popular favor. One emperor declared "The poor alone remain from whom nothing can be collected in taxes. Let them be sent out in ships and then drowned in the sea."

Dr. McMahon discussed the impulses which lead to service among the poor of the professional worker and the volunteer—"work which may be embraced for economic ends based on sympathetic humanitarian motives," and "work where the end is economic and spiritual, based on a religious motive." "Since we cannot agree on these interior forces," said he, "since we cannot make captives of each other, and since we will not march under the other standard, let us before the common object strike our arms and work together to help the poor in distress.

"Is it not possible that we need more volunteer work in the lines of charity and that we must cultivate that field more and more? The amount spent for charity everywhere is growing larger. Is it not quite possible that like education in New York city, there may be a ground swell that too much is being absorbed in it? The charity budget has been growing faster than the

population—in 1880, \$1,267,874; in 1890, \$1,949,100, being something over fifty per cent. increase in ten years; in 1892, \$2,170,125, being over ten per cent. in two years. So the increase has been going on, despite the fact that private charities are growing in larger number and larger outlay. As this sum becomes greater there must be a call for a halt in the expenditure and a searchlight sent out to discover some other means to effect the end without such cost to the benevolent. It is generally conceded that the sums expended in our charities are wisely expended and that more should be allowed; but the time will soon come, if the amounts continue to increase, when some means must be devised to limit the burden or throw some of it upon private charities. In ultimate analysis this will mean the cutting down, not on the supplies, but on the salary list and the more general use of the volunteer visitor and worker. In public charities volunteers are not used at the present time because, as one official stated, 'such help is very unsatisfactory;' but when necessity forces it, then will means be used to obtain the best and control it. The effectiveness, however, of such a system as the Elberfeld in Germany would depend upon the official in charge, and is indeed susceptible to an evil turn so that state control of volunteers can scarcely be considered at the present time a factor for us."

Dr. McMahon described the use made of volunteer visitors by private organizations in America, notably the St. Vincent de Paul Society.

*How to Aid
Deserted Wives.*

"From a total of 1,469 families under the care of the New York Charity Organization Society in March, 1904, ninety-four or six per cent were deserted wives. The percentage of desertion among the families of the Boston Associated Charities for a number of years averaged 9.33. From these figures as well as from common observation it is seen that the evil is widespread," said C. C. Carstens, assistant secretary of the New York society, in his paper on *How to Aid Deserted Wives*. "Out of 211 cases of desertion at one time under the care of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, eighty per cent were such as might be called chronic.

"A small group of deserters might be called reclaimable. Hot temper and stubbornness sometimes account for desertion that is often as quickly regretted as it is entered into. Some deserted wives are not deserted at all. The husband in such instances is either away or in collusion with his wife, or is actually around. There is also a group that may be called half-excusable. A neglected home, a shrewish temper and meals that are not fit to set before anyone, drive some men to drink and others to desertion. To provide against this, better

home making, school training in cooking, sewing and nursing, are necessary. Differences in religious faiths and striking differences in nationality are sometimes factors. The causes that lead to wife desertion, and its cure, are further complicated by the fact that desertion is often but one of a series of lawless acts which the husband commits, and as laws now stand in many of our states, including New York, prosecution for desertion must stand aside for prosecutions due to minor misdemeanors.

"The community is apt to think of a deserted wife as in the same position toward it as a widow. It is pointed out that there are dependent children, there is inadequate support, and that in many instances as far as the welfare of the family is concerned the husband is as good as dead. To this charity workers reply that chronic desertion implies a frequent return of the husband. The old procedure of referring the deserted wife to the almshouse or to occasional outdoor relief, is demoralizing and inadequate, while giving relief readily is equally bad. There is a middle ground. A persistent, careful search by legal or private means and a readiness to keep up the prosecution is a safeguard that charity has ignored, and all relief should be given with the understanding that legal measures should be taken as soon as the husband is located. If the wife asks relief upon her own terms, all aid beyond the emergency should be withheld and some other reasonable way for providing for them in their own family must be suggested. When the home cannot then be kept together the children should be boarded out or committed to institutions. One of the best remedies is a desertion law which shall make prosecution and interstate rendition possible."

*Politics in Penal and Charitable
Institutions.*

*Politics in
Penal and
Charitable
Institutions.*

The report of the committee on politics of the state conference was given Thursday evening by Prof. Frank A. Fetter, of Cornell University, and is of especial significance in connection with the state political campaign just closed, in which non-partisanship in the administration of public charitable institutions played such a factor.

Professor Fetter reviewed a number of instances of almshouse abuse in New York the past year, and gave utterance to the belief of many familiar with problems of rural almshouses, that the rules of the state civil service should be extended to such institutions. He affirmed that, with the defeat of the fusion party in Greater New York, and despite the declaration of the Democratic state platform, a commissioner of charities had been appointed without previous knowledge or experience in such work, and his appointment and administration of

the department had been on a frankly partisan basis. "The previous two years had been thoroughly epoch making in the charity department and this progress has come to an end." In one important respect, however, the new administration was given praise. It has made little, if any, effort to break down the protection offered by the civil service law to those holding positions in the competitive class.

The committee gave hearty commendation of the appointment of Dr. Mabon as president of the Lunacy Commission. A Republican of high standing, however, was quoted as stating that he had positive knowledge that the Lunacy Commission has attempted to work politics in connection with state hospitals. Of the board of alienists created by the last legislature in connection with the commission, Professor Fetter said: "The one salaried position was awarded to Mike Hines, whose qualifications were that he was the Republican leader in the Second Assembly District of New York and a Bowery saloon-keeper."

The report continued: "In the matter of the prisons the shameful history of Napanoch, and its use as a tool for political ends in the past four years, calls for the strongest condemnation. This institution was begun as a reformatory to relieve the overcrowding at Elmira, but soon it was taken out of the control of the board of managers and put under the state superintendent of prisons. This change, in accord with the policy of centralization, was made against the protests of all prison reformers in the state, who saw in it a partisan purpose. Before the prison was completed, the policy of economy was ignored and a full set of officers was appointed. The first superintendent was a man of no experience, but a good farmer and engineer, and made a fairly good officer, but just as he had gained some experience he was removed to make place for a certain Jacob Snell, whose qualifications were that he 'carried Montgomery County around in his pocket' for the Republican party. It must be said in partial defense of the superintendent of prisons that he did not wish to make this notoriously unfit appointment, but he was compelled to do so by political pressure from the center of power.

"In contrast with this occurrence the calling of Mr. Scott to Elmira is an illustration of how the best man may be sought and found when that is the main object in an appointment. Mr. Scott was well situated at Concord, Mass., where he had been for years the superintendent of the state reformatory. He had no desire to leave. He has an independent income. He was quietly approached by a member of the board of managers of Elmira and, recognizing a great opportunity to do a new work, he accepted the call. The board of managers paid no attention to state lines, but determined to have the best man to be found any-

where in the country for the money the state had to pay. In the opinion of experts, Mr. Scott has revolutionized the reformatory in the last eight months and is making it again worthy of its once great reputation.

"The lesson in this contrast is not so much that a particular agency should make appointments as that appointments should be made in the right spirit. When under political pressure from the former state boss, the same board of managers had not been entirely fortunate. The ideal is to give competent boards of managers power to select from any portion of the land administrative officers who have made charity of penology a profession and who have demonstrated their fitness. An appointment of a non-resident is not necessarily better than one of a resident of the state, but such a method as that followed in this case is strong evidence that the appointment is made upon merit and not for partisan purposes."

*Spread of a
Sounder
Sentiment.*

Summing up the present situation Professor Fetter said: "The pressure upon the high officials with appointing power is so strong that they cannot resist the greedy grafter unless the mass of the citizens demand and recognize good public service. The corruptionist and the vote catcher are ever on the alert; and the citizen who is ready to put party service above public welfare is an unconscious accomplice in the corruption of the government. But there are many hopeful evidences of the spread of a sounder sentiment. The particular policy which has so alarmed the philanthropists of the state has been everywhere repudiated and discredited. When a governor forces an unwilling legislature to accept an unwise measure, it is a denial of representative government. When the governor ignores all reasonable advice from public-spirited citizens, it is a defeat of free institutions which must be shaped by public opinion. The policy of centralization applied to benevolent institutions is impractical because it overlooks the spiritual aspects of the problem without which no machinery of business organization can be more than an empty shell. The self-styled business governor is peculiarly liable to blunder at this point if he has not knowledge to guide, sympathy to suggest and patience to stop for counsel in the voice of experience.

Professor Fetter reviewed the recent state campaign in which non-partisan management of benevolent institutions was made an issue. The most significant fact was the recognition of this, he said, by tens of thousands of voters of both parties, and that both candidates put themselves fairly and squarely on record in favor of the merit system. The realization of the admirable pledges of the governor-elect will mark an epoch in the history of the charities

of this state for whose development so much remains to be done.

Civil Service Requirements for State Institutions.

"The Civil Service Law as Applied to Penal and Charitable Institutions" was discussed by Charles S. Fowler, chief examiner of the State Civil Service Commission, Albany. Much has been expected and something accomplished in the eradication of evil conditions through the civil service law according to Mr. Fowler. The system of competitive examinations has been found to work well and, in his opinion, it can be extended to a great majority of places now exempt with benefit to the service, as is shown by the experience of the federal and Chicago commissions. The pressure upon the commission and the governor to exempt important places is so great that political exigency is likely to override considerations of the public good. Specific legislation should provide that specific places shall be competitive. Such statutory provision now governs superintendents and physicians of the state hospitals, the Rome State Custodial Asylum and the Raybrook Hospital for Consumptives.

"This is a start," said Mr. Fowler. "If it is a good thing, push it along. Why not have a similar provision for the wardens of the prisons, the superintendents of the reformatories, the keepers in the county jails, and so on? That sort of legislation once enacted will stand, but the history of all civil service commissions having discretionary powers of classification shows great inconsistencies in the treatment of similar positions and many special changes of classification which it would require the utmost charity to attribute to a desire for good government. The success of the merit system must depend finally upon the demand of the people for good appointments and their faith that the examinations really do offer fair and equal opportunity to all to demonstrate their fitness for the public service. If we believe in the system and desire its success, we must cultivate this demand and this faith."

The Radical Defect of the Merit System

"The abolition of the spoils system root and branch is a necessary prerogative of all branches of government," said Frank M. Loomis, of Buffalo, in an address Thursday evening on the radical defect of the merit system. "That defect I conceive to be," said he, "the failure to provide a method by which not only the minor places but all the places in the public service may be filled by a practical test of the merit. The practical difficulties in the enforcement of the civil service law result not because it is impracticable to apply a merit test in all cases, but because of a radical defect in the system under which the test is applied. We have had for many years a system of competitive examinations which all observers agree fur-

nishes and applies a relatively adequate test on the qualifications of persons seeking minor positions in the public service. Provision has been made for promotion from these minor positions to relatively higher positions, but not to the highest positions. Why? Because of an unconfessed willingness to relinquish the remaining remnant of an official patronage. . . . I have still less regard for the court-made laws providing that confidential positions, so-called, must be exempted because of the alleged impracticability of filling such positions by the competitive examination. A test of fitness is as necessary for these places as for those graded lower. The choice of the appointing officers for these higher positions is determined by partisan consideration as much as when applications are made in the lower grades. Heads of departments, deputies and secretaries owe their positions not always, but usually to political pull. Almost invariably the 'organization' is a pre-requisite to receiving an appointment. . . . I will even hazard the opinion that the judges of our courts will not be above providing some needy and not necessarily efficient applicant with a position as confidential secretary. I know of one such instance in this state where a supreme court judge appointed his own son to such a position.

"A further and important reason for urging the extension of the classified service is that in this way and no other is it practicable to induce the best qualified men to take examinations provided for entrance into the service. We must provide a career worthy of strenuous effort. We must not limit that career to the incumbency of minor positions and practically bar all chance of promotion to the head of the government department. We must not continue to say in effect that the highest award is given not to merit but to the subserviency of the political bosses."

Mr. Loomis closed with an endorsement of the free nomination system, as a reform which must ultimately accompany the reform of the civil service. A house divided against itself cannot stand. This government, to paraphrase Lincoln, cannot endure half slave in bondage to the spoils system; half free in devotion to a partial merit system.

A Field for Non-Competitive Appointment.

Discussion of Mr. Loomis' paper was opened by Edward T. Devine, general secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society. Mr. Devine said:

"It appears to me that it is a sound instinct which has limited the competitive examination system to subordinate places. That method of selecting employes is suited to routine positions, in which the work to be done has been well ascertained, and in which there has been ample time to discover what tests are appropriate. A great railway system which has had normal growth and which requires an army of employes for positions in which initiative and

flexibility and independence and judgment are less essential than absolute reliability and steadiness and strength may make far greater use of a system of competitive examinations than, for example, a new factory in which the processes are in an experimental stage, in which enterprise and originality and adaptability and new conditions are required.

"For this reason I think that it was unfortunate when three years ago a new municipal department was created in New York city—the tenement-house department—the commissioner was compelled to choose inspectors and clerks from an eligible list prepared by the civil service commission. It was largely new work, demanding new qualities, presenting new difficulties and extraordinary opportunities. Now, I grant readily that there might have been much worse methods of selecting the employes. To have taken them under the ordinary political spoils system would have been worse, but that does not lessen the force of my contention that the method actually in operation by which the commission was compelled suddenly to produce an eligible list of some thousands of persons, revealed very clearly to those who had occasion to examine the list that it was a very defective method, under such conditions, even for subordinate positions.

"If now the mayor had been compelled to resort to the same method in selecting his commissioner, and the commissioner in the selection of his deputy, the legislature might almost as well not have passed the law of 1900 at all.

"Do you think that Roosevelt would have beaten either Parker or Root in an examination for the presidency! If that is too close home to the heart of the reformer, let me ask whether Lincoln would have been able to compete with Seward in such an examination. Literally I doubt whether any civil service commission could have been created that would have framed a series of questions which would have put Abraham Lincoln among the first three on an eligible list of 1860. Hamilton would certainly have beaten Washington. Aaron Burr would have beaten Jefferson. Grant would not have stood a ghost of a show against McClellan."

The Mentally Defective.

*Progress
in Care of
the Mentally
Defective.*

The report of the committee on the mentally defective, read by Dr. Eugene H. Howard, superintendent of the Rochester State Hospital, was a chronicle of progress in theory and practice. Dr. Howard believes that the increase in the number of insane from year to year does not represent exactly a certain number of new cases, but rather the bringing forward of additional cases by the increasing need of the community for protection, and a growing confidence in institutional care.

The report records the state and government provisions for preventing the immigration of the insane; increased provision for the insane; the erection of special buildings for special classes, such as the curable, the tuberculous and those having contagious diseases; the erection of amusement halls; two increases of pay for employes during the year; the accomplishment of Dr. Peterson's task of reorganizing the medical work on a basis which secures co-operation of the medical profession, particularly the neurologists; and a warm recognition of the value of tents and pavilions for tuberculous patients.

"What might have been accomplished for the feeble-minded and idiots and remains undone, is a matter of serious consideration," the report continues. Lack of funds has been a great hindrance. "It is extremely necessary that provision be made in this state at an early date for the criminal feeble-minded, they being a menace to the reformatory institutions where little or nothing can be done for them, and from whence they are soon to be turned back into the community to continue their depredations, and to drift farther into crime and diffuse vile habits among younger children. The board at Rome proposes to impress upon the next legislature the need of special provision for the criminal feeble-minded, the extreme desirability of the farm colony extension, and also proposes to ask for sufficient money in addition to moneys appropriated last year to provide for an additional 400 inmates in connection with the institution—the amount to be asked for being in round numbers \$170,000."

*Non-Partisan
Management of
State Institutions.*

Daniel B. Murphy, of Rochester, a member of the board of managers of the Craig Colony for Epileptics at Sonyea, speaking on "Duties and Responsibilities of Visitors and Managers of Institutions for the Care of the Defective Classes," reviewed the forms of state supervision and deplored the change from the non-partisan management of local boards to the present State Commission in Lunacy and the governor, who appoints the members of the commission. He quoted from CHARITIES of October 22, in which Governor-elect Higgins declared in an interview: "I am in favor of re-establishing local boards of managers . . . and of transferring from the state commission in lunacy to such local boards all the administrative powers and responsibilities which they had when abolished, except those that are strictly financial."

"The only problem it seems now the charities will have to confront later on, will be the financial management of the institution. The great problem in connection with the case in point is this: Can this dual system of management, partly by local boards of managers, and partly by other officials at Albany, serve the best interests

of the institution? Should the financial management of these institutions be left absolutely in the hands of the board or commission, whose avowed purpose and chief desire is to save money to the state, without, too often, I fear, considering the scope, the character and the value of the work the institutions were created to achieve? Cannot some plan be devised by which this central commission or board in Albany would have power to approve estimates *jointly* with the board of managers?

"I would summarize my view of the powers and duties of managers of the various charitable institutions of the state as follows: First—I believe that the charitable institutions can best be governed by boards of managers made up of representative men and women of philanthropic spirit and known to be unselfishly interested in the work the institutions they represent is trying to do. Second—Boards of managers should have power to appoint and remove all persons employed in the institution, subject to state civil service rules and regulations. Third—The managers should have the right to say what help is required to run the institution. Fourth—The managers should have the right—co-jointly, if need be—with some authority or authorities in Albany, to say what expenditures the institution should make."

*The Value
of the State
Pathological
Institute.*

"Classifications of insanity are almost as numerous as books upon the subject—a sufficiently clear demonstration that none has met with general approval," said Dr. William L. Russell, of Poughkeepsie, medical inspector of institutions for the insane, in a paper on *Importance of Recognition and Appropriate Care of Distinct Phases of Mental Defect*.

"A few years ago the most promising field for the investigation of the nature of insanity was considered to be in the morbid changes discoverable in the nervous system of those who had died insane. It is now believed that this view is not entirely correct. Partly as a result of the progress of medicine and other branches, but principally because of the work of a small group of German investigators, the subject has been approached by direct methods to determine the exact conditions presented by the patients. After years of patient study of the life histories of a large number of cases they have made a foundation for classifications founded upon not only the immediate symptoms presented, but upon a fairly comprehensive knowledge of the disease type with which the case could be identified.

"About eight years ago the Pathological Institute of the State Hospitals was opened. The purpose, since broadened, was to furnish facilities for investigations of the anatomy, physiology and pathology of the nervous system." Two years ago the work of the reorganized institute was fairly begun. The general outlines of the plan con-

sisted in, (1) provision for instruction of the assistants in the hospitals in advanced clinical methods; (2) consequent improvement in the methods of medical study in the hospitals, and the accumulation of useful data; (3) more extended laboratory and post mortem work; (4) original research work at the institute. I know of nothing relating to the recognition and appropriate care of distinct phases of mental defect which is of more practical importance to the people of this state."

In discussing Dr. Russell's report, Dr. Robert B. Lamb, medical superintendent of the Dannemora State Hospital, pointed out that the Pathological Institute has rendered a valuable service in the establishment of a working system and the creation of an organized corps of scientific workers constantly collaborating in their labors. "The fundamental principle of the new system is that the record of a case shall be a matter of facts," he said. "It may be well enough to outline an opinion as explanatory of previously noted facts, but the facts must be noted together so that anyone who reads the record may form an opinion. The record is just as valuable a guide a century after it is made—indeed, it is not unreasonable to expect that with the advancement in learning going on each year, the records made to-day may be better interpreted at the end of a century."

*Business
of the
Conference.*

The conference closed with an attendance which promised, at the earlier sessions, to surpass all previous ones.

The officers for next year are as follows:
President—Nathan Bijur, New York.

Vice-Presidents—Charles Andrews, Syracuse; D. B. Murphy, Rochester; R. F. Cutting, New York.

Secretary—George McLaughlin, Albany.

Assistant Secretary—Wellington D. Ives, Albany; P. H. Boyd, New York; Porter H. Lee, Buffalo.

Members Executive Committee—Nathan Bijur, R. W. Heberd, Wm. P. Letchworth, Robert W. de Forest, William R. Stewart, Thomas M. Mulry, ex-presidents; Geo. B. Robinson, New York; Simon W. Rosendale, Albany; George A. Lewis, Buffalo; George McLaughlin, secretary; Frank Tucker, treasurer.

The 1905 conference will be held in New York city the week of November 13.

The committees and their chairmen are as follows:

Care of Needy Families in their Homes, Lee K. Frankel; Dependent, Neglected, Delinquent and Defective Children, William Church Osborne; Care of Sick and Mentally Defective, William Mabon; Treatment of the Criminal, Samuel J. Barrows; Social Betterment and Preventive Social Work, Thomas J. Mulry; Enforcement of Law and Elimination of Politics from Penal and Charitable Institutions, William O. Stillman.

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*The Endowment
of the New York
School
of Philanthropy.*

CHARITIES has the good fortune to be able to announce the endowment by John S. Kennedy of the New York School of Philanthropy. It is understood that the securities to be turned over to the Charity Organization Society for this purpose consist of \$250,000 in four and one-half per cent bonds of the Provident Loan Society, and it is estimated that the income from them will be sufficient to continue the school on its present basis and to permit of enlargement in certain directions which the society has earnestly desired. Mr. Kennedy had already won a distinguished place in the history of philanthropy in New York city through his support of the Presbyterian Hospital and in other ways, but especially by his erection of the United Charities Building with four important societies as direct beneficiaries and nearly twenty more as tenants on a special basis of reduced rentals.

By the permanent endowment of the School of Philanthropy, Mr. Kennedy has enhanced to a still further and extraordinary degree the respect and appreciation in which his name will ever be held by those who value enlightened and efficient service on behalf of the poor. With Mr. Kennedy's name should be associated that of Robert W. de Forest, president of the Charity Organization Society, upon whose advice and suggestions in this gift, as in that of the United Charities Building, Mr. Kennedy has confidently and with ample justification relied. The donor sets forth the terms of his generous benefaction in the following letter:

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NEW YORK, November 15, 1904.
MR. ROBERT W. DEFOREST,
President Charity Organization Society,
of the City of New York.

*The Letter
from
John S Kennedy.* My dear Sir—I obtained an act of incorporation for the "United Charities," and erected the building which is known by that name, in the hope of securing thereby greater co-operation and more effective work among the important charitable agencies of New York, many of which are now located in the building. My expectations have been fully realized, and with their realization on the side of more efficient work has come a demand, not only in the city of New York, but throughout the country at large, for trained charity helpers. There is the same need for knowledge and experience in relieving the complex disabilities of poverty that there is in relieving mere ailments of the body, and the same process of evolution that has brought into our hospital service the trained physician and the trained nurse increasingly calls for the trained charity worker.

I have noticed with increasing interest the efforts in this direction of the School of Philanthropy, conducted for the past seven years in the United Charities Building by the Charity Organization Society, which in its inception was solely a summer vacation school, but in its present form constitutes a full year's course, and I have, after careful consideration, decided to provide the means for establishing this school on a permanent basis, if the proposition contained in this letter proves to be acceptable to your society.

That proposition is to give to the society securities which, at present interest rates, will produce an income of not less than ten thousand dollars a year. The principal sum shall be held intact as a permanent endowment for the School of Philanthropy, for the support of which only the income is to be used. The conduct of the school to be under the direction of a special committee of the Charity Organization Society, to be appointed for this purpose, to consist besides yourself, of Mr. Otto T. Bannard, vice-president of the society, and some other members of the society satisfactory to me. I wish to have Columbia University affiliated with this committee, as it is with the society, by constituting the president of the university for the time being, or some

person delegated by him for that purpose, an *ex-officio* member of this committee. I should also wish to emphasize the relation of this school to the United Charities and to the philanthropic work of the city, by constituting as *ex-officio* members of the committee, the president for the time being of the "United Charities," of the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York, of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, of the United Hebrew Charities, and of the Particular Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul.

To insure continuity in the constitution of this committee, I would wish to have vacancies in it only filled with the approval of a majority of its appointive as distinguished from its *ex-officio* members.

I have considered the possible independent corporate organization of the school, and I have decided that my intentions can be best carried out for the present through the Charity Organization Society, which has already initiated and carried on such a school. Should I hereafter change my opinion on this point and wish to establish a separate corporation to carry on the work of the school, I wish to reserve to myself, during my lifetime, on reasonable notice, the opportunity of transferring the gift to such a new corporation.

It is my hope to have the necessary space to conduct the exercises in the United Charities Building. If further space is needed, it would be my expectation that it could be provided in the building without encroachment on the income of the fund I propose to give.

I have also considered the possible desirability of establishing the school as a department of some university, but have decided it should preferably be connected directly with the practical charity work of the city, in analogy rather to training schools for nurses which are connected with the hospitals than to any separate university department. I should hope it would affiliate its work, however, not only with Columbia University, but with other educational institutions, and I have sought by naming as *ex-officio* members of the committee the presidents for the time being of the more important societies dealing directly with the poor, not only to associate them in the direction of the school, but to emphasize my desire that this school shall give a training in the practice of that broad charity which is free from any limitations of creed or nationality.

Very truly yours,

JOHN S. KENNEDY.

Medicancy Situation in New York.

The efforts to rid New York of professional beggars on the part of the mendicancy committee of the New York Charity Organization Society have been hampered for some time past by the early

discharge from the workhouse of prisoners committed for vagrancy. The situation became especially aggravated last week. An attempt was made to arrest Robert Brown, alias Joseph Howell, who was simulating paralysis and begging on the elevated railroad station at the corner of Grand street and the Bowery. The fellow showed fight, and Officer James H. Brennan of mendicancy detail and two policemen were severely injured. The flagrant part of the occurrence was not so much that the ostensible paralytic proved able-bodied and pugilistic, but that at the time of the occurrence, he should still have been serving a six-months' sentence, passed upon him May 20 after a succession of previous sentences.

The committee on mendicancy passed the following resolution October 21:

WHEREAS, This committee has received from its special agent and chief mendicancy officer, James Forbes, information which appears conclusive that serious demoralization of its work in suppressing street begging is threatened with the improper discharge of various offenders prior to the expiration of the terms to which they have been sentenced—such discharges being either upon the recommendation of the Department of Correction, or because of failure to keep proper records as provided by law, and to supply such records to the magistrate when called for; and

WHEREAS, A felonious assault upon one of the officers of the mendicancy detail has recently been committed by a man who at the time of the assault should have been serving a six months' sentence of which he had actually served only one month; and

WHEREAS, The magistrate who made such discharge states that he would not have done so if proper records had been kept and furnished to him by the Department of Correction; and

WHEREAS, There have been many other instances in which similar discharges have been made without the knowledge of this committee or its officers, in spite of the fact that we had supplied the evidence upon which such prisoners had originally been convicted, therefore be it

Resolved, That the committee requests the Hon. Francis J. Lantry, commissioner of correction, to investigate the cause of such discharges and to take measures to prevent their recurrence.

Resolved, That Mr. Forbes be instructed to prepare and forward to the commissioner of correction a statement concerning the numerous instances which have been presented to this committee and in which such improper discharges have been made.

This data has since been submitted.

*Tuberculosis
Quarantine.* Fortunately the clause which marks for deportation immigrants suffering from contagious or loathsome diseases, is not often construed to include tuberculosis. The altogether unjustifiable hardship entailed by such interpretation is well illustrated by a recent incident in San Francisco, when Judge Herville, of Tahiti, a consumptive, on his way home to spend the rest of his days in France, was not allowed to land.

Unless there are attendant circumstances in the case which have not reached the newspapers, the utmost that can be said in behalf of the officials responsible for this incident is that in an access of zeal for the public weal they have acted on a half-truth which is more deplorable than utter ignorance.

*For the Great
Body of
the Un-nursed.* A British journal devoted to hospitals and nursing is discussing a scheme for supplying visiting nurses to other than the poor people of England. Attention is called to the fact "that the middle class in England is increasing constantly in numbers and that its needs do not receive proper consideration. If the clerk or the poor clergyman seek the shelter of the hospital, we have columns about 'hospital abuse'; if they ask to be allowed to pay what they can afford, they are told they must either pay the full fees or a nursing home, or accept the charity of the common wards. And the service of the district nurse is denied them."

The scheme proposed for meeting this situation is the establishment of homes from which visiting nurses should work, charging moderate fees, working under committees, and subject to inspection. For the "many cases in which the constant presence of a stranger would only mean restraint and worry, and when the illness demands but a morning and evening visit," such a resource would be invaluable.

Further, the journal says:

It is not only the small charge that makes the visiting nurse popular, but the fact that she is not such a nuisance to the patient, not such a burden on the household. In all these huge houses filled with flats, in all these rows of mean suburban

houses, there may be no extreme poverty, but there is no room for a nurse. The young man in chambers, the young woman in her tiny flat, are subject to attacks of influenza and rheumatism like the rest of us; they are probably living alone, they earn their living by small weekly wage—a wage very likely not so high as that of a mechanic; but they shrink from seeing the hospital, they have no brother or sister at hand to help them, and they cannot house a resident nurse, nor can they afford her fee, nor supply her many requirements. It were, indeed, worth while then to organize for all London, and for all big towns, nurses of skill and character who could be trusted to visit such cases daily, to take a moderate fee, and to advise, if necessary, removal to a hospital, or the securing of the services of a permanent nurse.

The work would commend itself very kindly to our elderly and sober nurses, who have lost the feverish desire for the excitement of the operating theater, and the longing to be engaged constantly in a hand-to-hand fight with death. The strain of nursing work was so great a few years ago that a theory got abroad that a nurse over fifty was quite out of date. Now we have altered all that; we have come to recognize that the young nurse has her limitations and that the world is big enough to offer work to all, and that the nurse of sixty even has her place in the universe. And for the nursing of the middle class, neither the very young nor the very old should be chosen; the responsibility will be great and the work will be trying. It needs a steadfast worker and a sober woman to visit successfully in the flats and chambers and small houses in London. There are some nurses who go to district work who find before long that their sympathies become dulled by constant contact with sordid poverty, that the dirt and the vermin fill them with such disgust that they lose that sweet serenity of soul which is the core of all good work. However much they may pity their patients they cannot do the work cheerfully and well, and their powers are blunted. Such women are eminently fitted for nursing the middle classes; there the refined economies, the hidden needs, call forth their sympathy without jarring on their susceptibilities; it seems to them much more pitiful that the girl typist cannot afford meat every day than that the dock laborer should go breakfastless to his task. If it be true "to each his sufferings," it is also true "to each his sympathies," and we feel confident that once this organization for supplying visiting nurses is developed, several of our readers will there find their true sphere of work, and render excellent service.

The only criticism that occurs, on this scheme as outlined, is in regard to the proposition that the incomes of these

nurses "are to be eked out by the hands of the benevolent." This seems to obliterate the democratic feature of the scheme and to leave the "middle class" still dependent on charity.

The need for increased provision in the way of hospital and nursing facilities for the great body of city residents, who are neither the rich nor the poor, is one which calls quite as loudly in America for an adequate and democratic solution.

James Dangerfield, a retired British manufacturer, representing the British Institute for Social Service recently organized along the lines of the American body founded by Dr. Josiah Strong, has spent a month in New York collecting material and familiarizing himself with the methods employed. The winter will be spent by Mr. Dangerfield in visiting the Musée Social, Paris, the Humanitarian Society, Milan, and kindred undertakings. The scope of the new institute will not be limited to England; co-operating organizations in all of the colonies are ultimate possibilities.

The Earl of Meath, who is identified with various forms of social betterment, has been made president of the British Institute, and Percy Alden, late warden of Mansfield House, London, and Budgett Meakin, director of the Shaftesbury Industrial Betterment Lectures have been appointed secretaries. As in the case of many of the great philanthropic movements in England, the list of promoters begins with a bunch of titles and nomenclature of Lords Bishops calculated to make a democratic American's eyes bulge, but when these are interpreted to mean some of the most forceful thinkers of Britain and are placed alongside such men of affairs as George Cadbury, the founder of the Bournville Model Village, and W. H. Lever, the founder of "Port Sunlight," and such popular leaders and radicals as Canon Barnett, of Tynbee Hall, John Burns, labor representative in parliament, Benjamin Kidd, and Edward R. Pease, secretary of the Fabian Society, the representative character of the project is plainer and its effectiveness is seen to rest upon whether these are merely names to conjure with or stand for a practical

working interest, Mr. Dangerfield's activity would seem to give credence to the latter supposition. Documents and reports of societies in the United States working along social lines, will be gladly received by the American Institute, 105 East Twenty-second street, and forwarded to the headquarters of the British organization. In this connection, it is announced that the institute has been promised the exhibits in the division of social economy at the St. Louis Exposition made by Germany, France, Italy, Belgium, Siam and Japan.

The first Charities Conference of the Oranges (N. J.) for the season of 1904-5, held on November 1, had the housing problem as a topic for its discussion. Miss Ada Woodworth, inspector for the Civic Sanitation Association, presented a statement of existing conditions as she had found them, tracing their genesis from the lay of the land and the history of the settlement of the Oranges, and the development of manufacturing and other interests. She drew a picture which was interesting, but in many respects not pleasant, and calling for a remedy. Miss Woodworth was followed by Clinton McKenzie, member of the State Tenement-house Commission, who described the powers given to that commission under the law passed at the last session of the legislature, and the methods taken to carry out its intent, and by Charles J. Allen, secretary of the commission, who described its experiences in correcting violations of the law during the past six months.

Referring to the claim made last winter by builders, that the passage of the law would preclude further building of tenements, Mr. Allen stated that the commission had already passed plans for 178 buildings to cost \$1,526,000. Of these buildings over forty were planned for the Oranges. The commission had inspected 607 new buildings in which 534 violations of the law had been noted, of these 317 have already been removed. Inspections of old buildings to the number of 1,459 have been made, and 340 violations found. Of this number, 171 have been removed. Complaints have been filed in 113 cases, 85 of which were found to be warranted.

*British
Institute for
Social Service.*

*The Housing
Problem at the
Orange
Conference.*

Of these the cause had been removed in 73 cases, penalty had been recovered in one case, and 11 cases are still pending.

While the commission has discovered much reluctance on the part of property owners to comply with the terms of the law, it has succeeded, without serious difficulty, in impressing delinquents with the fact that it has power to compel acquiescence, and has almost wholly, so far, avoided the necessity of litigation.

A strong purpose was manifested at the conference to secure the erection of improved dwellings for the poor, preferably of single cottages or small houses to accommodate a very few families, and to assist the Tenement-house Commission in its efforts for a stringent enforcement of the law.

*Sustained in the
Highest Court.*

On November 15 the Court of Appeals of the state of New York handed down an opinion sustaining the constitutionality of the Tenement-house Law. The decision was in a test case brought by the Tenement-house Department of New York city to determine the validity of that section of the law relating to the removal of school sinks from the yards of tenements. Thus, the highest court in the state, by sustaining the law on the only point in which its constitutionality has been questioned, removes all doubt as to the authority of the department to demand that these disease-breeding school sinks be removed. It is suggestive to note that the newspapers which have commented on the decision hailed it as "a notable triumph for justice, good sense and sound morals," showing the unanimity of public opinion back of this section of the law.

The most important duty before the present administration of the Tenement-house Department is to secure the structural changes in the houses built prior to the enactment of the new law. Far reaching as are the requirements for new buildings, those for changing old buildings affect for the present a much larger percentage of the tenement population. The department has been exceedingly lax in requiring these structural changes. By this decision the last obstacle has been removed, for the Board of Estimate and Apportionment granted a special appro-

priation of \$50,000 for this particular purpose.

The chief structural changes required in old houses are the removal of school sinks and the substitution of water closets, the cutting of windows into dark interior rooms and the increase of light in the dark halls. No change in tenement conditions is now so much to be desired as these. There are 6,000 school sinks in Manhattan alone and they should be wiped out of existence.

*Enforcement Now
Should Follow.*

Investigations made in Chicago, in the army camps and elsewhere into the spread of typhoid fever have shown that the common house fly is one of the most potent factors in propagating this disease. Inasmuch as these school sinks are invariably located in the most crowded sections of the city, and since in such sections it is the custom to display the food supplies in front of small stores or in pushcarts, the presence of one sink may contaminate the food of 3,000 or 4,000 persons. Also these sinks have direct connections with the water supply of the houses and in some instances the contents of the sink have been pumped up to the roof tank and thus have directly contaminated the water supply of the whole house.

There are also 350,000 dark interior rooms in Manhattan. The law requires the owner to cut large windows into these dark rooms, but so far the department has done practically nothing to secure these changes. These rooms are the haunts of the tuberculosis germ and it is in them that the majority of those thousands who are needlessly sacrificed every year to that disease, have been forced to live. The exact nature of the work to be done in each house is on file in the department. All that is necessary now is the decision to issue the orders, the clerical work incident to their issue and the firmness to see that the owners comply with them.

The last possible excuse for not securing these changes has now been removed and the friends of tenement-house reform expect the department to proceed at once in the matter. Nothing short of the removal of all school sinks and the abolishing of dark rooms will meet the popular demand.

It will not be enough to issue the orders; the department must see that its orders are promptly and completely fulfilled.

The Fifth New York Conference and What Comes After.
The fifth New York Conference of Charities and Correction, the proceedings of which were reported in CHARITIES of last week,

was the best thus far held in the state. It is especially fitting that the conference held under Mr. Heberd's presidency should have the distinction, since from the beginning he has taken the laboring oar in shaping the program of the conference, in managing its sessions and in realizing its possibilities in the practical improvement of the charitable and reformatory work of the state.

Perhaps the climax of this session may be said to have been reached in the discussion on Professor Fetter's report on politics in charitable and reformatory institutions, wherein Senator Armstrong of Rochester, and James T. Rogers of Binghamton, leader of the majority in the assembly, broke lances in defense of the centralization policies of the past four years.

The moral of the discussion and of such supplementary information as we have been able to gather, appears to be that Governor Higgins will not be without support in the legislature for the reforms to which he is pledged; and that no personal pride of opinion will be allowed to stand in the way of such judicious decentralization, and improvement of the state charitable and reformatory system, as shall appear upon full and fair discussion to be needed.

No philanthropic and public-spirited citizens can ask more than that members of the legislature shall, with an open and unprejudiced mind, consider their recommendations upon their merits and shall adopt them if a good case is made out. The public clamor which has so much disturbed the political leaders in the past few years arose and continued because large numbers of independent citizens felt keenly that their views did not have such consideration, and that the vital issues involved were not decided upon their merits. The motives, however, of many of those who supported the revolutionary changes opposed by such citizens were

no doubt as upright and commendable as those of their opponents. Economy and efficiency, the alleged grounds of the changes, are certainly desirable ends. It is a matter for congratulation, that not only Governor Higgins, but the members of the legislature appear to be ready to take up anew the whole question as to what system makes for genuine economy and maximum efficiency.

For the men and women who desire to have the institution at Napanoch made into a reformatory, like that at Elmira; who desire to have the accommodations at Rome, Newark and other state institutions materially increased; who desire to see the administrative powers of the Boards of Visitors of the state hospitals for the insane assimilated to those of the state charitable institutions and the capacity of the hospitals increased to provide for all who are entitled to be received in them; and who desire, finally, to see appointments made for fitness instead of for political reasons, there is much work ahead. There is encouragement, on the other hand, in the conviction that wise and vigorous efforts in all these directions will be crowned with success.

Communication to "Charities."

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

The Children's Law in New Jersey.
I have read with interest your editorial comment in CHARITIES in re "Cellmates in a Civilized Community,"

and also further the article entitled "Fellow Inmates of a New Jersey Cell." I fully agree with the sentiments expressed, and am much surprised that such action should take place in our sister state, relating to children. As you perhaps know, Chapter 219 of the Laws of the State of New Jersey, approved April 8, 1903, and entitled "An Act establishing a court for the trial of juvenile offenders and defining its duties and powers," clearly provides for just such cases and the parole of children under the age of sixteen years to await trial. There is no necessity therefore, of any probation officers to take charge of them, although such probation officers are provided for in the law passed March 23, 1900, entitled "An Act to provide for the appointment of probation

officers and to define their duties and powers." This law is also referred to in Section 8 of the law first quoted above. Perhaps some amendment might be made to the first section of this act preventing the justices or magistrates from committing any boy or girl under the age of sixteen to any jail. This would, of course, more closely follow the law now in existence in the state of New York. I remain,

Yours very truly,

E. FELLOWS JENKINS,

Secretary and Superintendent New York Society for the Protection of Children from Cruelty.

Notes of the Week.

Baltimore Milk Dispensaries.—A system of milk dispensaries has been established in Baltimore by the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium. The methods adopted, which have been in successful operation for over three months, are described in *The Charities Record* for October.

The milk is distributed only on the recommendation of a physician. Up to September 1, eighty-two physicians had co-operated and 400 babies had received milk for varying periods from the several distributing stations. During August more than one hundred mothers sent daily. The milk mixtures, adapted to the age and physical condition of the child, are distributed daily in from five to eight bottles. Unless otherwise ordered by the physician the milk is Pasteurized. A uniform charge of ten cents for a day's supply is made. It has been found that nearly all the mothers can afford this price, which does not, however, defray more than seventy per cent of the cost.

It is planned to combine four of the dispensaries throughout the year.

Tenement-roof Playground.—A visiting nurse of New York city, said at the State Association meeting in October, that those she visits live as far above ground that the fencing of yards is unimportant compared with the fencing of roofs. She thought that if the tenement-house law compelled landlords to make roofs safe playgrounds, using wire or glass, which the sun could penetrate, it would let more sun and air into the lives of those crowded into dark rooms, than could be done in any other way, would accomplish what doctors and nurses have so long tried to make possible to produce—healthy lives in the tenements.

The Portland Conference.—The date of the 1905 National Conference of Charities and Correction has been fixed for July 15-22, inclusive, at Portland, Oregon.

Michigan State Conference.—The twenty-third annual convention of the Michigan State Conference of Charities and Correc-

tions will be held at Bay City, December 7 and 8. The following topics will be among those presented: *The Care of Defectives*, W. A. Polglace, superintendent of the Michigan Home for Feeble-minded and Epileptics; discussion opened by Hal C. Hyman, M. D., of the State Board of Charities; *Woman's Clubs and Penal and Pauper Matters*, the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane, Kalamazoo; *The Citizen's Relation and Responsibility to the Prisoner and Pauper*, the Rev. John Kennedy; *Facts Concerning the Adult Blind*, J. P. Hamilton, superintendent of Michigan Employment Institution for the Blind. Theodore F. Shepard, circuit judge of Bay County circuit, will preside.

In the Wrong Direction.—It is reported that consumptives are hereafter to be barred from the positions of letter carrier and postal clerk in Denver. From the standpoint of the public, this seems unnecessary, since no fairly intelligent and reasonably conscientious consumptive is in either position, a danger to those whom he serves. From the standpoint of the consumptive it is therefore an unjustifiable interference with his opportunities for making a living, howbeit the occupation of postal clerk is one of the most undesirable he could choose. The work of a letter carrier, however, is in many respects particularly suitable for a man in the early stages of consumption, and suitable work for such cases is so scarce that the cutting out of any is a real hardship.

The Ideal of the Charity Worker.—In a lecture before the New York School of Philanthropy, Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer voiced the ideal of the charity worker as follows:

"The ideal of a community in which human waste is reduced to a minimum, and in which all social arrangements tend towards the best possible development of each individual life."

Public Bath at Orange.—The Public Bath Association of the Oranges opened a new public bath at Orange, N. J., this summer. The building cost about twelve thousand dollars and contains tub-baths, shower-baths, and a large pool. The scheme had its inception in a paper read last winter by Justice Joseph B. Gray before the charities conference of the Oranges.

Miss Eliot's Resignation.—Miss Ada Elliot has resigned as probation officer of the Court of Special Sessions because of ill health, and will be succeeded by Mrs. Sophie C. Axman. Miss Elliot was appointed after the death of Mrs. Foster, "The Tombs Angel," and has rendered exceptional service.

Israel Zangwill to Speak.—Israel Zangwill will speak at the annual meeting of the Emanuel Sisterhood of Personal Service, Sunday afternoon, November 27, at 3 p. m., at the home, 318-320 East Eighty-second street, New York.

“Holiday Faces”

Josephine C. Goldmark

National Consumers' League.

In one of his letters Stevenson says: “We fared forth with *holiday faces*,” and the phrase is a happy one. Children’s faces betray their pleasures transparently enough, but grown folk too, to a greater or less degree, keep holiday gladly, and at such seasons emerge from responsibilities with “holiday faces.”

But in the great city, with its perversion of so many normal pleasures, “holiday faces” have acquired a new and sinister meaning. If Christmas still brings its distinctive joys, it works no less bitter hardships. The “holiday faces” of numberless people at Christmas time have written upon them not enjoyment and gaiety, but overpowering fatigue and exhaustion. Numberless children, at a season sacred to childhood, shows pitiful “holiday faces,” telling of the burden of the Christmas trade, thrown upon these helpless workers by the thoughtlessness of the great purchasing public.

Anyone who goes into one of the large department stores during the last two weeks of December, will see at a glance the “holiday faces” on all sides behind the counters. The young girls and the children there have at ordinary times no enviable employment—often underpaid to a notorious degree, their hours long and tiring. But usually there are times of comparative leisure, when customers are few and free moments are possible, when there is a time to satisfy an inconsiderate purchaser or to assist in making a puzzling choice. But in the Christmas season of peace on earth all this is changed. From the moment in which the store opens until the last breathless second at night, there is an impatient crowd to be attended. There is not a moment to sit down. The volley of requests, of questions, of purchases, waiting upon one customer and answering another, breathing air vitiated by overcrowding, continues throughout all the hours of the working day and beyond. For after the tired shoppers have gone home, the still more tired shop girls must remain to restore

order, until sometimes twelve o’clock at night.

New Yorkers may feel an increased self-respect in contemplating the laws of their state for the protection of women and children who work in stores and factories, leading most of the states, as they do, in humane requirements. Only two years ago children of twelve years could and did work until midnight in the pitiless Christmas rush, and then started off for their distant homes, to report again for work at eight o’clock the next morning. Now no child under fourteen years can work in stores or factories at any season, and no child under sixteen years can work more than nine hours in one day or after ten o’clock that night.

But the best laws represent merely a minimum which can be required: the practice of an enlightened community should be far in advance of what is obligatory by law. And the practice of the enlightened women of New York as regards the Christmas cruelties is lamentable.

Far from being in advance of the law, and demanding that all girls under twenty-one years, as well as the younger children shall be freed from the strain of Christmas overwork, they create all the difficulties for the humane merchant in his efforts to obey the existing requirements. Moreover, the Christmas festival is degraded not alone by the cruel exhaustion of countless employés, but by the lack of dignity—one might almost say, of decency—in the average holiday purchasing; by the cynical contrast between the festival’s significance and the almost hand-to-hand struggle which Christmas shopping has come to necessitate.

A little further removed from public view are the “holiday faces” of the girls and children who work in factories. The burdens of the season begin for them earlier than for their sisters in the stores, often early in the fall. Settlement workers discover that classes and clubs scarcely organize in the autumn before

their meetings are interrupted by evening work preparatory to Christmas. Two young residents, new to the holiday experiences of working girls were disconcerted at finding their club members unable to attend towards the end of October. The explanation that the interruption was due to work for Christmas seemed to them inadequate. "Bring your work along," they said, having in mind the usual Christmas industries, known to family circles. But the factory girls had no such preparations to bring along. They were working until ten o'clock at night cutting out ladies' kimonos for the Christmas trade, which would then be sent away to be sewed in the tenements and returned to the factories for shipment to the retail stores and the rush of purchasers in December; they were packing up fine handkerchiefs and embroideries in small and large lots for the coming season; they were making candies of the less perishable kind; they were tucking fine blouses daintily; they were making boxes by the score in all varieties to set off the candies and blouses and kimonos and countless other offerings. They were employed on the Christmas preparations all the hours of the working day and three hours at night besides, with the poor chance of a half-holiday on the Saturday of each week, earned by their overwork and due to them by law, if the factory inspectors could enforce the law uniformly in the great number of factories throughout the city and state.

For these classes of workers, Christmas is fairly synonymous with overwork. "Almost as bad as Christmas" has come to be the pitiful comparison of many a working girl for any extraordinary hardship in her trade. The comparison might well be echoed by the messenger boys for whom also Christmas is the season of increased burdens. One lad, known to the writer, worked on the day before Christmas from six o'clock in the morning until half-past three in the morning of the following day, delivering gifts to various quarters of the city; another from eight in the morning until twelve at night. If the pleased recipients could have seen on Christmas day, instead of the dainty boxes on their tables, these exhausted boys after twelve and twenty hours of almost

continuous labor, their pleasure in receiving gifts "just in time" would doubtless have been shocked into a new realization of what Christmas means to an army of workers, men, women and children.

Such outrageous hours of work for messenger boys, have for the last year been forbidden by law in this state; but no mere enactment on paper can be of much avail to protect the messengers from employment under age and overtime, especially at the rush seasons, as long as the public is too indifferent to insist upon being supplied with older boys and too selfish to allow them sufficient time for deliveries.

The greater pity for this waste of endurance, since the remedy for the most crying evil is obvious. If, instead of concentrating into one week of frenzied shopping their efforts to provide gifts, the great body of purchasers would allow themselves a longer interval of five or six weeks instead—would fix December 15 as a final date for making a Christmas purchase, the actual holidays would come without finding the paradoxical "holiday faces" of overtaxed shop-girl and cash-girl, messenger boy and delivery clerk.

A certain number of people, doubtless, there must always be, who for various reasons are prohibited from anticipating the rush season and must perforce time their purchasing late in December. But if all those who can order their affairs otherwise—and among them probably most readers of CHARITIES should be numbered—would make a determined effort to do so, the unconscionable overcrowding of shops, with all that it brings in its train, would be a thing of the past.

To show the possibility of a change, seemingly so difficult to effect, the new practice of closing stores at night is instructive. A few years ago, when the Consumers' League first began to draw the attention of the public to the hardships thoughtlessly inflicted at Christmas time, the great majority of stores were open until late at night, lengthening the hours of the employes until the small hours of the morning before they reached their homes. Now the best retailers with few exceptions close their doors in the evening and the public manages to provide itself

with gifts during the ordinary working day.

Other communities have demonstrated that ameliorations may go further. In Illinois, the admirable new law forbids the employment of any child under sixteen after 7 P. M. So adequate was the enforcement of this law that last Christmas no child under that age was discovered at work after the required hour. Even when the stores were kept open in the evening, the children went home at seven o'clock during the holiday rush, as at any other time of the year.

Massachusetts has until this winter allowed her children and girls under eight-

een years to be overworked at Christmas time by a special exception to otherwise enlightened laws in protection of the young. This inconsistency was erased at the last session of the legislature, and henceforth in Massachusetts Christmas offers no better pretext than any other season for overtaxing young workers in retail shops.

If a limited number of hours of work is imperative in the interest of juvenile health and endurance, it is certainly no less imperative at Christmas, the peculiarly taxing period of the year. This far from recondite principle public opinion in New York has yet to discern and to put into practice.

Prisoners' Earnings

Samuel J. Barrows

Corresponding Secretary New York Prison Association

The Children's Aid and Protective Society of the Oranges, N. J., is considering the subject of applying to the state legislature at its next session for the passage of a law providing that the money value for work done in prisons by a parent committed thereto for neglect of his family shall be turned over either to the family itself or to the appropriate municipal authorities, to be applied toward the support of such family.¹

The suggestion is by no means a new one and it is only in a local sense that it can be called an experiment. The practice of giving prisoners a share of their earnings has long since been adopted in many countries, especially on the continent of Europe and has been introduced in a number of American states. It can be justified in principle on much broader grounds than those presented in the New Jersey appeal to the legislature, and it has been found in practice to succeed remarkably well when properly administered.

The economic motive is one of the strongest which can be brought to bear upon the prisoner. Even when he is allowed no share of the product of his labor, it

has been found vastly better to give him labor which is productive than that which is non-productive. The practice of compelling a prisoner to turn a crank 10,000 times in a day, which is not geared to any useful purpose, or to turning a wheel with his feet simply to put forth his energies, has been universally condemned for years by the best prison authorities. On the report of a Parliamentary Commission it has been abandoned in England. There is a moral as well as an educational value when a prisoner feels that he is not only working, but is doing work that "is good for something." It is not surprising that the disgusted tramp threw down the headless axe-handle after pounding the chopping block for an hour without result, and told his employer that he wanted something to do that "made the chips fly." It is only prisoners of the lowest grade physically and morally who do not care to see the chips fly.

When we not only give the prisoner something to do, but give him a share in the product of his labor, we are adding the stimulus of a great economic motive, whose influence is felt all through society. If it is important that this motive should be applied outside of prison to encourage people to honest labor, it is important that

¹ Readers of CHARITIES are asked to send written suggestions on this topic to the chairman of the Committee on Legislation of the Orange Society, the Rev. Walter Reid Hunt, 124 Essex Avenue, Orange, N. J.

it should be applied within the prison, that the prisoner may get the moral and industrial impulse which belongs to free labor. Why should men who have committed some offense against society be thereby reduced to an absolute condition of slavery? The best results of industry are only secured through adequate rewards. When these rewards are conditioned on the quality as well as on the quantity of the product, prisoners have some motive for working up to a standard of efficiency.

It is not only, therefore, to prisoners who are committed for non-support that the stimulus of reward from labor should be applied. All prisoners without exception should justly be awarded some share of the product of their toil.

In order that this may not be a simple gratuity, the state should first be reimbursed for the cost of the prisoner's board and maintenance. There are a number of states in which the prisoner in addition to paying his board to the state makes a substantial contribution to the state treasury. Thus, the prisoners in the Maryland Penitentiary have turned in to the state over and above the cost of their keep, some \$25,000 in a year.

The Detroit House of Correction has turned into the treasury from \$20,000 to \$25,000 and has not received an appropriation from the municipality for more than twenty years. In Alabama, prisoners are making for the state the extraordinary profit of \$25,000 a month.

We do not argue for the adoption of a system by which prisoners may be made to turn in a large surplus to the state. Such a system is liable to great abuses; but these facts, which could be largely multiplied, show that prisoners, when properly organized, and instructed, may not only pay the cost of their board, but earn a large sum from which dividends may be declared to them and their families. The wisdom of this form of profit sharing has now been recognized in the three states mentioned as well as in others and notably in the state of Ohio. The superintendent of the Detroit House of Correction recommended the adoption of this system in 1901, and in a report as to its result, says:

The system has had a brightening effect upon all and the money so earned by them has for the most part, so far as can be traced, been put to good use. The knowledge that they are earning through their own labor, a sum of money, small though it may be, has aroused in them a more general interest in their surroundings and closer application to their industrial occupations; all of which has had its effect in their general deportment.

An abundance of such testimony might be adduced from prison wardens and directors of prisons, where the system prevails. This testimony constitutes an additional indictment of the system of compulsory idleness adopted in the state of New York the legitimate result of the unfortunate amendment to the state constitution. In depriving prisoners of a market for their labor, the state has deprived them of a reward for their labor, the nominal allowance conceded to state prisoners in New York being of little practical value.

The principle of allowing prisoners to share in the products of their labor being granted, the question of how they are to dispose of such earnings is another important aspect of the case. The European method is to withhold one-half of the prisoner's earnings until the time of his release. The other half is available for his family and for such personal expenses as may be approved by the administration.

Families that suffer from non-support of the husband and father are not the only ones which suffer when the breadwinner is committed to prison. Many a man who is willing to work when at liberty, is taken from his family which is thereby reduced to poverty. It is unnecessary cruelty to the family, as well as to the prisoner, to forbid him to work for their support when he is withdrawn from society. As for the man, who does not support his family, no argument ought to be necessary to show that he ought to be compelled to be a producer and that instead of being furnished shelter and free board by the state he ought to be compelled to work, if for no higher motive than to save the state and the community from fulfilling a duty which he ought to fulfil himself.

Enlarging Work of a Pennsylvania Society

Benjamin C. Marsh

The opening of the new home of the Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty, Monday of this week, is an opportune time to make a brief statement of the present workings of the society. For some twelve years it has occupied a building within two squares of the City Hall, but being cramped for room as well as funds, the headquarters have now been moved three blocks into a remodeled dwelling house, with nearly twice as much space and costing only about half as much as the old home.

The special reason for enlarging the accommodations of the home is the policy of the society to endeavor to find free homes for its wards, if possible among relatives, instead of putting them at once into institutions. In connection with the latter effort, Dr. Edward Martin, director of the Department of Health and Charities has been co-operating in securing free homes for the society for a large number of the children. Perhaps the most noticeable feature of the work of the society is the number of volunteer workers upon its board. A committee of very busy men and women spend at least one half-day and often two half-days a week in the work of the society, passing upon the disposition of children who are committed by the courts.

The society has reduced the per cent of commitment to institutions of children put in its care, from sixty to forty per cent and plans to further reduce the list.

Its program is stated as follows in a circular just issued:

I.—PERMANENT IMPROVEMENT OF CHILD LIFE.

To better permanently the condition of children who are cruelly treated, or neglected physically, mentally or morally.

II.—INCESSANT EFFORT.

1. Parents are warned and watched on probation.
2. If this is ineffective—the children are committed by the courts to the society, and returned again as its wards to their parents, who are required to secure a suitable home, and are watched.
3. As a last resort, children are definitely removed by the courts from their parents and those having custody of them and placed

in proper homes—if possible, with relatives—while every influence is exerted to qualify the parents to receive their children again. The supervisory work of the society is the department which is being given at present special emphasis, every effort being made not simply to rescue the children, but by far-reaching methods to better permanently the condition of the family.

For the year from October 1, 1903, to October 1, 1904, 1,144 children were placed under the supervision of this society, more than double the number placed during the preceding year. Of this number 732 were taken under supervision during the months from June to September inclusive.

At the opening meeting Monday the speakers were John Weaver, mayor of Philadelphia, and Hampton L. Carson, attorney-general of Pennsylvania, and they called especial attention to the two working features of the society. Provost Harrison of the University of Pennsylvania presided. Mayor Weaver emphasized the great economy to the city in having parents reformed at their own expense instead of at the expense of the municipality at the House of Correction, and in saving the expense of caring for those children whose parents or relatives could full well make all necessary provisions for them. He emphasized the hearty co-operation between the society and the Department of Health and Charities, the police department and the courts of the city. Mr. Carson drew attention to the fact that despite every effort to keep the child in the home there are still families which are not suitable homes for children and which must be broken up. This is the other feature of the work of the society, but one by no means to be slighted; and even in such cases most strenuous efforts are made to have relatives who are fit to take care of the children, at least for a short time for which they must be separated from their families. The supervision which the society exercises is helpful to these families, he stated, even during the time of separation from their children.

CHARITIES

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*The Month
in Philanthropy.*

The striking event of the past month—and one which promises to be most far-reaching in its influence upon social work in America—was the endowment by John S. Kennedy, in the sum of \$250,000, of the School of Philanthropy conducted by the New York Charity Organization Society.

Less unexpected, but of deep-reaching concern in its effect upon living conditions, was the decision of the highest court of New York state affirming the constitutionality of the tenement-house law which, in the Moeschel case, was subjected to an attack calculated, if sustained, to vitiate that humanitarian measure. The decision gives the department unhampered opportunity to grapple with hygienic and architectural ills of old buildings which are a standing menace to the tenement population. That a housing meeting was held within the month in Boston, that the Octavia Hill Association is rounding its work of investigation in Philadelphia, and that an inspector has begun an inquiry in one of the second cities of New England, show the continuous advance in this field of philanthropy.

November is ever a month of conferences in charities and corrections and it is appropriate that following the largely attended meetings in Minnesota, Missouri, Indiana, Illinois, Massachusetts, Iowa and New York should come announcement of the national gathering at Portland, Oregon, July 15 to 23, 1905.

Developments following the jailing of a boy and a murderer in the same cell in a rural New Jersey county, the attack upon a mendicancy officer in New York by a large muscled beggar who feigned paralysis, and the exposure of a grist of "fake" epileptic homes in Chicago, are painful, if picturesque, evidences of vigorous work ahead.

*The Slav in
America the
Second of
"Charities,"
Studies of
"Strangers
Within the Gates."*

The touches of nature which make Slavs akin to the rest of the world abound in the articles which swell to generous dimensions this special number of CHARITIES. Human virtues and human faults which are familiar enough in other peoples stand forth again with their familiar faces from the strange backgrounds. Very attractive, very interesting, very much entitled to our respect and our better acquaintance are these newcomers who are now a more important element in our immigration than Irish, Germans or Scandinavians. Nicholas, Humbert, and Francis Joseph are each sending us every year a great many desperate, dissatisfied or ambitious subjects, and while there is no disposition among Theodore Roosevelt's fellow citizens to find fault with their number, there is awakening a keen desire to know something more about what manner of citizens they are likely to make. With the effective co-operation of sympathetic observers and workers of other races, and worthy representatives of their own, CHARITIES makes this week what it is believed will be welcomed as a substantial contribution to such knowledge of some of the fragments of nationalities loosely known collectively as Slavs.

Comparing this stream of immigration with the others from northern Europe which preceded it, one striking contrast appears which has not so far as we are aware received sufficient attention. The Slavs, emigrating to the United States, come into a country which in climate, topography and natural resources is not unlike their own. The fertile plains of Bohemia and of the Danube are matched by those of the Mississippi's tributaries. Wheat fields, forests, and mines furnish conspicuous occupations in both countries. Extractive and manufacturing industries

are more prominent than commerce in both, and the very clothing and diet which are suitable to central Europe will answer very well to the needs of American laborers. In other words, although these strange peoples come a long journey, they pass through on their way a succession of regions in which they would be far less at home. It is not, therefore, extraordinary but inevitable that assimilation should proceed with even greater rapidity than among many earlier immigrants who were more nearly related to the first colonists. In the first and second generations, therefore, it is found as might have been expected, that many Slavs own their own homes and farms, and develop a quiet enthusiasm for the land of their adoption.

Overcrowding, squalor, lawlessness, illiteracy—these are undoubtedly found among them. These evils, it is a civic duty to understand and to overcome. Appreciating their magnitude, we could wish for such further selection among those admitted, as would greatly lessen the evils. We do not share the preference expressed by one of our esteemed contributors for the unskilled and illiterate. We do not expect the admission of any who are now allowed to come to exceed our ultimate assimilating capacity; but we do expect assimilation to be delayed and rendered much more difficult by the absence of selection. As we have pointed out before, such discrimination should be exercised if possible in Europe rather than at Ellis Island, and it should be encouraged by Austro-Hungarian patriots whether here or in the fatherland, as the Italian Emigration Department, according to Signor Rossi's account, encourages such efforts as are now made in the same direction in Italy.

However, this is not the place even for a good-natured discussion of immigration restriction, a topic on which disputants so readily, with the best of intentions, becomes acrimonious. Within the limits of space at our disposal, we have sought to make a thorough, dispassionate, and entirely sympathetic study of the special problems presented by the welcome presence in our midst of those whose ancestors, from the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War in Bohemia to the exile of Kossuth

from Hungary, have handed down to us one of the most thrilling and kaleidoscopic histories in the annals of the continent.

A Complex Immigration.

According to the ethnologists, wave after wave of peoples have swept over western Europe from the region of the Danube, but the emigration which is now setting toward this country from that center differs in the fact that it is complex. The golden bowls of race and nationality and economic life have been shattered, the silver cords of language and loyalties and religion loosened and knotted in tangles. So that the treatment in such a number as this must be fragmentary and suggestive only, and as there is but little published material to have reference to, it must be tentative. As a field of investigation the new immigration has until recently been unclaimed territory.

This will explain gaps which will be apparent to the closer student. As immigrants, the Poles have been one of the largest and oldest elements in this congeries of races, and while various contributors discuss them in connection with different localities and industries, notably the mines of Pennsylvania, Illinois, and the upper peninsula of Michigan, it may be well to preface a word as to their general distribution. Their strength is indicated by the Polish National Alliance with its 50,000 members, and by a roster of fifty newspapers published in that tongue, four of them dailies, which are printed in Chicago, Buffalo, and Milwaukee, the largest centers.

In the cities and farming country of the Middle West, there is a second generation in 'America and they have their own teachers and doctors, need of which is keenly felt in New England where they have recently spread in large numbers—first in the factory towns of Massachusetts (Chicopee has 6,000 Poles), then in the tobacco growing belt of the Connecticut river valley, where a majority of farm hands are Poles. Hartford ten years ago had not more than three or four Polish families; to-day a parish of a thousand people has built a church and contributed \$20,000 toward a school.

*Croatians
and
Dalmatians.*

Other increasing elements in the immigration, deserving of special mention, are 'certain of the South Slavs.

Dalmatia is the sea-coast province of Austria, Croatia a kingdom of the empire, but the people are near of kin and the causes which have brought several hundred thousand immigrants to America are similar.

By a clause in a treaty between the Austrian and Italian governments, free entry of Italian wines was provided for and is credited with ruining that industry of the Austrian province. For the past ten years, although Croatia has nominally home rule, conditions are said to have pressed hard under a *ban* (governor) under Hungarian influence and famine has followed. "Starvation and mismanagement," was the terse prognosis of Frank Zotti, banker and publisher of Greenwich street, New York, who is chairman of the executive committee of the National Croatian Society.

Dalmatian sailors are to be found in every nook and corner of the world. For twenty years Dalmatians have been oyster fishermen at New Orleans and along the gulf. They make staves in Mississippi, they are wine dealers in San Francisco, miners in Amador county, and vine growers in many other parts of California.

The Croatians are mostly in western Pennsylvania and West Virginia, in the steel works, the coal mines and the coke furnaces. In New York they are long-shoremen and mechanics, perhaps 15,000 in number living on the West Side between Twenty-ninth and Sixty-sixth streets, Eighth avenue and the river. In Montana they are in the silver and copper mines, and some of them go into the western agricultural districts, for at home the Croatians are farmers with exception of the "Primorci," or Croatians of the sea.

In Mr. Zotti's opinion fifty per cent of these immigrants return, but of these fully half come back to the United States with wives and families. Personally, he estimates that \$25,000,000 a year is sent back by those in this country. In some instances, men cannot get their families unless their debts are paid at home. An idea of the permanence of their stay in

this country is shown by the organization of the National Croatian Society with headquarters in Allegheny, with its 17,000 members and mutual benefit features, through which last year \$311,170 was paid. Four newspapers are published, the *Narodni List* of New York being a daily. Perhaps the most striking feature of the conditions of the Croatians in this country at this time is the fight being waged by certain of their leaders against the saloon. Croatian saloon-keepers, of the mining towns especially, stand as go-betweens, it is claimed, between certain unscrupulous employers and their workmen, prevent thrift and more than all else tend to keep down the standards of morals and living among the people.

*Montenegrins,
Bulgarians,
Servians.*

The unusually active competition of the trans-Atlantic steamship lines for some months past, which led to very marked cuts in rates and in the opening of Trieste and Fiume as ports of departure, has stimulated emigration from Montenegro. Hitherto so few Montenegrins have taken the trip to this country, involving as it did a long overland journey to a seaport, that they have not been given a column to themselves in the statistical tables compiled by the commissioner of immigration, but have been classed with their Bulgarian and Servian cousins. Of the three nationalities 6,479 persons came to the United States in 1903.

But for the past three months, about three hundred Montenegrins have arrived at Ellis Island every month. They are practically all peasants from the smaller villages.

It has been more than suspected that this immigration has been stimulated by interested parties. It was, of course, known that the beginning of the stream of Montenegrins had its source in the reduced rates and the new ports of departure which were events in the "rate war" of the steamship lines. A further circumstance came quickly to light. It was found that a considerable number of the men had the name and address of a New York lodging-house keeper, whom each immigrant declared to be some near relative. To one he was a cousin, to another a brother, and so on. It is not

known that an official investigation has been undertaken or that any illegal activity is indicated by this fact, but it has been semi-officially stated at Ellis Island that the increase in the number of Montenegrins may be expected to fall off soon as a result of a considerable number of deportations on the ground of liability to become public charges. About a year ago a sudden increase in the number of Bulgarian immigrants was suddenly checked when it was found in the villages of Bulgaria that a good many of the travelers accepted by the steamboat lines could not pass through Ellis Island.

Contributors to the Slav Number.

Such a number as this is a co-operative undertaking and CHARITIES has many to thank for voluntary contributions and editorial work. The personality of the contributors is of no little interest:

IVAN ARDAN was born in Galicia and came to America in 1895. He has been officially connected with the Ruthenian fraternal organization "Soyuz" and has organized schools, societies and libraries among the Ruthenians. For four years Mr. Ardan has been the editor of the Ruthenian weekly *Svoboda*, and an associate editor of the monthly journal *Slovo*.

EMILY GREENE BALCH (B. A., Bryn Mawr), associate professor of economics and sociology at Wellesley College, is devoting a two years' leave of absence to a study of the Slavs who come to America. Part of this time will be spent in the European homes of the immigrants, the rest of it in the principal colonies in this country. Miss Balch has studied under Levasseur in Paris and in the seminars of Schmoller and Wagner in Berlin, and has taken an active part in various forms of social work in Boston.

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN (Ph. D., Yale), at present acting registrar of the Tenement-house Department of New York city, is probably best known by her sympathetic studies of the social problems arising from immigration into the United States. Miss Claghorn made special researches into this subject for the Industrial Commission in 1900 and 1901, and did editorial work for the United States Census Bureau in 1902.

JOHN R. COMMONS, professor of political economy in the University of Wisconsin, had charge of the special investigation of immigration carried on by the United States Industrial Commission of 1900. Professor

COMMONS has been closely identified with the National Civic Federation, and is now associated with Professor Ely in the preparation of a history of industry in the United States. He is author of a series of articles, "Race Composition of the American People," *Chautauquan*, September, 1903 to May, 1904.

JOSEPH ELKINTON, author of the entertaining book on the Doukhobors, is a minister of the Society of Friends, in Philadelphia, and has inherited from his father a sympathetic interest in all oppressed peoples. Mr. Elkinton is identified with movements for the diffusion of education, and for the promotion of international arbitration, and was a delegate to the Boston Peace Congress.

LAURA B. GARRETT, is a district agent of the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore whose work has familiarized her with the life and industry of the Polish quarter of that city.

FATHER A. KAUPAS came to America from Lithuania in 1892, in consequence of having lost favor with the government. He studied theology in Detroit and has been a priest in the Scranton diocese since 1896. Father Kaupas, as priest and writer, is a leader among the Lithuanians and is especially identified with the Lithuanian Catholic Educational Society "Motinėle," which has as its object the training of young American Lithuanians.

OWEN R. LOVEJOY, assistant secretary of the National Child-labor Committee, made a special study of conditions in the district affected by the anthracite coal strike two years ago, and has just completed a preliminary investigation there from the child-labor point of view. Mr. Lovejoy has been, until recently, pastor of the First Congregational Church in Mt. Vernon, and is general secretary of the New York State Conference of Religion.

ALICE G. MASARYK (Ph. D., University of Prague), is the daughter of Professor Masaryk of the University of Prague, the leader of the Realistic party in Bohemia, who lectured recently at the University of Chicago. Her mother is an American. She has studied also in Berlin and Leipzig and is now making a special study of the conditions of Bohemians in America, among whom she is working as a resident of the Chicago University Settlement.

MARY E. MCDOWELL has been for ten years head-resident of the University of Chicago Settlement in the stockyards district. Miss McDowell is a member of the faculty of the department of sociology of Chicago University, and is a leader in the Woman's Trade Union League movement. She organized the first women's labor union of the packing trades, and was a recognized influ-

ence for peace and order in the strike in Packerstown last summer.

LOUIS A. PINK (St. Lawrence University), made a special study of the Magyars in New York in connection with his work in the Summer School in Philanthropic Work, in 1904.

DR. JANE E. ROBBINS has had fifteen years of experience in settlement work and as a practising physician on the East Side in New York. For three years and a half, while head-worker at the Normal College Alumnae House, Dr. Robbins lived in the heart of the Bohemian colony and had unusual opportunities for studying conditions in the cigar factories.

THE REV. PETER ROBERTS (Ph. D., Yale), is Welsh by birth and early education. His books show an intimate knowledge both of conditions and of people in the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania, where the Slavs are a large part of the labor force, and he was one of the most important witnesses in behalf of the miners before the Strike Commission of 1902. Mr. Roberts is a graduate of Yale Theological Seminary, is in charge of a Congressional church in the heart of the Pennsylvania coal country, and is a member of the Industrial Committee of the National Council of Congregational Churches.

P. V. ROVNIANEK is editor of the *Slovensky Dennik*, Pittsburg. During his sixteen years in this country Mr. Rovnianek has been an important influence in educating his countrymen in American citizenship and in impressing on them the value of organization, and to him is due the organization of the National Slavonic Society.

MARY BELL SAYLES, at present inspector in the Tenement-house Department of New York city, made a study in 1901-2 of the housing problem in several neighborhoods of Jersey City, while holding a fellowship for the College Settlement Association.

FRANK JULIAN WARNE (Ph. D., Pennsylvania), was stationed in the anthracite coal fields, during the great strike, as staff correspondent of the *Philadelphia Public Ledger*. He is the author of *The Slav Invasion and the Mine Workers*, and of many pamphlets and articles on economic and social subjects. At present Dr. Warne is editor of *The Railway World*, and research fellow in economics in the University of Pennsylvania.

WALTER E. WEYL (Ph. D., Pennsylvania), has done graduate work in economics in Halle, Berlin, and Paris. He has conducted investigations in Europe and in Mexico for the United States Department of Labor, the results of which are embodied in department bulletins. During the coal strike he acted as John Mitchell's economic advisor. Mr. Weyl is now a resident at the University Settlement, New York city.

A Shepherd of Immigrants.

EMILY G. BALCH.

"My people do not live in America. They live *underneath* America. America goes on over their heads."

These are the picturesque and profoundly suggestive words of a Ruthenian Greek-Catholic priest, Father Paul Tymkevich of Yonkers.

"America does not begin till a man is a workingman; a laborer cannot afford to be an American. He must earn two dollars a day for that." Men earning a dollar and a quarter or a dollar and a half a day are necessarily "underneath America."

"My people do not love America."—Why should they from what they see of it? The more educated they hardly come in contact with, the "aristocracy of labor" is apt to be intolerant and contemptuous of foreigners—or of other foreigners. On the other hand, newcomers do come into contact with everyone who hopes to exploit them.

Economically, thinks the priest, they gain by coming here, "physically and morally, no." "In the city, they need more morality." Then again, with deep wisdom "*They have no habits*. The first step in civilization is to acquire habits, and where can they acquire them?—on the streets? in the saloon?"

Education, the school, alone can help them, in his opinion. But here success can be neither quick nor easy. They distrust these schools, teaching their children in a language they cannot understand themselves. Their whole history prepares them to suspect ulterior purposes. "Perhaps, too, some have seen political influence at work in public schools." They have most confidence in parochial schools, but as supplementary to the public schools not a substitute. Here, after school hours, the children are taught religion and, incidentally, their own language.

But the schools, he holds, do not Americanize the second generation. The parents too often care nothing for the child's education and home influences make strongly against it. Drinking, swearing and ignorance abound, and after a few years the child is out of school and at work. The third generation is not yet upon the scene.

"What my people need most is leaders—leaders to form themselves upon, to give them a standard of ambition." Other people have leaders of their own; the German, the Bohemian, the Hebrew and, in a less degree, the Italian bodies of immigrants have strong and influential men among themselves. The workingmen have their leaders in the trade unions, but in this unorganized mass, who is to be looked to for guidance?

Other groups of newcomers find Americans ready to take an interest in them. The educated, at least, have a feeling for Italians based on art, travel and history. They have some regard for the countrymen of Huss and Kossuth. But these Slavs, "*they are orphans in this country.*"

Perhaps the strongest impression received in talking with Father Tymkevich was the sense of the loneliness, the isolation, of this intelligent sensitive man, separated from his own people as a scholar among peasants, from Americans as an alien in a community unused to look for friends and associates among "foreigners."

In spite of this sense of confronting, almost single-handed, an overwhelming situation, he is no passive spectator of the degradation of his simple mountaineer countrymen under the industrial system of this day and land. And his methods of attack are essentially modern.

Appealing to the thrift and Slavonic gift for organization of his people, he formed a co-operative association which with twenty-five-dollar shares accumulated a capital of \$19,400, with which it erected a model tenement-house. It also owns and administers a second tenement-house and a butcher store. Dividends are limited to five per cent and this has so far been earned.

The tenement-house put up by the association is markedly superior to those in the neighborhood and to those which its tenants would otherwise probably occupy; the rents seem reasonable judged by the local standards, ranging from seven dollars to eleven dollars. In all there are thirty-nine tenant families. To American eyes the drawback to the model house is a saloon on the ground floor, but this is, of course, in no way repugnant to the ideas of a Slavic community and it may

even be that this inevitable resort of the people is under more control here than elsewhere.

Perhaps even more interesting is a second undertaking. Boys from Ruthenian and Slovak families in different parts of the country are gathered together under Father Tymkevich's roof to enjoy the superior public schools of Yonkers, refined and orderly ways of living and the constant personal influence of a high-minded man. Many a father, in mining settlements and elsewhere, earning well above the requirements of the family standard of living, is eager to educate a promising son, but finds no good school within reach and is incapable of doing anything for the boy himself. "He teaches him his prayers and beats him. He does not know how to do anything more for him."

In such cases, boys may be sent here at an expense of \$120 a year. Part is usually paid by the father, and part from contributions by Ruthenians. There has been no help from American sources.

There are at present eight of these boys, all in the grammar grades. They are sturdy, fresh-faced, bright-eyed lads with a manly and friendly bearing and, like all bright boys, intensely interested in all sorts of things. They may be ready to do some leading later, for they are getting an American education and American standards and at the same time learning to respect and care for their own language and people.

The Bohemian Women in New York.

JANE E. ROBBINS.

I.

Their Work as Cigarmakers. The factories in the regions of Seventieth street, New

York, are filled with Bohemian women and girls employed in the making of cigars. When the Bohemians first came to this country they made the cigars in their own homes, and cigarmaking was classed with tailoring as one of the tenement-house industries. The introduction of the suction-table and the bunchmaking machine changed cigarmaking into factory work, though a few men are making the finest grades of cigars by hand.

The Bohemian girls dread going into the cigar factories. The hygiene is bad, the moral influences are often not of the best, and the work is exhausting. An occasional factory inspector, a little protection from the law, and even from the labor union is what the workers have to depend upon to help them gain the chance to earn their livelihood by healthy toil. The strippers and bookmakers who get the tobacco ready for the cigarmakers, work together—sometimes as many as a hundred and fifty of them—at the end of a room laden with tobacco dust and heavy with the odor of damp tobacco leaves. The windows are generally kept closed because the tobacco must not be allowed to become dry.

The strippers, who know little English and are therefore called "greeners," are paid by the day, and seldom earn more than five or six dollars a week. They are down at the bottom of the economic scale and are not admitted to the cigarmakers' union.

The fact that the strippers and bookmakers are pale and appear to be in poor physical condition, does not signify where "the making of dividends is the supreme end of man." Many of the factories are large and contain a thousand "hands"; the "greeners" are lost in the shuffle, even the officers of the law do not seem to notice that "the two hundred and fifty cubic feet of air-space to be allowed for each worker," is at the other end of the room, and is occupied by ill-smelling tobacco.

Many of the cigar-making girls brought up in this country learn their trade from regular teachers. They pay for their tuition, and are several weeks in learning to become bunchmakers or cigarmakers. The bunchmakers get the tobacco into the shape of a cigar, and the cigarmakers spread the leaves out on the suction-table and put the final coverings on. They are both paid by the thousand cigars, and their wages vary greatly. Some earn only four or five dollars a week, while others earn twelve dollars, and sometimes even higher wages. They are allowed a good deal of latitude as to hours, and often work through the greater part of their lunchtime and stop work at five o'clock. They work under a considerable nervous

strain, as speed is a first consideration, if they are to make fair wages. In their hurry many of them bite off the small ends of the cigars (a pleasant thought for the smoker) and they sit all day holding bits of tobacco in their mouths.

The light must be good for their work and the heat of the nearby gas jet adds greatly to the discomfort from the bad air. The floor and walls of the factory are often dirty and the dressing rooms where clothing is hung, are simply large closets partly partitioned off from the main rooms.

The men and women employed in the higher grades of work, the men employed as packers and a small percentage of the women and girls who work at suction-tables belong to the different branches of the cigarmakers' union. This union, besides giving insurance against sickness and death, does much to protect its own members, and also in time of special struggle it offers some defense to even the most helpless of the cigarmakers.

An aroused public conscience could do much in the way of getting more protective legislation and improved factory inspection, and could perhaps reach those manufacturers, whose minds are overmastered by the financial interests, even to the point of neglecting the human welfare, on which their prosperity in the last analysis must depend.

II.

Home Life Among Them.

Home life among the Bohemians exists under peculiar difficulties. The mothers work in cigar factories, and besides the factory work they have the bearing and rearing of children, and sewing, cooking, washing and cleaning to do in their homes.

The first result noticed is that everyone keeps early hours. At nine o'clock on a winter evening, a block occupied by Bohemian families, is wrapped in slumber, the windows of the houses are dark, and there is almost no one on the street. The working day begins at half-past five and the tired mothers must have their children at home and in bed at an early hour.

The most noticeable effect of having the mothers go to factory is that the or-

dinary masculine aversion to doing woman's work, is greatly moderated. The boys run home from their play after school hours to start the kitchen fire, so that the water may be boiling when their mothers come home. They make beds and sweep and clean house. I have known a boy of eleven to acquire sufficient knowledge of housework so that, at his mother's death, he was able to do all the work for a family of four. Several times I have come into a home and found the strong young husband washing, and not at all embarrassed to be caught at the wash-tub.

The older children, both boys and girls, take care of the younger ones. They are trained to responsibility from their earliest youth, and make great gains in both strength and charm of character. A girl of thirteen often has the care of several younger children, besides doing much of the housework for the family. A grandfather or a grandmother, even if very feeble, is a great addition to the family life in furnishing the adult point of view in the absence of both parents. A neighbor, too, in case of sudden emergency, often acts in *loco parentis*, and a very motherly person will sometimes mother a whole neighborhood.

One woman that I knew had ten fine, healthy children—she had never lost a child—and she had been in factory the greater part of the time through the twenty-five years of her married life. The oldest girl was married and was also at work in a cigar factory, but whenever she had a few minutes to spare she came to her mother's home to help with the sewing for those younger brothers and sisters she had brought up.

The clothes of the children are suitable and are often made with particularly good taste. The Bohemians are perhaps the cleanest of the poor people in the city and they struggle manfully against the bad conditions of the New York tenement houses. They are fortunate in being intensely musical, and they find great joy in the occasional dance or picnic.

They are a hard-working people, and both the women and children are often overworked. The girls marry with the expectation of continuing their hard life in the factory.

The poverty of the home is often increased by the intemperance of the father. "It is better to go to a picnic with a woman, a woman does not get drunk," said a wise little maiden six years of age.

To those theorists who look for great progress when women shall obtain a position of economic independence, the Bohemian women cigarmakers ought to be an interesting study. The wife with her quicker fingers often makes better wages than her husband. I asked a thoughtful Bohemian of the educated class why the women did not demand more power, since they contribute so largely to the family finances, and he answered, "Because they would not consider such a demand fitting." Husband and wife seem to go on much as they have always done since "male and female created he them."

The Bohemians are cut off from the life of the city partly by their inability to speak English, and partly by their being so overworked that they have no time even to see what other people are doing.

They are almost always able to read their own tongue—they have several newspapers—and they care a great deal for the education of the children. The children speak Bohemian more than any other New York children speak the tongue of their fathers and the ancestral tongue seems to have a tendency to bind the family together and to preserve its traditions in this new land.

The Struggle in the Family Life.

MARY E. McDOWELL.

It is said that the criminals of the cities come from the ranks of the children of the immigrants, not from the immigrants themselves. Those who live near these transplanted people tell us of the struggle in the family life between the standards of the old country father and mother and those of the children who have learned the language and caught the spirit of the new country, and have become the important factor in the family life.

The child stands between the new life and its strange customs; he is the interpreter; he often is the first breadwinner; he becomes the authority in the family.

The parents are displaced because they

are helpless, and must trust the children. This superficial, though very practical superiority forces the children and parents into a false position with relation to each other and towards the outside world. The parents have religious and social ideals, and an impassioned faith that in America is to be found liberty and independence. The children's ideals are formed by the teachers, the politicians and often the saloonkeepers. The parents' ideals are discredited; they are old fashioned; in some way the children enter into their parents' vague desire for freedom, but it becomes to them such freedom as is hurriedly realized in a do-as-you-please philosophy. They have lost the restraints of an old community feeling that surrounded the parents in their old home and have not yet become rooted in the new restraints by the public opinion of a neighborhood they do not know. The parents' values are belittled and their loyalties scorned. "Shut up talking about Bohemia," said a boy to his mother who was shedding homesick tears as she spoke of the beauties of her old home. "We are going to live in America, not in Bohemia." She had the vision of beauty, while she was living in the sordid ugliness of the stockyard district of Chicago, and her boy could never have her vision.

The children are determined to drop the mother tongue, and they very soon learn English, while the parents are past the age when it is easy to acquire a new language. One often hears of children refusing to answer in the language of the family. Everything seems to be done to develop and educate the children, forgetting that this cannot be done for the child independently of the family or the community. The school, the church, the social settlement all emphasize the child's importance. The parents are ignored, left behind and the breach between the new and the old in the family is not spanned as yet by any of the agencies in the community.

The American citizen in the making is left to become a rather pert, important self-deceived young person because he has been isolated in his education. How shall this breach be bridged? What is done will be experimental, but something must be done for the situation is serious

and often tragic. The public school lectures given in the foreign tongues to adults are suggestive, and lead one to ask why not enlarge the usefulness of the schoolhouse to meet the need of foreign families.

To begin the bridge from the child's side: cannot the parents, their home country, its beauties, its heroes, legends, stories, history, songs, be made of interest to the children? Will it not place the parents in an atmosphere of poetry of idealization and make them an important factor to the children? Admiration is a strong element in education. Win back the parental authority by admiring all that is admirable in their past. Create a historic perspective that will give self-respect to the new citizenship and will lead to respect for authority in the home and the state.

Start the bridge from the side of the parent by giving to them in their native tongue, American history, constitutional history, old country songs, old country scenes, art, etc., with that of the new country.

Let the parents and children *together* have a special life in the schoolhouse, bring them together in social relation with English-speaking teachers and friends, let them sing together the national songs of America and of the old lands.

Patriotic Americans may think this dangerous and say the English language is the only one that must be used in the schools, forgetting that this closes all avenues of culture to the adult foreigners. It is more dangerous not to supply this great need of the hungry hearts of the homesick old country parents who are losing their grip on their children. The too early developed young Americans must gain reverence for their parents, and for authority in the home or we shall have an increase of lawlessness. Open the schools for the foreign parents who, with their children, may learn what true freedom is and what American hospitality is. What the new patriotic societies are doing for Americans, we can do for the foreigners; recall the best of their past, recognize their heroes and start an impulse of admiration for all that is noble in the old and the new.



A GROUP OF SLOVAK PEASANT WOMEN IN THE HOME COUNTRY.

Slavs, Magyars and Some Others in the New Immigration

Kate Holladay Claghorn

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It is a commonplace of discussion that the character of immigration has changed strikingly within recent years. The main feature of the change is that the geographical center of emigration from Europe has shifted, rather suddenly, from the northern and western countries to the southern and eastern countries.

Taking 1882 and 1903 as the high-water mark years of immigration for the older and newer immigration respectively, the following table shows, in detail, just what this change has amounted to:

IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES.		
	1882.	1903.
German Empire	250,630	40,086
United Kingdom (including Ireland),	179,419	68,947
Norway, Sweden and Denmark	105,826	77,647
France and Switzerland	16,847	9,561
Holland and Belgium	10,948	7,448
Total, North'n and West'n Europe.	563,170	208,689
Italy	32,160	250,622
Austria-Hungary	20,150	206,011
Russia	21,590	186,083
Spain and Portugal	420	11,307
Greece		14,090
Roumania		9,310
Servia, Bulgaria and Montenegro		1,761
Turkey		1,529
Total, South'n and East'n Europe.	83,320	610,813
Europe, not specified	274	5
Total, Europe	646,764	814,507

It will be seen that of the three countries contributing most largely to the new immigration, Italy and Austria-Hungary each sent us in 1903 a body of people larger than the entire immigration from the north and west for the same year, and Russia, nearly twice as many as the largest single group from the north-west, the Scandinavians.

Of these new elements the Italians are the most important in point of numbers, and the most homogeneous, notwithstanding the varieties of dialect and diversities of local feeling among them.

Immigration from almost any country, however, would seem homogeneous when compared with that from Austria-Hungary and Russia. The following tables, classifying by languages spoken

*Old Elements
in the New
Immigration.*

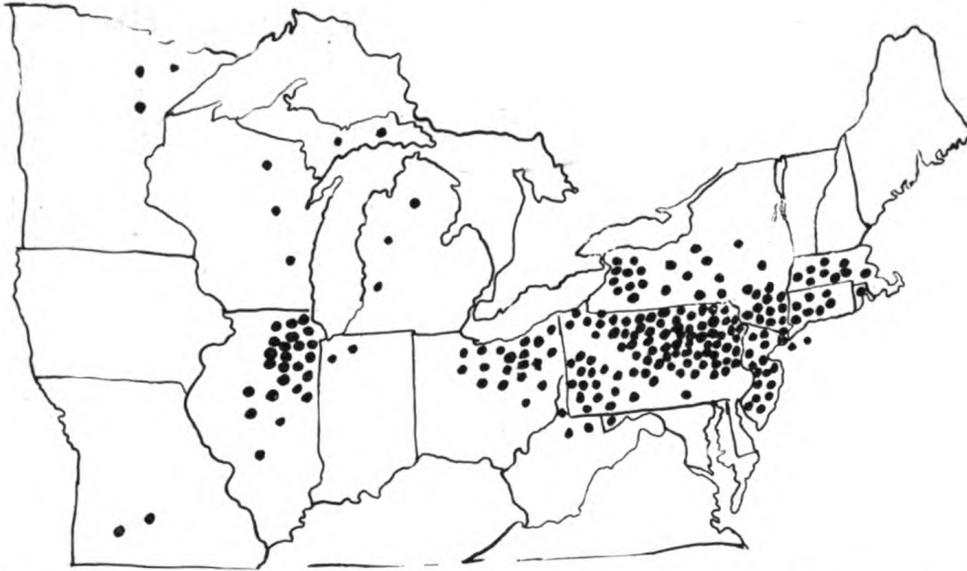
the immigrants from each country, indicate something of the diversity, and also give the relative numerical importance of the elements represented:

IMMIGRANTS FOR 1903.	
<i>From Russia.</i>	
Russians	8,565
Poles	29,548
Lithuanians	14,490
Hebrews	47,699
Finns	18,776
Germans	10,485
Scandinavians	1,571
All others	59
Total	136,098

<i>From Austria-Hungary.</i>	
Bohemian and Moravian	9,577
Bulgarian, Servian and Montenegrin	4,227
Croatian and Slovenian	32,892
Dalmatian, Bosnian and Herzegovinian	1,723
German	23,597
Hebrew	18,759
Italian	2,170
Magyar	27,113
Polish	37,499
Roumanian	4,173
Ruthenian	9,819
Slovak	34,412
All others	50
Total	206,011

The first thing to notice in this analysis of the "new" immigration is that some of it is not so very "new" after all. Among the Russians, the 1,500 Scandinavians and the 18,000 Finns are part of that Scandinavian element already so familiar and so acceptable to us. Among both Russians and Austro-Hungarians are over thirty-three thousand German-speaking people who are mainly Germans by race and habits of life and thought.¹ To be considered with the Italians, furthermore, not with the Austrian group, are the two thousand Italians coming from Austrian provinces, the "Italia irredenta" of Italian political agitation. For the present, too, the Hebrews from both Russia and Austria-Hungary may be left out of account, since they, as a "peculiar people," are more or less aside and apart from the races they live among, and are more or less closely allied to their own race among other nationalities.

¹ It is noteworthy that these Germans from Austria-Hungary and Russia amount to within one thousand of the number from the German Empire itself.



Distribution of Slav, Magyar and Lithuanian immigration from Austria-Hungary and Russia in the United States, as shown by the destinations given in the report of the Commissioner of Immigration. One dot represents 1,000 immigrants for the year ending June 30, 1903.

The New Elements. There is left, then, a residuum of almost sixty thousand immigrants from Russia, and over one hundred and sixty thousand from Austria-Hungary, who may fairly be described as "new" to us, and characteristic of the countries from which they come.

The greater number of these "new" immigrants, both from Austria-Hungary and Russia, may be grouped together under the general name of Slavs. That is, all the people thus grouped together speak languages of the general type known as Slavonic. This grouping also indicates roughly race affinities as well, and, in view of the importance nowadays attributed to "race" as a factor in social development, it may be well to get some idea of the race relations partly expressed and partly concealed by relations of language.

While attempting to do this, however, we are brought face to face with a serious difficulty. What, in any scientific sense, is "race," and what are the distinct races of mankind? The anthropologists have given such conflicting answers to these questions that the layman fears to make use of race distinctions at all, and doubts, in fact, whether there really are any, except in the broadly popular sense.

The Problem of Race Types. There seems to be, however, a fairly general agreement among a considerable number of anthropologists that the so-called "races" of Europe to-day are derived from three early European types, with such modifications by intermixture with Asiatic and African types as migration and other human movements have occasioned. One of these types is characterised by a long, narrow head, fair hair and blue eyes, and tall stature, and is found more frequently in the northern and western parts of Europe. This is the type regarded by many as the dominant, conquering and superior race, and presented to us as the typical German, Scandinavian and Anglo-Saxon, although as a matter of fact the Germans and so-called Anglo-Saxons are not even predominantly of this type. They may be called here the Teutonic type.

The second type is found largely in central Europe, is round-headed, with broad face, darker complexion than the Teutonic, gray or hazel eyes, and is stocky in build and of medium stature. This is known as the Alpine type. To this belong many of the South Germans, the North Italians, and certain of the French. They are found largely in localities identified with Celtic culture and language, but must not be called "Celts," as that name

cannot properly be applied to-day as a race distinction.

The third is the so-called Mediterranean type—long-headed like the Teutons, but dark of complexion and short of stature. Of this type are the South Italians, Sicilians, Spaniards, and many of the Southern French.

Coming back to our Slavs, it has been conjectured that over an original population of long-headed, light-haired people nearly allied to the Scandinavian Finns, poured in a flood of Alpine peoples from the south, submerging the Teutonic element more or less completely according to local and geographical circumstances. Of interest, as bearing on the theory, is the fact that in the north, nearer to the present-day Finnish population (that is, the long-headed, light-haired element in that population which is quite distinct from the Asiatic types of Finland who speak the Finnish language) the Slavs are more definitely of this type, showing broader heads and darker complexions as we pass to the south, near to the present-day Alpine peoples.

Over this race-product, again, slowly formed by gradual growth and intermixture of two European types, was suddenly poured a third element, an Asiatic type, the Tartars. But these, as the latest comers, and relatively few in numbers, and also by reason of their habits of life, were not thoroughly amalgamated with the Slavic people. Their influence on the physical type shows very unevenly throughout the countries inhabited by the Slavs, and, in short, we have to reverse the old proverb which indicates that the real and basic "Russian" is a Tartar, and conclude that the true Slav is a European with more or less superficial Asiatic additions.

If race ancestry is to count, then, the Slav is of highly respectable lineage, pointing directly back to the conquering Teuton, on the one hand, who enjoys the height of popular approval to-day, and the sturdy Alpine on the other, to whom is attributed the best in the civilization of France and Italy.

*The Integers
of the
Slav Group.*

The peoples in our table to be counted as Slavs by language and in the main by race, may be divided into the North

Slavs, including the so-called "Russians," Poles, Bohemians, Moravians, Slovaks, and Ruthenians; and the South Slavs, including the Bulgarians, Servians, Montenegrins, Croatians, Slovenians, Dalmatians, Bosnians, and Herzegovinians. Of these groups the North Slavs, as has been indicated, are nearer the Teutonic type, the South Slavs, the Alpine type, though certain peculiarities among some of these South Slavs have led one or two anthropologists to think they have found in them an entirely different race type.

Outside the group of Slavonic speaking emigrants from Austria-Hungary are the Roumanians. This people speak a language of the Romance type, nearly allied to the Latin. What they are by race is difficult to determine. They appear to be, however, closely allied racially to the Bulgarians, and thus to be part of the great family of Slavs, affording one of the frequent instances of a people belonging to one group by race and quite another by language.

Another instance is afforded by the Magyars of the table—the true Hungarians. This people speaks a language of Asiatic type, simpler in structure than the Indo-European or inflectual; but by race they appear to be distinctly European, not far remote indeed from the Slavic type, with prevailing Alpine characteristics.

The only remaining group to be accounted for is the Lithuanian, a people often confounded with the Slavs, but holding themselves, and really being, quite distinct. The Lithuanian language forms a class by itself, as one of the original branches of the Indo-European speech, and is said to be perhaps the most ancient and primitive form now existing. By race the Lithuanians belong distinctly to the long-headed, light-haired type, which we have here called "Teutonic."

*Geographical
Distribution
in Europe.*

The accompanying map shows the sources of supply and relative numerical importance of the emigration of all these different peoples.

The Slavs of Russia are estimated at about one-half of the population of the country, and are about seventy millions in number. Of these perhaps forty millions are found in Great Russia, the vast cen-



Sources of Slav, Magyar and Lithuanian emigration from Austria-Hungary and Russia. One dot represents 1,000 emigrants to the United States for the year ending June 30, 1903.

tral part of the country. These are the typical Russians or true Muscovites. As seen by the map, as well as the table, almost none of these emigrate.¹ The bulk of Slavonic emigration from Russia is Polish. In short, of the seventy million Slavs in Russia, only about forty-three thousand came to this country in 1903, and of these nearly forty thousand were Poles. The map shows the source of these Poles, to the north of the Austrian frontier, and east of Germany—the old provinces of Poland. The line of dots all by themselves, to the north, stretching along the Baltic, are the Lithuanians. The fact that no greater part of the map of Russia than the extreme western portion

¹The few "Russians" shown in the table are not even certainly known to be of this element, but probably are a group of various, undetermined affinities.

was needed shows vividly how inconsiderable is the Slavonic emigration from that country.

The conditions are different in Austria-Hungary. The Slavs in the population of these two countries are also about one-half their total population, though only about twenty millions in number. But from that twenty millions about one hundred and thirty thousand emigrated to the United States in 1903. A like proportion from Russia would have brought here 450,000 immigrants. The largest single elements were the Poles and Slovaks from the north, and the Croats from the south. On the map the dots in Bohemia and Moravia show the emigration of those people. In the northern part of Galicia, and along the border

of Russia, are seen the Poles, on either side of the dividing line between Galicia and Hungary the Slovaks, while the little group at the southern extremity of Galicia are the Ruthenians.

About the center of Hungary is seen the group of dots representing Magyar emigration while toward the south are the Roumanians, over the border from Roumania. The South Slavs come from Croatia and Slavonia, as shown on the map, from Dalmatia and from Bosnia.

Causes of Emigration. A study of this map and the tables of immigration seem to afford much support to the contention sometimes made that, historically, emigration is a political rather than an economic phenomenon.

It is certainly plain, with regard to Austria-Hungary and Russia, that the races dominant politically are not emigrating, while the emigrants are of politically subordinate races. The emigrants from Russia are not the Muscovites, but the conquered Poles, the Lithuanians, the Finns and the Hebrews.

The Germans are at present politically dominant in Austria and the Slavs are

¹ A further curious confirmation of this theory is seen in the history of immigration from two countries where the cause of political domination of one race by another would seem to be absent. The great emigration from Italy to-day is of one people, the Italians, and the great German emigration of twenty years ago was made up of Germans. But in both cases the high tide of immigration followed the subordination of many scattered local groups to a central power, in one case the establishment of the German Empire, in the other the Kingdom of Italy.

emigrating. The Croatians are subordinated to Hungary, and are emigrating, while the Hungarians themselves, although leaving in large numbers a country which is nominally their own, are more of less in bonds to Austria. Again, the Roumanians emigrate from Hungary, but hardly at all from Roumania, from which country the emigration is almost entirely Jewish. So also with the Ruthenians, who regard themselves as Russians. The bulk of the Ruthenian population is found across the Galician border in Russia, but the bulk of Ruthenian immigration comes from Galicia.¹

It is not necessary, however, to give up the idea that the prevailing reason for large movements of mankind is economic, even while recognizing the weight of the political facts. It is simply because political dominance is accompanied by economic dominance, and because political subordination is correlated with economic disadvantage in the way of disproportionate taxation, unequal tariff restrictions, unequal burdens of military service, unfair withholding of economic privilege, etc., that the politically subordinate feel the necessity of finding a better economic environment.

Economic and Educational Characteristics. The following table shows something as to the proportions of the different peoples in certain economic classes, and their degree of illiteracy and poverty:

	OCCUPATIONS Percentage of Males Who Are			Percentage Over 14 Who Can Neither Read nor Write	Amount of Money Per Capita
	Professional	Skilled	Laborers		
Slavs—					
North Slavs—					
Bohemians and Moravians	1.43	44.50	32.00	1.50	\$22.67
Poles08	6.10	85.00	30.00	9.54
"Russians"	2.28	16.80	69.00	31.00	25.06
Ruthenians08	2.10	96.00	50.00	9.40
Slovaks06	5.60	89.00	21.00	12.00
South Slavs—					
Bulgarians, Servians and Monte- negrins01	2.80	95.00	45.00	11.07
Croatians and Slovenians12	5.65	93.00	35.00	12.37
Dalmatians, Bosnians and Herze- govinians45	21.00	56.00	24.00	15.00
Lithuanians06	5.33	89.00	41.00	9.05
Magyars42	9.88	83.00	10.00	12.59
Roumanians25	4.34	94.00	21.00	10.40

Perhaps the most striking thing about this table is the way the Bohemians stand forth from the others as on an evidently higher economic and social plane. There is practically no illiteracy among them, the amount of money brought is greater than for any group but the "Russians," who, as we have seen, are a doubtful group, and the proportion of professional and skilled to unskilled laborers is far higher than for any of the remaining peoples.

Special comment on this table is needless. These newer immigrants, with the exception of the Bohemians, are mainly unskilled, illiterate peasants from country districts, and with little money in their pockets. This does not necessarily mean, however, that they are undesirable immigrants. The present writer has attempted to show elsewhere, in more detail, that the illiterate, unskilled immigrant may be, in fact, a more desirable immigrant than the better educated skilled laborer, or the still better educated professional or business man. There may be a great demand here for unskilled labor, when skilled labor is not needed in such large quantities. Again, the moral qualities of the untaught, but industrious, simple-minded, unspoiled countryman may be far more wholesome for the communities to which he comes than those of the educated, town-bred, unsuccessful business or professional man, the misfit skilled laborer, or the actual loafer and sharper of the cities, who comes over here when home gets too hot for him.

As to illiteracy, moreover, the peasant is improving, the percentage of illiteracy in their home countries in Europe showing a marked decline, decade by decade. It hardly need be said that it does not follow that the peasant will necessarily lose his good qualities as the result of education, even if, as at present, while uneducated he is superior to his educated brother of the towns.

The mass of this great, unskilled labor force pushes directly through the great gateway of New York, where, unfortunately, so many of other races stop, to congest further an already congested population. They go to the eastern, middle and northern

states, mainly into our coal and iron mines, and our steel mills, but also to the farming regions where they work patiently and thriftily, first as farm laborers, then as owners of abandoned farming lands or cut-over timber lands, reclaiming and making them fertile to the great advantage of the markets they supply.

The destinations given in the report of the Commissioner of Immigration afford the best clew we can get to the actual distribution of immigration year by year, although it is not, of course, a very certain one. If, however, New York be excepted, which is, naturally, the one state given as a destination by many who intend to go further, the destinations given do show in a rough way, something of the actual distribution.

Making a map with these figures as a basis, on the same principle as the map of Europe showing emigration, with one dot for each thousand immigrants, of the kinds we are studying, shown as booked for the state in which the dot is placed, it is seen that we do not need more than the upper right hand quarter of a map of the United States to show practically the entire distribution of these peoples.

Of the different peoples we have been considering, only seven per cent were destined to states other than the eleven shown with dots in the map. And, as the map of Europe and the map of the states were drawn to about the same scale, it is seen that the immigrants are confined within about as narrow territorial boundaries as they came from as emigrants.

Pennsylvania receives a large representation of each group of peoples and they live side by side in the same districts. The same is true of Illinois and Ohio. The Slavic immigration shown on the map for Connecticut and Massachusetts is, however, mainly Polish, while that to Minnesota and for Connecticut, Slovaks and Magyars in addition. The Slavic immigration to Michigan and Wisconsin is also mainly Polish, while that to Minnesota and Missouri is mainly Croatian.

Unfortunately, it was not possible to represent the different peoples by different symbols, so that a dot showing a thou-

*The Destinations
of the New
Immigration.*

sand Croatians, lies in indistinguishable proximity to a Magyar dot. There is the consolation, however, that even this imperfection reflects a real phenomenon. For, in the places of destination themselves, as well as on the map, it is hard to tell one variety of Austro-Hungarian or Russian from another, fiercely as they hold to their unlikeness, and deeply as they resent their indiscriminate classification as one people. Thus, in Pennsylvania, while a Lithuanian would die with shame at being mistaken for a Pole, both together, with all the rest of the newcomers, even the perfectly distinct South Italians, are lumped together as "Huns" by the older inhabitants.

The above, however, is but a statistical skeleton, useful only in helping to co-ordinate the concrete, vital detail which succeeding writers will give regarding each people separately.

Economic Stratification. The present writer in closing will risk just one generalization which, it is hoped, the special accounts of the others will bear out, that in the case of the new immigration we shall see a repetition of the story of the old immigration we are so familiar with. First comes the ignorant and poor, but industrious peasant, the young man, alone, without wife or family. For a few years he works and saves, living according to a "standard of life" which shocks his older established neighbors, and, we may guess, would often shock his own people at home. At first he makes plans for going back, regards

himself as a temporary sojourner, sends his savings home, and perhaps goes back himself. But he usually returns to this country, with a wife. America has now become his home, savings are invested here, land is bought, and a little house built. The growing children are educated in American schools, learn American ways, and forcibly elevate the "standard of life" of the family. The second generation, in the fervor of its enthusiasm for change and progress becomes turbulent, unruly and is despaired of. Out of the chaos, however, emerges a third generation, of creditable character, from whom much may be expected. Our Austrian, Hungarian and Russian newcomers are still in the first and second stages and there seems no good reason why they should not pull through successfully to the third.

But in that endeavor we can either help or materially hinder them, according to our treatment of them, as employees, as producers, as fellow citizens. The employer who reaps his profits from their labor, the consumer who enjoys the product of their labor, the general public which will feel the results of neglect of this raw material of citizenship, cannot afford to treat these peoples as a species of lower animal, unless they wish to perpetuate and foster a lower human type. America, for her own sake, owes to the immigrant not only the opportunities for "life, liberty and pursuit of happiness" that she promises to every man, but a sympathetic appreciation of his humanity, and an intelligent assistance in developing it.

The Bohemian National Hymn, My Fatherland

Where is my home ?
Where is my home ?
Waters thro' its meads are streaming,
Mounts with rustling woods are teeming,
Vales are bright with flowrets rare,
Oh, earth's Eden, thou art fair !
Land of beauty, dear Bohemia,
Thou art my home, my fatherland !
Thou art my home, my fatherland !

Where is my home ?
Where is my home ?
By the Towers of God 'tis bounded ;
By the noblest sons surrounded ;
True and light of heart are they,
Firm and bold in deadly fray,
Offspring grand of dear Bohemia,
Thou art my home, my fatherland !
Thou art my home, my fatherland !

—From the *Chicago University Settlement Song Book*.

The Bohemians in Chicago

A SKETCH

Alice G. Masaryk

University of Chicago Settlement

I.

Half a century has passed since Bohemians first crossed the ocean, and after a long and dreaded journey and much uncertainty, settled down in Chicago, which was then scarcely more than a large village on the Lake shore in the endless prairie.

To-day, Chicago is the third largest Bohemian city in the world, having about one hundred thousand Bohemians, grouped in several colonies of which "Pilsen"¹ is the largest. Originally, the Bohemians lived on Van Buren and Canal streets where now rushing business life is focused. But these settlers were accustomed to villages and small rustic towns, where they cultivated their fields and lived by their handicraft. Therefore, they soon moved from their first seats near the lake and, when the influx of Jews and Italians into their new quarters began to change the character of the settlement, they moved again. The growth of Pilsen thus began after 1870, and after thirty years shows a certain crystallization of what is typical and characteristic of Bohemian-American life. The other quarters are of more recent date and in many respects bear to Pilsen the relation of colonies to a mother land.

A marked though slight dialect, very common in Chicago, shows that a great number of the people came from the southern part of the kingdom, a district which is poorer than the central and northern parts. Nor is the education in this part as good, for poverty does not send out rays of education, though it absorbs them with craving rapidity.

The reasons for the Bohemian emigra-

¹ Pilsen or Pizen lies between Halstead and Western avenues from Sixteenth street out to Twenty-second street. The Bohemians coming to Chicago stop at Pilsen before they settle down definitely. Growing industries (Packing-town) and cheap lots influence the growth of colonies, of which many have a half rural character. There are about nine colonies besides Pilsen; most of them have a Bohemian Catholic parish and a Freethinker's school.

tion are various. The stormy year, 1848, sent a few pioneers for the Bohemian colony; so did the wars with Italy and Prussia and the depressions that followed. Bad harvests, hailstorms and droughts have been of influence, and the disproportionate land taxes, compulsory military service, and the lack of liberty in the bureaucratic system, are certainly of moment.

The reasons for emigration must ever be strong, for the Bohemians cling to the inherited strip of land, to the cottage they were born in, to the little church on the hill, and the rattling mill on the brook. But when they decide to leave the village or town they were born in, the pain of parting gives life to a new, strong love for the new country, the unknown yet longed-for home. And they come with the intention of becoming American citizens.

Even by a conservative element, the Bohemians are considered desirable immigrants. The number of illiterates is small; in the country districts they make good farmers; they are clever hand-workers in the towns. The last is of special interest for Chicago, and is borne out by the fact that of 9,591 Bohemians who came to the United States in 1902-3, 2,609 were skilled workmen.¹ The United States census of 1900 shows that 75.8 per cent of the Bohemians live in the Northwest, which is prevaillingly agricultural. Of the Bohemians who came over in 1903 only 1.2 per cent were illiterate—and a proportion exceeded only by the Finnish and Scandinavian immigrants of this year.²

¹ The proportion of skilled workmen among immigrants of 1902-3 was as follows: Irish, 3,273 out of 35,806; Poles, 3,715 out of 82,373; Slovaks, 1,389 out of 34,427.

² The Slavic immigration of 1903 shows the following percentages of illiterates: Bohemians, 1.2 per cent; Slovaks, 19.3 per cent; Poles, 27.5 per cent; Croatians and Slovaks, 33.1 per cent; Lithuanians, 38.0 per cent. See, H. Schwegel, *Die Einwanderung in die Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika*.

The Change which the Bohemians Undergo. The change the Bohemians undergo in crossing the ocean and settling down in Chicago is a radical one.

From the Austrian monarchy under which the Catholic church has been indirectly forced upon them, they come into a republic where freedom of religion is acknowledged. From villages and little, old towns, they come into the rushing city of Chicago. Their inward, often unconscious, store of principles and thoughts, superstitions and prejudices, has to be revised because it has been revolutionized. Sometimes the revision is swept away by the revolution.

What intense mental work it requires to distinguish the wisdom of ages crystallized into tradition from an organic prejudice—faith from superstition. Very, very few can do so much and therefore the hardship, the unevenness of the first generation of Bohemians.

The simple, gentle manners of a Bohemian peasant and artisan have to undergo a period of change through the distrust accorded all strangers and the imitation of those *beati possidentes* that inherited their traditions and manners from other ancestors. This queer mixture in the period of changing does not raise sympathy in those who, because they see only the surface, cannot understand and therefore cannot love.

The Bohemians at home have a strong family life. A married son or daughter remains under the same roof with the aged parents, who retire into a quiet nook, where they enjoy their flaxen-haired, brown-eyed grandchildren. This trait, though modified, continues in Chicago. On a Sunday afternoon, the Eighteenth street car is filled with families, scrubbed, brushed and starched-up, bound for some festival hall to have a good time.

The Bohemian housekeepers know how to get great results from small means, which is most valuable for the poorer class and shows in the red and glossy cheeks of the children. On the other hand, the heavy food (pork with dump-lings, for instance, is very common, and with it the usual glass of beer) produces those of full forms without corresponding strength, so general among the well-to-do citizens.

The Bohemians are capable of being amalgamated quickly. They learn the language easily, they give work for which even under competition, they can demand decent wages; they take an interest in politics.

From the Old Country to the New.

What then is the reason for that vigorous Bohemian-American life, which forms a world of its own in the midst of the city of Chicago? A hundred years ago, after a long and dead slumber into which the Catholic anti-reformation (one form of Christianity) put the country, the Bohemian national spirit began to breathe. Like an underground current, that tries to find an opening for its waters and is untiring in the tiresome task of seeking and seeking, so tried the hidden, down-trodden Bohemian nation to find a way to live, and it slowly succeeded.

After the fifties, one streamlet, diverted from the general current, found its way to the United States and to the city of Chicago. The obstacles, the bounds that held in this streamlet were removed. So sudden was the change that the waters which expected obstacles burst out into a jet instead of flowing slowly, running mills and factories. Liberty, longed for by generations of Bohemians, was given to the people here, and the energies of thought and longings pent up in the breast for generations without being examined and modified in the fire of deeds, have compelled a disproportionate display.

In the meantime, the mother stream in the old country found its way more naturally because the movement was slower, the obstacles greater, because those who took part in it possessed the discriminating and radical conservatism of thorough education. The same longings that make the Bohemians in Chicago form endless clubs, which make them free thinkers, distrusting all denominational churches, took a more organic growth in the old country, in development in music, arts and sciences, as well as in economic life.

II.

Two pages, large sheets of the daily paper *Svornost* lie before me, covered with

small print, giving the names of Bohemian clubs, societies, and lodges in Chicago. The Catholic press gives another long list of Catholic lodges, Catholic clubs. This fever for organization is typical of the Bohemians in Chicago. It was forty years ago that the few Bohemian settlers started their first club, the "Slavic Lime-tree."¹ This beginning was simple, and almost idyllic. "We ought to have a little church for our grandmothers," one of the members suggested a little later. "A church where they could pray their *pater noster* in peace and then we'll be fixed. If we had a mill on the river I should think that we were in Bohemia."

The grandmothers received their church—no small gift in those times. It cost much enthusiasm and good will. Since that simple beginning, many activities have been at work which have resulted in the social organization—the work of individuals, of masses.

In Religion. About 1876, the watchword was given, "Away with Rome" and against it. The reason for this schism (in practical life petty symptoms confirm laws of history) was that the Bohemians in crossing the ocean gained a larger perspective for the observation of their history; they had come to live in a land where the anti-reformation had not had its triumphs. This new light in which they view our history, makes them cry: "Away, away from Rome!" And the question arises, "Where shall we turn?" To Protestantism? Or are there new unknown harbors for weary souls?

Few turn to Protestantism; the majority seek the unknown harbor of free thinking. Negative destructive work is easier than positive work, and therefore we find among the Bohemians all kinds of freethinking from the dogmatic, which is compressed into the much spoken of Catechism of Freethinkers (catechism of freethinking as possible as dry water!) to that freethinking which is so surprising when expressed by an old, simple woman with a broad brow over which the silvery hair is smoothly parted, who says: "I have my God in my heart, I shall deal

¹ The limetree or linden is the national tree of the Slavs.

with Him. I do not want any priest to step between us."

Economic Life. The emigration consists almost entirely of working people of whom it has been shown a large percentage is skilled handworkers. It must be borne in mind that while within the last fifty years, centralization of capital and subdivision of labor have reached an unparalleled height in America, in Bohemia, the old guild system which prevailed for centuries is slowly dying off through the same process. The old settlers, who came forty years ago and filled their stores with home-made goods (in those times one tailor flourished alongside of another on Nineteenth street) look amazed on the newcomers and shake their heads: "The idea of an eight-hour day." "The idea of strikes." The once independent handworkers become foremen in great establishments, cutters in tailor shops, butchers in stock yards, workers in the lumber yards, and a great many become shopkeepers. The middle class naturally dreads the great industrial revolution and hates with equal zest trusts and trade unions. But in the trade union movement the Bohemian workman, like all other intelligent working people, takes a part. And in Chicago, the unions with a Bohemian administration (over twenty in number) have a Bohemian central body.

A large factor in the industrial life is the fact that the Bohemians in Chicago practically have a third generation on this soil, though the first generation is still coming in.¹ Therefore, it is natural that with the great thriftiness of the people and their desire to give their children a good education, Bohemians should be found in different branches of business as well as in all professions. In the home country brewing and the making of beet sugar are two of the oldest industries, and three breweries, founded by Bohemian capital, operate in Chicago, influencing the number of saloons not exactly to the benefit of the population.

The Bohemians have a tendency to own houses and so to have permanent homes. This tendency has been very much helped by the Subsidiary Loan Association. The

¹ There has been an especially great influx after the great hail storms of a year ago and continued drought of this year.

first was started in 1870, and by 1902 there were over thirty Bohemian loan associations of this kind. Six per cent is the highest rate of interest. Of the officers, only the secretary is paid and the books are revised once a year by a state officer. The system of mutual benefit societies has also taken on large dimensions. *Svornost*¹ gives the name of sixteen orders, which in Chicago have 259 lodges. *Denni Hlasatel*² gives about thirty Catholic associations and this is far from being a full list. These orders pay sick and death benefits, the business basis of the lodges being combined with a social element.

Politics. In politics, the majority of Bohemians are Democratic; the oldest Republican settlers forming an exception. I have often heard the change from the Republican to the Democratic sentiment explained by the readiness of the Democrats to grant offices to the Bohemians. Another and more satisfactory explanation was given to me by a staunch old Republican. The first Bohemians, who left the bureaucratic Austrian monarchy, joined the Republican party with enthusiasm. During all the years that Bohemians were coming in such numbers, the government was Republican. The government in Bohemia was far from popular and the very fact that the existing administration was Republican made the Bohemians willing to listen to the complaints of Democrats and even to join in these complaints. Cleveland's first administration did not change this point of view as the Democrats did not have a majority in Congress. The number of Social Democrats is growing as among other immigrant nationalities.

The Bohemians in Chicago have three daily papers. The Freethinkers have *Svornost*, the Catholics *Narod*, and *Denni Hlasatel* claims to be independent in questions of faith.³

¹ *Svornost*, June 23, 1904.

² *Denni Hlasatel*, October 28, 1904.

³ Politically *Denni Hlasatel* is Democratic; *Svornost* more Republican; *Narod*, independent. The Socialists have a weekly *Spravdenost*. Further, the freethinkers publish, besides a daily paper, two monthly educational papers, two weeklies (one satirical) and the *American* which appears twice a week. The Catholic Benedictine press publishes a daily paper, a paper on agriculture every other week. *The Friend of Children*, a weekly, and *The Catholic*, twice a week. To complete the list of Bohemian journals I must mention *The Woman's Weekly*, which is run on a co-operative basis. The

Social Life. The social life among the Bohemians is very much alive. There are dances, concerts, theatrical performances. Since the Columbian Exposition a company of professional actors has resided in Pilsen, who on Sunday evenings play before a full house in the large hall, Thalia.

Besides the tendency to avail themselves of the unaccustomed freedom, other factors enter into the social life, such as the rivalry between the Catholics and Freethinkers, the rivalry of individuals, and the indirect economic interest. A new settler finds customers in the club or lodge he joins. This can be reduced *ad absurdum*, when, for instance, all the grocers from the district meet in the same club with the same intention. The educational element is of great importance. I was struck by the cleverness and efficiency with which the Bohemian women conduct their meetings. The men gain here a training for political life.

Other than these mutual benefit organizations, you will find all kinds of societies especially among the freethinkers, such as turner (gymnastic) clubs (35), singing clubs (18), printing clubs (7), bicycle clubs (5), dramatic clubs (4) and many others.¹

The Bohemians are born musicians. "Where is the Bohemian who does not love music?" is a cadence in Smetana's music which says everything. You will find on the West Side many music schools, many violinists and pianists, amateurs, besides the professional musicians who have three unions.

A large park near Dunning, a beautiful garden, is the Bohemian cemetery. Its beginning belongs to the time of the separation of the Freethinkers from the Catholic Church. A Catholic priest refused to bury in the Catholic cemetery a woman who died without a confession, and the Freethinkers resolved to have a cemetery of their own. Like the Catechism of Freethinking, this cemetery proclaims how deeply the roots of Catholic logic and way of thinking penetrated the Bohemian soul. The great pomp with which the dead are buried by

Methodists in Chicago publish a Bohemian weekly, and the Baptists a little monthly and quarterly paper

¹ *Svornost*, June 23, 1904.

Freethinkers belongs to the middle ages, to the shadows of cathedrals. It is touching to watch the pride with which they love this piece of American soil. All the thoughts and memories of their old home, that are so dear to them, seem to be thought more easily and better in this garden of the dead, for something died within them when they left their homes. The pure memory lives as the memory of those who have left them forever and sleep under that velvety grass, under the brightest autumn leaves and the faithful asters.

Education. The school to which the rising generation goes is of special interest to the American public. Generally speaking, the Catholics send their children to parochial schools (at least for a couple of years) and the Freethinkers to public schools. There are eight Bohemian parochial schools in Chicago with almost three thousand children. Bohemian and English are taught and they are supported mostly by the parishioners. The Freethinkers have schools either on Sundays, or on Saturday and Sunday—a system which seems to me, if reformed, would answer the needs. If constructed on modern principles of pedagogy, the teaching in these two days (or even one day a week) would give to the children born in America the strength of respect for the land of their parents by making them acquainted with its noble men and women, and with the Bohemian language in its purity. These schools are supported by the mutual benefit societies, which are represented in ten committees, each of which supports one school, not only providing a teacher, but erecting the school buildings with large halls, lodges, etc. Further, a system of Sunday-schools is developed by the committee for the benefit of Freethinkers' schools.

The parochial school system seems to be a system that has to be overcome, the Saturday and Sunday, a system that has to be reformed not in the dogmatic freethinking way, but in a really freethinking and therefore spiritual way.

The best element of the Bohemians in Chicago asked for a public reading-room in their district. After a great manifestation meeting, while we were waiting for a car, I overheard one of the experts use

the following sentence: "All this is just the wish of a few people, the majority does not bother." The attendance since has shown the opposite. The first month it was over eight thousand—a number unparalleled at any other station in Chicago. Good books are needed—not to keep the Bohemians a foreign element in the city, but to give them the opportunity to develop fully their own capabilities.

Not all immigrants will learn English and the American public owes something to those quiet, old, working and loving mothers, who are such a gigantic force in the lives of the young Americans—though they remain unseen by an outsider.

We have a proverb: "As you call into the woods, so the woods respond." Do not call through the political campaign and its chicanery. Call in a noble way, Yours will be the echo!

III.

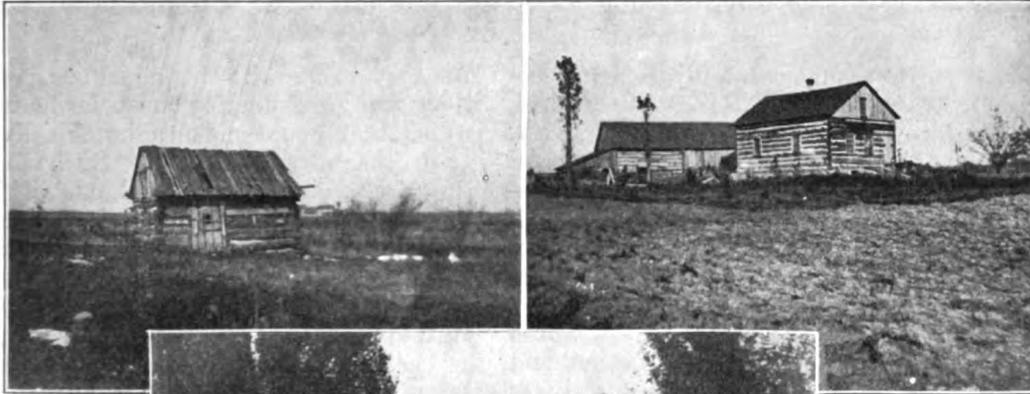
The West was burning in a reddish, golden glow. Broken sentences in English and in the Bohemian tongue rang in my ear. I turned down from Eighteenth street into a small, quiet street. Behind a vacant lot, fresh and green after a recent storm, the silhouettes of the houses, the needle of the slender church stood dark against the burning West.

My thoughts turned to the pale East and took their unrestricted flight. They crossed the ocean that stretched out quietly, the moon threw silver lights into its waves, the gulls went to bed. My thoughts reached the distant shore; they flew over the flat land of Germany, over the fragrant fir-trees on the borderland, the fertile fields of Bohemia; they stood with bewitched step among the old walls of Prague.

The East must be slightly lighting up there; the mist lies over the town; the steps of an early walker resound within the old walls. Over the hundred-towered city the well-known outline of the castle is visible. And the East is growing lighter, lighter.

The Bohemians have a longing for truth, just because they went through the purgatory of lie of others toward themselves—themselves towards others.

This longing is the dowry the land gives to its emigrants.



*Mile Posts in the
History of
Bohemian Farmers
of the Northwest*

- I. THE ORIGINAL LOG CABIN WITH MUD PLASTERING AND BOARD ROOF.
- II. THE MIDDLE PERIOD OF LIME PLASTERING, SMOOTHLY HEWN LOGS AND SHINGLED ROOFS.
- III. THE MODERN FARM HOUSE.

Bohemian Farmers of Wisconsin

Nan Mashek

Kewaunee, Wis.

In studying any group of "strangers within our gates," it is necessary to know intimately its pre-emigration history. I know of no nation of which this is more fundamentally true than the Bohemians. They have had such a stormy national struggle, and the bitterness of it has so entered into their lives that it is impossible rightly to judge them apart from it.

For the last two hundred and fifty years they have been oppressed by a pitilessly despotic rule. In the days of their independence, before 1620, they were Protestants and the most glorious and memorable events of their history are connected with their struggle for the faith. The history of their church is, in fact, the history of their nation, for on the one hand was Protestantism and independ-

ence; on the other, Catholicism and political subjection. For two centuries Bohemia was a bloody battleground of Protestant reform. Under the spiritual and military leadership of such men as Jerome of Prague, John Huss and Ziska, the Bohemians fought their good fight and lost. After the battle of White Mountain in 1620, national independence was completely lost, and Catholicism was forcibly imposed upon the country. All Protestant bibles, books and songs were burnt, thus depriving the nation of a large and rich literature. Those who still clung publicly to their faith were banished from the country, their property becoming forfeit to the state.

After a hundred and fifty years, when Emperor Joseph II of Austria gave back to the Protestants some measure of their

former freedom, many of the churches were re-established. Protestantism had, however, lost much of its strength. Among the less educated, Catholicism, at first bitterly distasteful, had become customary, and in the second generation sincere. Those, however, who knew Bohemian history and had read the story of Huss and Jerome, kept more nearly the ideals of their fathers. They could not but be hostile toward a nation and a church which had tried so utterly to crush them.

Then, in 1848, came the political revolution. Encouraged by the success of the French people against Louis Phillippe, the Bohemians again broke out in remonstrance. With the subdual of this outbreak came a reaction toward despotism in which is found the first impulse toward emigration. Large numbers left the country in the quest of freedom, and of these some found their way to America.

Thus our first Bohemian settlers were of the most intelligent and more prosperous classes. Those who came West established themselves in two settlements, one in St. Louis and the other in Caledonia, Wis. (near Racine). In the next few years settlements spread to Milwaukee and Manitowoc counties. These first Bohemian farmers came almost without exception with money enough to buy their lands, at least in part. The country which they selected was heavily wooded so that their first great labor was to clear their farms. This they did by cutting and burning the logs, making no attempt to sell them as timber, as did their countrymen who came later. With farms wholly or in part paid for, they could direct all their energies toward clearing and cultivating the land, finding an immediate means of subsistence in small crops raised among the stumps. From this small beginning, the way to prosperity was clear. Their farms in Milwaukee county, directly north of Manitowoc, are among the finest in the state.

These were the centers toward which the subsequent immigration naturally drifted. By 1870 the greater part of the later-comers had arrived. These were mostly ambitious farm laborers and mechanics who hoped to find here an independent and more profitable livelihood.

As they came with little or no money, their first need was for cheap farms upon which they could make a humble living from the very beginning. Such farms they found in the timber lands of Kewaunee county, directly north of Manitowoc. Here they settled in such large numbers that they still make up over one-third of the total population—6,000 of the 17,000 inhabitants of the county.

*The Problem
Before the
Early Settlers.*

The early settler bought from forty to sixty acres of land, making only a small cash payment, and giving a mortgage for the rest. The price ranged from five to ten dollars an acre. With the help of his neighbors, who blazed trails as they came lest they should not be able to find the way back, he built a log cabin and felled a few trees to give space for a vegetable patch. Then came the serious work of clearing the land, and at the same time earning enough outside money to live and pay part of the debt. This was accomplished in various ways. Sometimes the head of the family and the eldest son worked part of the year in the nearest sawmill or in the logging camps of northern Michigan. Sometimes they went to the large farms to the south of Michigan to help during the harvest. Very often they made hand-shaved pine shingles of the trees on their land, and exchanged them at the nearest market for what they most needed.

These were, indeed, hard years for our pioneers, but better times came after 1861. The war broke out and the forest products of which they had such an abundance, increased in price. Tan-bark, cedar posts for fencing, cord-wood, railroad ties—all found a market so good that the village shippers bought them as fast as they could be made and brought to the shipping piers. Many of these merchant lumbermen advanced money to the farmers with which to buy oxen and sleighs. They also took timber products in exchange for flour, cloth and other necessities, and in other ways the struggle for existence became less severe, the clearing of the lands went on more rapidly, and the farmers were able to meet more easily their living expenses and debts, notwithstanding war

prices on food products and clothes, which put flour at \$12 a barrel, coffee at 60 cents a pound and ordinary sheeting at 85 cents.

*During
the Civil War
and After.*

But the war, even with its attendant prosperity, was not an unmixed blessing. Enthusiasm and patriotism, everywhere rife, was further encouraged among the Bohemians by their newspaper *The Slavie*, then published in Racine, Wis. Many entered the volunteer army, and when later a draft was ordered, large numbers of farms were left without men. There remained usually a large family with only a mother, and perhaps a fourteen-year-old son, to carry on the work of the place, an outlook calculated to overwhelm the most courageous of women. Yet our Bohemian wives were not disheartened and it is remarkable that in all that war-time not one mortgage was foreclosed in Kewaunee county, and not one of these brave women forfeited the homestead that was given into her care.

After the war, the material progress of the farmers was steady. To-day, were you to travel through their settlements, you would find large, well-ordered farms, with only here and there a stump or disused log-house to remind you of pioneer days. In Kewaunee county, farm land is now worth from \$25 to \$50 an acre, five times its original value.

Very little was done during the early years toward education. Schools were widely scattered, hard to reach, and there was work for the children at home. The Catholic church, in the few places where it was established, had in connection with it no parochial school. Only a very few children learned even the beginnings of English. Some, however, were taught at home in the mother-tongue, which enabled them to read the Bohemian newspaper.

*The Schoolhouse
and
Other Beginnings.*

When, later, more roads were opened, and pioneers had overcome their first difficulties, schoolhouses sprang up and children were given from seven to ten months tuition each year. It would seem that once the "little red schoolhouse" was built, the way toward American citizenship would have been clear. But even here there were difficulties. The

small Slavs insisted on talking Bohemian out of school hours, and the distracted schoolmaster could do nothing to stop them. As a consequence, they learned English slowly; other branches of knowledge, still more so. In communities where there were a few Irish and American children, conditions were somewhat better, but even here "recess-language" was Bohemian. The minority of little Americans were overcome. It was a common complaint among their parents that even at home they spoke to each other in Bohemian and a strange, unnatural language it must have seemed to these English-speaking parents.

These beginnings belong to the past. It would be hard in our day to find a Bohemian of the second generation in Wisconsin who cannot read and speak English. The older people do not learn English so readily. Their children and neighbors can speak with them in the mother-tongue, the village merchant provides Bohemian clerks of whom they can buy, and for reading they have the Bohemian newspapers. Those who can speak German adapt themselves somewhat more readily; for having a knowledge of one foreign language, they find it less difficult to master a second which is allied to it.

*Higher
Education.*

In the matter of higher education, the Bohemians of Kewaunee county have a remarkably good record. Within the last twenty-five years the local high school has sent to college fifty-nine young men and women and of these thirty were Bohemians. It is plain, then, that there is no lack of ambition in the children of our pioneers, and this ambition is upheld and fostered by progressive Bohemians of the West. Two years ago a council of higher education was organized at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, which, in the words of its constitution, is "to encourage the Bohemian youth to acquire higher education, to inform our people concerning the manner in which they may secure such education for their children, and the advantages which various educational institutions afford, and to aid promising students, who lack the material means necessary to higher education, by honor-loans, without interest."

The society was organized mainly through the efforts of W. F. Severa, a prominent Bohemian of Cedar Rapids, and Professor Simek of Iowa University. To put the project in motion, Mr. Severa subscribed \$2,500, a sum which has been so liberally contributed to by Bohemian societies and individuals that in the two years the society has been able to loan much more. Though in 1903-4 there were seven students at various western universities and this year the number has been increased to twelve, it is hoped that as the fund increases, both by contributions and repaid loans, the society will be able to broaden its scope.

The movement is further supported by another, the aim of which is to establish Bohemian libraries in the larger Bohemian communities. The public library of Milwaukee is to install one hundred books on history, literature, biography, fiction and science and the Free Library Commission of Wisconsin is considering the purchase of two sets of books, seventy-five in each, to be used as traveling libraries in the thickly populated districts of the state. In addition to these libraries, there is to be another of about a hundred books at the University of Nebraska, and a second traveling library under the management of the council of higher education. Mr. Severa voices the ambition of progressive Bohemian-Americans when he says: "We want our young men and women to enter American colleges and to work hand in hand with Americans on the path of progress, but we want them at the same time to respect the land of their fathers, to know their language and to be informed concerning their history and literature."

In the country the assimilation of Bohemians is not a problem which offers difficulties. The public school is everywhere so potent an Americanizer that it alone is adequate. There is, however, one other influence which if brought to bear, especially in the large communities, would be helpful. I refer to the Protestant faith. For the most part Bohemians conversant with their history as a people are naturally hostile to the Catholic church, and when the restraints which held them in their own country are re-

moved by emigration, many of the most enlightened quietly drop their allegiance and, through lack of desire or opportunity, fail to ally themselves with any other. So strong is this non-religious tendency among Bohemians (especially in the cities) that it has resulted in active unbelief and hostility to church influence. This spiritual isolation, with its resultant social separation, is doing great harm in retarding assimilation. The benefits to be derived from social intercourse within a church would be especially marked as assimilative and educational factors.

*Assimilation
of American
Customs.*

Aside from this matter of religion, the Bohemian falls into American customs with surprising readiness. This is the more remarkable when we consider the great difference between American and Bohemian country life. Nowhere in the old country are there isolated farms as here—the cultivated lands radiate. To a Bohemian immigrant then, American farm life must at first seem extremely dull and void of social pleasure.

A general impression that Bohemians are much like the Germans is not true. They are to begin with a very emotional people. In this they resemble more closely the Latin races, except that where the Latins are more or less consistently light-hearted, the Bohemians have an unconquerable tendency toward melancholy. They are excitable and have an unusual capacity for entering heartily into their pleasures; but, on the other hand, they are easily depressed and have not the cool-natured endurance of the northern German. Generally liberal money-spenders, hard-working and thrifty, they still have a fondness for good living, good clothes, and an occasional glass of beer, which makes it difficult for them to bear poverty.

But, perhaps, their most striking characteristic is their love of music and dancing. In the country, almost every village has a band of self-taught musicians, and the country dance is a time-honored institution. Their national music is peculiarly Slavonic and has in it the same undercurrent of strangeness and melancholy which one finds in their personal traits and again in their folk-lore.



A GROUP OF SCLAVS IN THE ANTHRACITE BELT AND THE DWELLING IN WHICH THEY LIVE

The Sclavs in Anthracite Coal Communities¹

Peter Roberts

Mahanoy City, Pennsylvania

Each race has its peculiar genius. It differs in time and place, and may be best observed in the literature, art and religion of the people. The genius of the Sclav differs widely from that of the Anglo-Saxon. His racial heritage, his environment, and the type of government under which he lives differ greatly from those of the Anglo-Saxon. His late appearance upon the scene where European nations struggled for mastery, his contact with Asiatic civilization and his absorption of much Asiatic blood, have made him more of an idealist than the average Anglo-Saxon and retarded his industrial development. These influences have clogged the Sclav's advancement so that he is the creation of a less progressive civilization than our own.

None recognizes this more readily than educated Sclavs. But this strong people will repay close study to the Sclavs' presence in large numbers in America has brought what some choose to call the "Sclav problem." His presence raises

¹There are two spellings of the word Slav. *CFARITIES* makes use of the shorter form. Mr. Roberts has used the "c" in all of his writings and consistency is best subserved by his use of it here.

many interesting questions. What will be the effect of a more progressive civilization upon him? Has he the power to appreciate adequately the advantages offered by democratic institutions and will he improve them? What is the influence of free education upon the offspring of this people and what are the effects of personal freedom and liberty such as we enjoy upon them? These questions are important when a group over a million strong thrusts itself into our body politic.

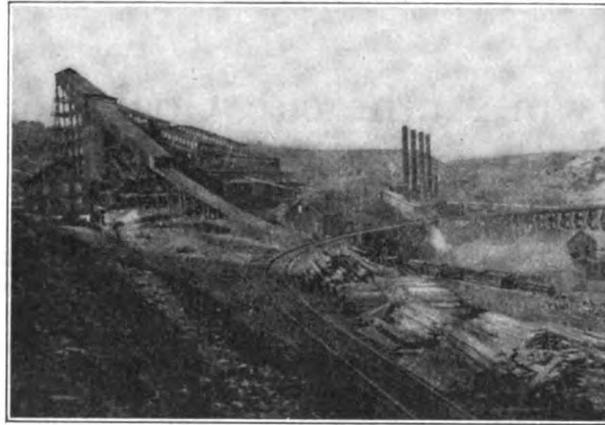
The following article considers the Sclavs of the anthracite coal fields from three points of view: (a) their racial elements; (b) their social condition; (c) their response to culture.

I.
Racial Elements. When riding a few months ago on the train from Mauch Chunk to Tamaqua, I asked the conductor "How many foreigners come into the Panther Creek region now?" "It's a steady stream," he replied. "There's no end to the coming of these Huns." The same is true of other districts in the coal fields. There is not a week passing but newcomers arrive in

our towns and although "white men" find work scarce, these immigrants enter the mines the day after their advent into the coal fields.

This steady influx has wholly changed the character of our population. Twenty years ago the Slavs were little known in the mining industry; a decade ago they were only found in specific localities; today they are seen everywhere throughout the coal fields. There are at present some 110,000 Slavs and their descendants in anthracite communities, and each year they become more influential in the political affairs of our municipalities. If they unite in political action, the balance of power in Lackawanna, Schuylkill and Luzerne counties is in their hands. When Judge — was lately elected to the bench,

The racial elements in our communities are many. Men inaccurately speak of our late immigrants as "Huns." There are actually no Hungarians in the coal fields. The nearest approach to them are the Magyars, who are not Slavs. Of these, we have only a few hundred, who are chiefly located in the Wyoming and Lackawanna valleys. We also have some six thousand Italians, less than half of whom are employed in and around the mines. These are found in the Wyoming and Lackawanna valleys and on the Hazelton mountains. We have also a few hundred Tyrolese who are sometimes spoken of as Italians and sometimes as Slavs. Another group is the Lithuanians and their kinsmen, the Letts, of whom only a few live in Northeastern Pennsylvania. These are



THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT OF THE SCLAV IN THE COAL FIELDS.

a prominent politician said: "The Huns put him there." When a Slav was nominated for the office of recorder in one county, the English-speaking element, regardless of political affiliations, combined to defeat him. Notwithstanding this, the returns showed that the Slav was within a few hundred votes of getting the prize. If the Slavs of Mt. Carmel, Shenandoah, Mahanoy City, Nanticoke, Plymouth, Duryea, Priceburg, Olyphant, Forest City, etc., unite in political matters, not one of these municipalities can do anything without consulting them. These peoples are not yet conscious of their power. The Slav is slow to move; when he does move he is just as persevering in his purpose as he was formerly in his inertia.

found in Shenandoah, Mahanoy City, Hazleton, Freeland, Wilkes-Barre, Plymouth, Kingston, Pittston, Duryea, Scranton, Priceburg and Forest City. Their total number will be possibly about thirty thousand. None of the above four groups is of Slav origin. The remaining 90,000 are Slavs proper. They are made up of Poles, Ruthenians, Slovaks, a few Bohemians, Slovenians, Croatians, etc.

The Poles. Of the Slavs proper, the Poles are the most numerous in our territory, and will possibly number some thirty-five thousand souls. They come from the three empires into which their country was divided when they lost independence. The German Pole is better educated and trained than those

from either Austria or Russia. His industrial efficiency is greater; he is more susceptible to the influence of a higher civilization, and more readily appreciates the advantages of education to his children and culture to himself. Hence we generally find the German Poles at the head of racial movements for the amelioration of this people. They have their societies such as the "Sons of Poland," "Polish Beneficiary Society," "Polish Literary Clubs," "Polish Political Clubs," etc., and with rare exceptions the German Pole is the leading spirit. He is not so far removed in his social status from his

Roman Catholic faith. Father Lorisias, of Shenandoah, mentions the fact that in this town wherein sixty per cent of the population is Letto-Slav, his people were the first among the Slavs to erect a house of worship. The Ruthenians also pride themselves on the fact that their language stands nearest the fountain whence the Slavic dialects have sprung and that the scholar who studies the language in common use among the Little Russians, will have, comparatively speaking, little difficulty in comprehending the languages spoken by the other members of the Slavic race.



THE BEGINNING OF CULTURAL AGENCIES—A TYPICAL SCHOOL-HOUSE.

brother from Austria and Russia that he forgets the ties of kinship. All Poles, no matter from what country they come, stand together. Several Polish aspirants for political or social honors will conduct a vigorous campaign before a caucus decides which is to be the standard bearer, but once the candidate is chosen all Polish electors fall into line and stand by their compatriot.

The Ruthenians. The Ruthenians stand next to the Poles in numbers in the anthracite fields and would possibly number 27,000 souls. In many of our towns in the northern, middle and southern districts, the presence of the Little Russians is attested by the churches which have above them the Greek cross, although they all profess allegiance to the

The Slovaks. The Slovaks in the hard coal fields are not as numerous as the above two branches and would possibly number about twenty-five thousand. These are the people generally designated "Huns" in the mining regions, for they all come from the Austro-Hungarian empire. The *Slovak Daily*, published in Pittsburg, has a standing refutation of this error on its editorial page, and educated Slovaks always insist on the fact that they are not "Huns" and do not wish to be called such. Their protest should be honored. The nomen "Hun" is a generic term and used by the average citizen in the coal fields in an opprobrious sense as synonymous with the lowest type of immigrants from southern Europe. The

Slovaks do not occupy a lower economic or social status than other immigrants of this race, and the opprobrious term "Hun" should not be applied to them any more than to other members of the Sclavic race.

The Bohemians, Croatians, Slovenians, etc., found in our territory, are a drop in the bucket compared with these three great groups. The minor elements amalgamate with the greater in their religious and social life, and can be spoken of as one with the major elements.

This, then, is the racial composition of the Letto-Sclavs and Italians in the hard coal fields.

All Sclavs do not dwell in unity. ^{11.} *Social Condition.* Racial antipathies, national jealousies and historical antecedents divide them. On new soil, they cannot forget their quarrels and prejudices; they cannot cast behind them animosities whose roots are buried in centuries of conflict and oppression. If they should forget these things, their lot here would be happier and their social progress swifter. Their jealousies and hatreds are met with on all sides, and their common religious faith is wholly inadequate as a solvent. Although followers of the same teacher, the Nazerene, the Poles and Letts, Slovaks and Ruthenians are alienated in sympathy, antagonistic in social and political affairs, and quarrelsome when they meet over their cups. The Pole is an Ishmaelite in his own family. He hates the Russian, the Little Russian, the Slovak, and in turn is hated by them. In discussing the Pan-Sclavic movement lately with an educated Slav, I asked: "Where does the Pole stand upon this question?" "Oh," was the reply, "he wants it, but asks us to make him king. The Pole always wants to be king; all the rest of us his serfs."

The Pole and the Lett can never agree. Their antagonism dates from the political allegiance effected in the fourteenth century. The Lithuanians tell of centuries of antagonism under Polish princes, which was as galling and obnoxious as any recorded in the annals of the world. The Pole will, on the other hand, assert his right to a higher social status than that of the Lett, because of his glorious record in European history for at least 500 years,

when the kingdom of Lithuania was joined to Poland. The Little Russian tells how the Polish nobles fled from oppression and tyranny in Russia and settled in Galicia, but no sooner were they settled there than they began to oppress the peasants as mercilessly as ever Sclavs were oppressed. The Slovaks say the Poles are treacherous, unpatriotic, and unreliable; in Austro-Hungary they betray their Sclavic brethren by siding with the Germans in political conflicts to defeat measures deemed beneficial to Sclavic interests in the empire.

Thus there is constant antagonism between the Poles and the Letts and between these and the other Sclavs. It has its effect upon the political, social and industrial life of the people. In politics, the Letto-Sclavs seldom combine their forces and keen politicians aim to nullify the "foreigners" votes by dividing the house against itself. When Poles and Letts meet in saloons or at social gatherings, they fight with the instinct of savages. Lithuanian laborers will not work with Poles, and a Pole will not labor for a Lithuanian. These antagonisms and prejudices injure none as they do the Sclavs themselves. They interfere with their industrial efficiency, hinder their social advancement, and deprive them of the political influence they could exert if they were a unit in municipal or county elections. The interests of the Letto-Sclavs in the coal fields are identical and if they manifested the same spirit of communistic activity here as is known to exist in Slav communities in the fatherland, there is little they could not effect.

Their co-operation in the miners' union may be cited as conflicting with this view. It is explained by the Slav's dominating sentiment for higher wages; by the organization of locals along racial lines; and by the fact that the affairs of the union are in the hands of English-speaking officials.

*The Saloons
of the Slav
Communities.*

The number of saloons in the hands of Letto-Sclavs is surprising and increases annually. Sclavs generally live in colonies in mining towns which can be known by the number of saloons therein. All Sclavs drink. Tem-

perance organizations are pooh-poohed by the people. A few Slavs occasionally pledge themselves to total abstinence for three or six months, but these generally count the days when the fast will come to an end. The Slav never has a good time unless there is plenty of beer and whiskey flowing. A Polish marriage was celebrated a few weeks ago in one of the homes at Mahanoy City. The neighbors watched the wagons bringing provisions and drink into the home, and the general remark was, "See the amount of drink carried in." A wholesale liquor merchant told me that it was nothing unusual for a young Slav to spend from \$30 to \$40 on drink during the marriage festivities. Baptisms are celebrated after the same fashion. When the "Kum" assembles, intoxicants form an essential part of the festivities of the occasion. At the close of each day, the "growler" is rushed by the married Slav, while the young bachelors frequent saloons where many

of them spend their winter evenings playing cards and drinking. After payday the empty kegs in mining patches are many. The Slav does not know how to enjoy himself save by getting drunk; he does not know how to show kindness to his friends save by making them drink.

Saloon-keeping is a stepping-stone whereby the enterprising can get out of the mines. Breweries also find it to their interest to set up saloons for popular Slavs in order to increase the sale of their product. English-speaking saloon-keepers, unable to stand the stress of competition, sell out to these people, and a Pole or a Lett will pay a higher price for fixtures and good-will than an English-speaking buyer. Hence the saloon business is rapidly passing into the hands of the Slavs of these coal fields. They spend more hours behind the bar than the English-speaking saloon-keepers, they spend less on help, and they are satisfied with smaller profits. Under these con-



ADOPTED OF AMERICA.

ditions it is not surprising that many young Slavs, having no family ties and no place wherein to spend their leisure time, nightly frequent saloons as their only resort for diversion and association. The Slav in his fatherland is predisposed to intemperance, but on new soil, where wages are high and social restraints few, where the froward meet and the baser passions are let loose, where a band of shrewd men trade on the weaknesses of their fellows and the restrictions of paternalism are unknown, the Slav's love for intoxicants passes all bounds and the ruin wrought among them is great.

The remedy cannot come from the Slav himself. It must come partly from legislation and partly from personal effort. The brewers should be prohibited from setting up retail houses; the number of licenses issued should be restricted to one for every 500 or 750 inhabitants; the law against unlicensed places should be more rigidly enforced, and a place should be provided for young Slavs where they can find social enjoyment and amusement free from the temptations of the saloon.

*Needs
of the
Home Life.*

The home life of the Slav needs amelioration. To be sure, young Slavs—both male and female—are quick to copy American fashions. A servant girl, who a year ago came to the — hotel, was dressed most wretchedly; last summer, she paid \$10 for a hat, \$6 for a silk waist; and another paid \$12 for a gown. In the town of Shenandoah, Slav young men are as well dressed as any among the mining class. Slav merchant tailors are settling in our towns each year in larger numbers and are doing a flourishing business. But the homes from which these young people come are very sparingly furnished, and their seniors spend little on clothing. A great many Slavs spend almost nothing on underwear; their outer garments are threadbare and faded; the houses they rent are often rickety and dirty, and the environment is far from healthful. Many Slavs wear no overcoats; their homes have no carpets and the furniture is strictly for daily use. Many of them throw the suds, dish-water, etc., in front of the door, and rather than pay

eight or ten dollars for the month's rent, the Slav will divide the hearth with a friend or take in boarders.

The pressure of increased wants must be brought to bear upon the Slav family. The wants felt by the young Slav show a healthy growth, but the middle-aged and elderly are swayed by penuriousness. They want either to save money or to spend it on intoxicants. The margin between their real wants and felt wants in clothing, rent and household furniture is very slight, and not until they are educated to place more value on an overcoat than "bock," on comfortable homes than beer dens, on good food than poor whiskey, will there be hope of their social advancement. The pressure will come from the young people. As these girls and boys come to womanhood and manhood they will, as did the descendants of the Irish and the Welsh, demand better clothes, richer food and larger comforts in the home.

There is also in these coal fields, an excellent opportunity for a building and loan association, managed not for money making, but to give a helping hand to the "foreigners." The ones now in the field wrong the poor and defraud the unfortunate. Coal companies in the northern and southern districts are developing new territories, and the next decade will see populous mining villages rising around these new openings. In some localities, speculators, by the favor of corporations, are selling lots and making money. Would it not be better for coal companies to sell the lots to their employes at prices that would be an inducement to these men to build homes and raise families? That would be good seed sown that would bring forth a hundredfold. The man who owns a house and lot is a good employe. It would also pay to aid these people to put up houses. It does not pay to profit both by a man's production and his consumption. Employer and employe are alike in their make-up. Each is anxious to increase in riches. If employes find every opportunity to do so cut off, a harvest of discontent will follow. Money can make men as well as destroy them.

The question of sanitation is one of example, instruction and official vigilance.

In many of our towns this trinity is wanting. Few know the laws of domestic hygiene, fewer still are the men ready to comply with them and our health officers are politicians. The Slavs are physically strong and can flourish in an environment that would be fatal to more sensitive organisms. But infant mortality is high. Sixty per cent of the deaths in Shenandoah and Mahanoy City are of children under five years of age. It is a criminal waste and largely due to ignorance. What we need are intelligent and sympathetic teachers to inform mothers and daughters that uncleanliness is barbarism, that filth is fatal, that civilization means the art of making life wholesome, rich and sweet. This can be done by a system of scientific instruction, which, after all, is the only salvation for the evils of life.

III.
*Response
to Culture.*

In scientific instruction lies our real hope of redemption. It is not true that the Slav is only amenable to the penal code. Young Slavs have a thirst for instruction equal to that of the youth of any nation in these coal fields. Bring the light of scientific knowledge to these people and none will make better use of it.

Kindergartens should be established among them. Slavs homes are full of children, the streets in Slav quarters resound with the merry shout of children, Slav priests are busy erecting parochial schools for the children. Into these colonies kindergartens should come. Slav mothers who have four or five children under six years of age, would welcome any trustworthy agency that would relieve them. Suppose these children are taken out of an overcrowded home and from an overworked mother for three hours a day, and are taught the value of soap and water, of clean garments and neatness, of the virtues of honor and patriotism, would not that home feel a reflex action both wholesome and elevating? A wise and intelligent kindergarten teacher soon becomes the friend and adviser of mothers. Both by precept and example, she leads mother and child to an appreciation of better things. Good work is done along these lines in some communities. We need it in all.

Parochial Schools. The public school is doing noble work in the anthracite communities. Our admiration for the public school system is never so high as when its influence upon the Slav children is studied. Wherever they come under its influence, they respond with an alacrity second to that of none of the descendants of immigrants into the coal field. A Polish father spoke in his native tongue to his son of sixteen years. The boy answered: "Father, I'm no Hunk." He was one of our public schoolboys and his sentiments are typical of the average Slav youth educated in the public schools. They are no "Hunks;" they are "Americans."

The Slav priests with commendable zeal feel that their people need the blessings of the church. They believe the perils of the young in a strange country are great and that they should be fortified by religious instruction. The restraints which religion imposes upon the excesses of frail humanity are at no time more needed than when immigrants settle in a new country. For these reasons, the priests build parochial school-houses. Some of these do not teach the English branches for the reason that they cannot get teachers capable of imparting to the children the instruction of the church, a knowledge of their mother tongue and of English also. Under this difficulty, they strike a compromise—they keep the children in the parochial schools for three or four years and then send them to the public schools.

*The
Public Schools.*

In Slav quarters there is inevitably a conflict of interests between the public and parochial schools, but, after close study of the problem, I feel that it will in time adjust itself. The public school is admirably able to take care of its interests, and the practical Slav will soon insist that the parochial school must give his child a secular training equal to that offered in the public school. The Slav parochial schools will soon feel a pressure similar to that felt by the Irish parochial schools—they must raise their standard of efficiency if they wish to survive.

Many intelligent Slavs, appreciative of the advantages of public school instruction, send their children to the public in-

stitution rather than in parochial schools. Take the following figures of the schools in the First ward in Mahanoy City, where the rooms are so crowded that pupils entering the grammar grades must be sent to the Second ward school building. In the two buildings we have some four hundred and fifty scholars between six and ten years. In the four primary grades the following were the percentages of Slav children in seven rooms: .76, .61, .57, .45, .47, .41, .39. Taking the average of the two buildings, I found fifty-five per cent of Slav parentage. Thus it cannot be said that Slavs keep their children out of the public school. A less thorough examination of the primary grades in the schools in Shenandoah, Mt. Carmel, Nanticoke, Plymouth and Olyphant convinced me that the same is true of these towns in wards where Slavs live.

*The Ambition
of the
Young Men.*

The young Slav bachelor, in his ambitions and difficulties, appeals to every patriotic American. When a school was recently opened by private funds in one of our towns, sixty young Slavs came in anxious to learn the English language. The founder was hardly able to meet their requirements for the want of a suitable teacher. When a group applied for admittance to the night schools of one of our towns, they were told that the law only provided for scholars under twenty-one years of age.

This ambition of the young Slav should be met. A miserable attempt has been made to publish a guide to these men who are anxious to learn the English language. A child of ten can correct the blunders, and the pronunciation given is wholly misleading. Every young Slav anxious and willing to learn the English language should, from patriotic motives, be afforded an opportunity to do so. How can such men come into knowledge of and sympathy with our institutions unless they are given an opportunity to learn the language in which our literature and laws are written and our elections and courts are conducted? They come to us in the strength of manhood when their productive capacity is greatest. Their rearing has cost nothing to the state. Is it too

much to expect the state to furnish means whereby Slavs could learn the language of their adopted country? If the state fails us, the school buildings of every community wherein Slavs reside should be available for this purpose, and patriotic men should be willing to aid by giving time and money for the work.

The Slav with all his failings is an efficient mine employé, and his social and educational needs deserve attention. Give him a place where he can find amusement and association besides the saloon; give him cheap land free from the touch of speculators; institute a stock company to aid these people in building homes; establish kindergartens and give young Slavs opportunities to learn the English language, and soon these communities will equal any industrial center in patriotic ardor and amenability to law and order.

The capitalists who own these mines are absentees. In mining towns there are none save employés, officials and the usual percentage of business and professional men. The men who own the mines and mining plants give very little for the social, educational and moral well-being of the people. The Colorado Fuel and Iron Company is doing something besides developing the mineral resources of that state. It supports kindergartens in twelve mining camps; furnishes teachers who teach children sewing, cooking, care of home; provides for lectures, libraries, club-houses, entertainments, etc. It is a tribute paid by patriotic captains of industry to the future manhood and womanhood of our country. The late Abram S. Hewitt once had a dream that something of the same nature ought to be done for the anthracite regions and suggested an appropriation of a cent or two on every ton of coal sent to market for this purpose. Nothing was ever done. Here and there persons, recently awakened to a sense of the great need of such work, have instituted some measure of reform so that a few lights are now burning, but their chief service is to show the dense darkness that is around us. The work demands the co-operative action, along scientific lines, of enlightened patriots, and the cost of this war of light against darkness could well be borne by wealth extracted from these mountains.

Some Industrial Effects of Slav Immigration

Frank Julian Warne

Author of The Slav Invasion and The Mine Workers

Prior to the inauguration of the strike of the anthracite mine workers in 1902, the writer was a witness to an eviction scene in one of the mining "patches." A "patch" in the hard coal fields of Pennsylvania is a small group of houses situated near a colliery, and used as residences by the mine employes. The houses in this instance had been occupied up to the time of the eviction by members of English-speaking races. They were in arrears for rent, and their belongings were being put out upon the public highway by the constable and his deputies.

One particular house had been the home of the families of a Scotchman and his son. These two men, with their wives, and the three small children of the younger, occupied the four rooms—two on the first floor and two on the second. Of the seven members of the household the two men were the only wage-earners. All their effects on this eviction day were piled along the highway—a bureau, "straw ticks," a stove, several chairs, a rag carpet or two, with here and there a lithograph scattered incongruously among boxes, kitchen utensils and the separated parts of beds. These and other belongings were such in quantity and cumbersomeness as to make necessary the employment of a wagon, with horse and driver, to remove them. This description would apply as well to the scenes presented at the other miners' houses in this particular "patch" on this eviction day.

A week or so later I was again at this mining "patch." Into the houses unwillingly vacated by the English-speaking mine workers, representatives of the Slav races were moving. They came not along the highway, with their belongings in wagons, but by trail across the mountain from the railway station at Hazleton, with their household effects in blanketed bundles and trunk-like boxes slung across their backs. The women, of whom there were but few, carried with seeming ease huge bundles, one on top of the head and one under each arm, and like the

men, represented a beast-of-burden adaptability to the most exacting physical labor under pressure from hard circumstances. Eight men and one woman took up their quarters in the particular house in which the families of the two English-speaking mine employes had lived.

The cooking utensils of the newcomers were of the barest in quantity and quality. They had neither chairs nor bureaus. Their meagre supply of clothing was all but limited to the garments they wore. "Straw ticks" and beds were conspicuous by their absence, the new occupants being content with rolling themselves in blankets and sleeping upon the uncarpeted floor.

Thus, in the concrete, is illustrated the meaning of the Slav invasion of the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania, a phenomenon which has been going on, unobserved by most of us, for the past quarter of a century and more.

Previous to the coming of these alien races, the English, Welsh, Irish, Scotch, Germans, Canadians, with the native Americans, formed the mining population of the hard coal fields and dominated the labor supply of the anthracite industry. Beginning about 1875, the Slav and Italian invasion swept into the coal fields, bringing with it a group of races wholly foreign to those already dominant there, not only ethnically but in habits and customs, language and institutions. The Pole, the Slovak, the Ruthenian, the Bohemian, the Magyar, the Lithuanian, the Italian, and like nationalities, crowded into the mining settlements, precipitating new factors into the already complicated industrial situation and making intensely acute the problem of race assimilation. Briefly, down to 1900 the most striking effect of this invasion was the migration in large numbers of members of the English-speaking nationalities, not only from the anthracite industry itself, but from that section of Pennsylvania.

Immigrants from Poland, Austria, Russia, Hungary and Italy in the eight hard coal producing counties increased

from 1,925 in 1880 to 43,007 in 1890 and to 89,328 in 1900. The English-speaking foreign born—those from Ireland, Germany, Scotland, England and Wales—in the anthracite region increased from 102,421 in 1880 to 123,636 in 1890; by 1900 they had decreased to 100,269. At the same time the total foreign born increased from 108,827 in 1880 to 170,582 in 1890 and to 193,692 in 1900. In brief, the English-speaking races, who composed nearly 94 per cent of the total foreign born in the eight hard coal producing counties in 1880, formed less than 73 per cent in 1890, and no more than 52 per cent in 1900. From less than 2 per cent of the total foreign born in 1880, the Central European races increased to over 25 per cent in 1890 and to over 46 per cent in 1900.

This tendency of the Slav races to increase and of the English-speaking nationalities to decrease in the anthracite industry, is even more clearly shown in statistics of employés of the coal mining companies. The foreign-born Slav and Italian workers in and about the mines of the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company—the largest single employer of mine labor in the lower or Schuylkill field—increased from 5,839 in 1890 to 9,521 in 1901. The foreign-born English-speaking employés decreased from 14,176 to 1,152 during the eleven years. For the same period, the employés grouped as “born in America”—for the most part descendants of English-speaking immigrants doing the easiest work in and around the mines—increased from 4,719 in 1890 to 15,627 in 1901.

The movement of the Slavs into and of the English-speaking race out of the hard coal industry is distinctly traceable also according to the coal fields, being first marked in the Schuylkill field, then in the middle or Lehigh field, and lastly in the northern or Wyoming field.

Conflict in Standards of Living.

This remarkable and sudden change in the racial composition of the anthracite mine laborers has been the result of marked differences in the standards of living of the Slav and Italian and English-speaking mine workers—

differences which are very clear to those who have observed closely at first hand this industrial phenomenon. Specific illustrations are on record in nearly every “company” store in the family grocery bills of these newcomers and of the English-speaking mine employés. The differences are also indicated in the fact that the English-speaking mine worker has usually been married and has had children; the incoming Slav, generally speaking, has neither wife nor children. He has thus been free from the family outlay and from the necessity of having a wage income sufficient to meet the expense these goodly possessions entail. Unlike the English-speaking miner, the Slav has not had the parents’ cost of sending his children to the public school; he has not had the property-owners’ tax contribution to meet; he has not had the male citizen’s expense of voting, for the individual’s cost of such political privileges, where they have been exercised by the Slav, has usually been met by the political faction which hoped to profit by the Slav’s use of suffrage. In church contributions, in insurance against injuries and death while at work in the mines, in the dues of beneficial societies, and in the cost of like social and industrial activities, the Slav has not had as great an expense as the English-speaking nationalities in the mines. / All these represent the money cost to the individual of civic responsibilities, the proper exercise of which is of incalculable benefit to a community. For our particular purpose, they indicate, also, some of the sources of money—cost to the English-speaking mine employé which enter into determining his standard of living and which he can meet only by the sale of his labor. The incoming Slav has been practically free from the necessity of meeting these and other expenses: his standard of living has been much lower in cost than what the English-speaking mine worker has been compelled to meet. In consequence, two distinctly marked groups of labor bearing different prices have competed in practically the same market for the sale of their labor.

It is an economic commonplace that where two commodities are offered for



MINERS AT THE HEAD OF A SHAFT.

sale, other things being equal, the consumer chooses the one bearing the lower price. In the anthracite industry, the consumers of mine labor were the railroad mining companies. With an oversupply of labor almost daily offered for sale, they purchased that of the Slav and Italian, because it was the cheaper. It was not because of this alone, their lower standard of living, but also because they plied their picks in more dangerous places, worked thinner seams, and put up with conditions of employment which the English-speaking mine workers would not brook. In consequence, the older nationalities began to be forced out of the industry, and the migration already referred to resulted. It was inevitable that the English-speaking mine workers who desired to remain in the industry were compelled to do one of two things: either sell their labor for the price this new competition set, or compel the Slav and Italian to work for a wage—to sell his labor for a price—sufficient to support the higher standard of living. The former, as we have seen, was

the tendency down to 1900; but by the strike of that year, and much more so by that of 1902, this competition has been brought under the control of the English-speaking miner. How long this condition is to remain is likely to be definitely settled in 1906, when the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission terminates.

*The Task of
the United
Mine Workers.*

In the struggle of 1900, the United Mine Workers of America had the greatest difficulty in prevailing upon the Slav and Italian to "join the union." Up to this time racial antipathies, social distinctions, language, etc., were among the strong barriers between the English-speaking and non-English-speaking groups which prevented unity of action. These obstacles were overcome finally by the union, by securing as industrial leaders of these races, men of their own nationality who could speak English. Through the support of the Slav and Italian, the strike of 1900 brought to all mine workers an increase in wages and a mitigation of some of the hard

conditions of employment. The Slav's industrial self-interest being thus brought home to him, in the strike of 1902 he made the "best" striker. In this way and so far, the United Mine Workers have controlled competition to the advantage of all mine labor in the hard coal fields.

For the twenty-five years down to 1900, the racial forces in opposition to assimilation between the Slav and English-speaking nationalities in the anthracite industry were dominant. But the industrial disturbances of 1900 and 1902 have put into operation new and different forces, or rather they have directed the social forces into a different channel. On the broad ground of industrial self-interest, racial ties are being broken down, largely through the instrumentality of the United Mine Workers of America. The English-speaking races have established what is practically a minimum wage in most of the occupations about the collieries, and by so doing are the sooner bringing the Slav up to a higher standard of living. In consequence, assimilation between the English-speaking and Slav races will not be such a remote possibility as formerly. With a higher wage and better conditions of employment, there are indications that the Slav races and their descendants are responding with alacrity to the influences tending toward conformity to American industrial conditions. They are, in general, frugal, industrious, peaceable, and for the most part possess qualities of character which will in time and under proper conditions make them a valuable addition to American citizenship. The present problem in the coal fields is to bring favorable influences to bear upon them.

This small geographical area in northeastern Pennsylvania, containing twenty-six different nationalities with their different languages and customs and traditions and habits of thought and action—a heterogeneous mass of races in the course of assimilation—presents one of the most remarkable social phenomena of our time. From its progress much of value should be learned to aid in the greater problem yet to be faced.

*The Significance
of the
Anthracite
Situation.*

Not only, as has been shown, was this immigration of cheaper labor from European countries one of the principal operating causes which gave rise to the coal miners' strikes in 1900 and 1902, but it had much to do in bringing about the strike of the steel workers in 1901, that of the textile workers in 1903 and that of the meat handlers at Chicago in 1904. All these strikes centered about the unskilled occupations in the different industries—the very occupations toward which the competition of Slav and Italian was directed by virtue of their being unskilled workmen. They were indications of a widespread conflict waged by immigrants to secure a foothold in American industries. The movement is one which continues to furnish a serious menace to our industrial stability.

Slav immigration would not be the serious problem that it is to-day if its distribution had been intelligently effected. It has become an acute problem in many sections primarily because the distribution of its elements has been neglected. Salvation now must be in a reliance upon American institutions to assimilate this great influx of aliens. That this task is to test those institutions very near to their breaking point is clear to all observers of industrial and social conditions.

Experience, thus far, should teach the necessity for immediate and well-organized action looking toward directing at least a portion of this immigration stream into those sections of the country—into the South for example—where it is most needed, instead of permitting it to follow the haphazard channel of its own making into the large industrial centers where its elements congregate in "foreign quarters" and give rise to municipal and other problems whose tendencies are working serious injury to our communities. Already some of the southern railroads have undertaken this task, but it must be planned on a much larger scale and be supported much more comprehensively than there is now any evidence of, if we are to hope for a solution of some of the more important problems arising out of immigration.

Slavs in the Bituminous Mines of Illinois

John R. Commons

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The special significance of a paper on the Slavs in the bituminous mines of Illinois is found in the effect on them of the mine workers' union. Practically all of the Slavs in Illinois, outside of Cook county, are at work in or about the mines, as very few of them are employed on railway and other kinds of construction which attract the Italians. Of the thirty-seven thousand mine workers in Illinois, about sixty per cent are foreign-born, and of this sixty per cent, about one-fourth are Slavs and Lithuanians. The four or five divisions of the Slavs exceed in number any other nationality of the foreign-born, the Italians coming next, to the number of three thousand. Among these, the Slavs predominate in the order Poles, Slovaks, and Bohemians, while the Lithuanians number less than a thousand. The great majority of them have entered this field since 1894, their introduction at that time being brought about through the general strike of the American and West-European miners. The strike ended in a complete defeat of the improvised union of the time, and as a result, the Slavs and the Italians have become in certain districts the predominating elements.

The circumstances of their immigration cannot be understood without a word on the characteristics of the mining industry in the state of Illinois. The northern field was the first in development, but it had the disadvantage of exceedingly thin veins of coal, a seam of forty inches being a prevailing depth. The southern field, on the other hand, is characterized by veins of six to ten feet in thickness. Owing to the greater facility of mining in the southern field, the introduction of machinery and the thickness of the seam, the competition of coal in the markets had become so serious that many mines in the northern field were reduced to two or three months' work in the year, and even at prices per ton for mining double the prices in the southern field, the miners were unable to earn similar wages. On this account the northern field has been the source of labor agitation, and the prominent

leaders of the mine workers' union, both in state and national fields, have had their training in that section. It was consequently into this field that the majority of the Slav and Italian immigrants were brought by the operators, as is plainly shown by the statistics compiled by the Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics, showing that in the first, second and fourth mining districts of the state the percentages of foreign-born miners are respectively 89 per cent, 72 per cent and 62 per cent; whereas in the other parts of the state, the highest proportion is 51 per cent, and in the seventh, the most southerly district, only 20 per cent are foreign-born.

This distribution of the Slavs, who, with the Italians, constitute the bulk of these large percentages of foreign-born, applies not only to districts throughout the state, but also to working places within the mines. For it is the Slav and the Italian who are willing to take the places where the difficulties of mining are greatest, and consequently the output and earnings of the miner are least. The American and West-European stock tend to distribute themselves in the better districts of the state and to keep the better paying positions within each mine.

After the strike of 1894, notwithstanding a remarkable decrease in wages, there was practically no improvement in the mining business for three years. The conditions, not only of the English speaking miners, but even of the Slavs and Italians, became so oppressive that in 1897, when the strike was called by the remnant of the former union, practically every miner and mine-worker in the state, including Slav and Italian, laid down his tools. The union entered the strike with no treasury and only a few hundred members, and at the end of four months won a complete victory and a general increase in wages, together with the eight-hour working day. The organization in Illinois is much stronger than in other parts of the bituminous field, mainly because the mine workers in this state held out at least a month longer than those of the other states of the com-

petitive field, and thereby secured terms in the final settlement with the operators much more to their advantage than those secured in the other states. Since the success of the strike in 1897, the mine workers' union has made annual agreements with the operators, the terms regarding both wages and conditions of work being most minutely described.

Attitude of English-speaking Miners to Slavs. The English-speaking miners universally show an inclination to keep Slavs and Italians from coming into the mines, and their immigration has been very slight since 1897. Practically the only way in which the Slav coming from the old country can now get employment as a miner is through the intervention of a relative or friend, who agrees to be responsible for him. The state law requires two men to work together in a "room," and the miners' union requires them to share their earnings equally. Consequently, a new miner who wants work must find an old miner who will teach him and share with him. This naturally is not easy to do. Furthermore, he must serve a year's apprenticeship above ground as a laborer before going below. This applies to miners proper who are paid by the ton. A different restriction exists for "mine workers" who are paid by the day, to be mentioned below.

The union at first established an initiation fee of fifty dollars, which practically excluded all newcomers. Owing to the strenuous opposition of the operators in their annual conferences, this initiation fee was reduced to ten dollars, at which figure it now stands. At the same time, the agreements distinctly provide for the open shop, the employer being given the right to hire new men not members of the organization, provided he does not discriminate against union men. However, on account of the high minimum wage for day labor which the union secured and has been able most effectually to enforce, it is not to the interest of the operator to employ fresh and inexperienced men, provided older employes are on the ground. The significance of the minimum wage will be seen in the fact that whereas for common labor prior to the strike of 1897, the rate of

pay for ten hours' work had been reduced as low as \$1.40, the union gradually increased the minimum rate for all day labor employed above ground to \$2.02½ in 1903, although a reduction was accepted in 1904, bringing it to \$1.91 for eight hours' work. For underground work, the minimum was increased until it stood at \$2.56 in 1903, but was reduced in 1904 to \$2.23 for eight hours' work. With such a high minimum, notwithstanding the open shop privilege, the employer has little inducement to take on new men.

The high minimum has also an important effect on the employment of boys, and the attitude of the Italian and Slav toward the public school system. At such rates of pay, the employer is not inclined to take boys into the mines; in fact, they secure their employment after they reach the age of sixteen mainly through the responsibility which their fathers and brothers assume on their part. Owing to the complete exclusion of boys from the mines in any capacity whatever, there has been a remarkable increase in school attendance of children of foreigners, who otherwise would be found at work in order to help out the family income. The Slavs are beginning to take an interest in the public school system, several instances being known where representatives of this race, as well as of the Italian, have been elected to the school boards. This fact, however, should not be made too much of, since their they reach the age of sixteen mainly owing to the effort of Americans, business men and mine superintendents, to invite and urge Slavs and Italians to accept such representation on these boards. The object, of course, is to interest foreigners in the school system, but the interest must be cultivated from without and does not spring voluntarily from the Slavs themselves. In many cases it is a difficult matter to secure a Slav or Italian who will accept such a position.

Schools, Unions and the Slavs. The Italian shows more intelligence and appreciation of his position in the union than does the Slav. The policy of the mine workers' union is to distribute the offices among the different nationalities in order to have interpre-

ters at their meetings, and agents to keep the several nationalities in line. Undoubtedly, the greatest difficulty encountered in the mining region at the present time under the system of agreements with the operators is the presence in such large numbers of non-English speaking miners and mine workers. The enforcement of the interstate and state agreements is a matter of difficulty, sometimes on account of dishonesty of the interpreter, and often on account of his inefficiency, and this is especially serious in the northern fields where the unions are controlled by the Slavs and Italians. There have been several local strikes and violations of the agreement on account of this barrier of language, and there is no one object which appeals more to the operators of the state than that of instruction in English. This object, of course, did not appeal to them prior to the organization of the mine workers and the establishment of the agreement system, but now that they have for eight years been running their mines in co-operation with the union, they find it necessary to assist the latter in bringing forward its more conservative and intelligent members, and to raise the general level of intelligence of the mass. This accounts for the interest which they show in the public school system, and there is no subject of which the operators speak with greater pride than of the high grade of schools in the mining districts. Frequently, a superintendent or other officer of a company will be found on the school board in company with a Slav, an Italian and representatives of other nationalities. The parochial schools, which are attended by a majority of the Slav children, are of an unusually high order, and not only is the English language taught in all of them, but English may be said to be the language of the parochial schools.

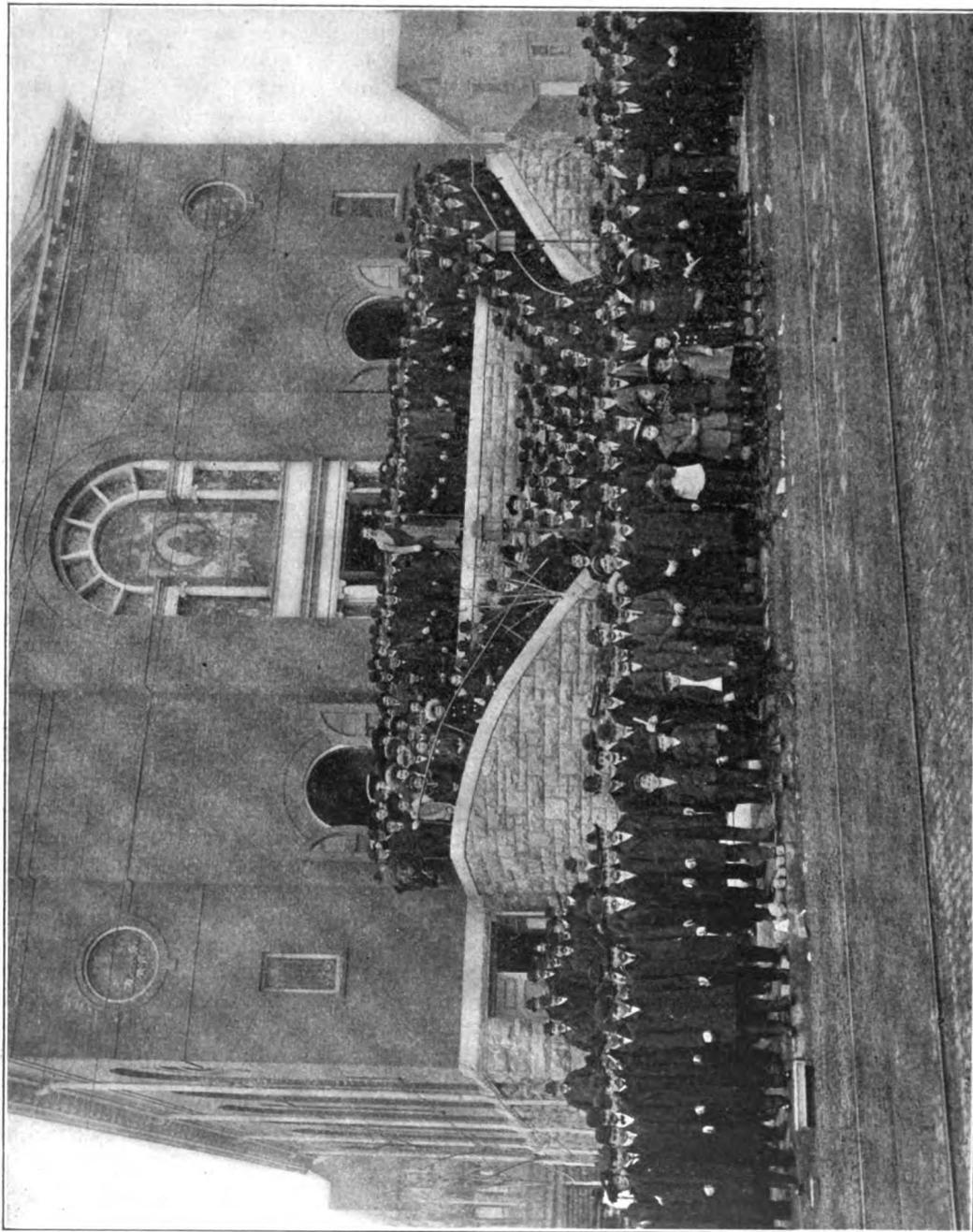
The fact which interests the observer most of all is the marvelous thrift of the Slavs. Notwithstanding the prevalence of the use of intoxicants among them, as well as other nationalities, large numbers have good bank accounts, and the movement

towards purchasing homes has become, perhaps, the most noticeable feature of mining communities. In many cases, company houses have been sold to employes, and often it happens that a Slav miner is able to pay cash of six hundred to a thousand dollars for his house. These houses are of course not elaborate, but there are none so inferior as those which one sees in the southern anthracite fields. It is agreed on all sides that the stability of employment which has prevailed since 1897 has been the main incentive of this movement towards home proprietorship.

*Special Problems
of the
Illinois Mining
Districts.*

Compared with the situation of the Slavs in the cities, that of those living in the mining districts of Illinois is idyllic. Their houses, though small, are not overcrowded, as they are in Chicago, each has its garden plot, and the hills and woods are near. Notwithstanding their work is underground, ventilation is always good, temperature is even the year round, hours are short, and in addition the union has a way of taking holidays for all nationalities whenever a particular nationality has a saint's day.

Of course, the isolation of the mining camp brings its special problems, a peculiar one being the absence of the wider and higher educational opportunities. The situation is ripe for a large movement of an educational kind, based on instruction in English with the addition thereto of manual training and household economics for the young people, and centres of amusement and civic education for all. The friendliness of the mining companies and their superintendents towards a movement of this kind would be insured from the start, while the strong organization of the mine workers, reaching every individual, would co-operate if the enterprise were properly launched. There could apparently be no more useful work established through great benefactions like those of Mr. Carnegie than the diffusion throughout the mining district of agencies for these higher activities of American life.



LITHUANIANS LEAVING THEIR CHURCH, SCRANTON, PA.

The Lithuanians in America

A. Kaupas

Scranton, Pa.

The Lithuanians—a nation of over two million—live along both sides of the river Niemen. They occupy the government of Kovna, the greater part of the government of Suvalki, a little less than half of that of Vilna and a small portion of the government of Grodna. There are about one hundred and fifty thousand Lithuanians in Germany (in the northern part of East Prussia), but being of different religion they come in little contact in America with their brethren from Russia, showing more inclination toward their German co-religionists. So the Lithuanians in this article will be those coming from Great or Russian Lithuania.

To the south of the Niemen and adjoining the German frontier live the Zanavyks and Kapses. The first emigrants to the United States were from among them and after them came the Dzuks, who live to the southeast on both sides of Niemen. As this early emigration was directed mainly to the anthracite coal mines in Pennsylvania, the Zanavyk, Kaps and Dzuk elements prevail among the Lithuanians in the northeastern part of that state.

The country to the north of the Niemen, *i. e.*, the government of Kovna, is divided into Lowland (to the west) and Highland (to the east). Only the western part of the Highland has been affected by emigration and that from the Lowland is directed chiefly to the great cities of Chicago, Philadelphia and Boston, also to the bituminous coal fields of West Virginia. This emigration does not date back over twenty years.

The first group of Lithuanians came to New York in 1868—Kapses and Zanavyks driven out from their native country by a famine, then raging in Lithuania. At first they worked on farms around New York, but soon were lured by the agents of the railroad companies into Pennsylvania. At that time the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western was laying its Bloomsburg division and the Philadelphia & Reading was extending its line from Shamokin to Sunbury. The Lithu-

anians came to work on those railroad branches and found themselves near the coal mines. The transition from Danville and Sunbury to Shamokin, Mt. Carmel and other mining towns was easy. Possibly coal operators induced them to take the place of strikers in their mines, for it was a period of frequent strikes in the coal industry. At all events the pioneers of the Lithuanian emigration to America still remember atrocities of the Mollie Maguires and these early reminiscences of a desperate struggle between labor and capital perhaps account for the firm support of the present Mine Workers' Union by the Lithuanians.

It is not improbable that mine owners used their first Lithuanian employés as a means of bringing to the anthracite coal fields more men of the same nationality, for the number of Lithuanian mine workers has steadily, though not rapidly, increased since that time. Another stimulus came with the introduction of compulsory military service in Russia in the early seventies, and about 1875 the ranks of the Lithuanian emigrants to America were greatly augmented by deserters from the army. But still the movement was comparatively small.

In the beginning of the ninth decade, American agricultural products came into sharp competition with those of Russia, causing a large and permanent drop in the prices of Lithuanian rye and wheat. Soon after, Lithuanian flax, heretofore in great demand in Holland and a source of the comparative prosperity of the Lithuanian peasants, ceased to be marketable. The country began to feel hard times and it was then that young unmarried men started an exodus to the larger cities, chiefly to Riga, Libau and St. Petersburg. These cities are still places of transit, where money for transportation to America is earned by many lowlanders.¹ About 1885, the emigration was directed—by the way, by the Jews—to America. Southern

¹ If a Lithuanian to-day has not enough money with which to cross the ocean he often goes to England (London or Liverpool) or Scotland (Glasgow), and from there, after earning a sufficient sum, to the United States.

Lithuanians began to emigrate in great masses to their old friends in the anthracite coal region, and those from Kovna to the cities mentioned. In 1896 commenced the real craze for emigration to America, and it is rather increasing than slackening. At present, many come in order to escape military service, a few—the number is exaggerated—as political refugees, but the majority to avoid poverty in the old country. In the mind of an average inhabitant of Lithuania, America means a veritable Eldorado, in which everybody can be rich, if he is able to work hard; so everybody who thinks himself strong enough to do "hard work" dreams about free and rich America. The poorer classes sell their small estates; some even borrow money from the Jews; still others—and there are many of them—receive the tickets from their American friends and relatives. Many well-to-do peasants come, also, to the New World, some to earn money enough to pay off debts, to build a new house or to buy more land. These generally, when back in Lithuania, find conditions so unattractive that they come back to America never to return to the fatherland. At present the number of the Lithuanians in America probably has reached the two hundred thousand mark.¹

Occupation.

Although nearly all Lithuanians are raised on farms, they strangely enough do not take to tilling of the soil in America. Some Polish colonies in Texas, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin and Nebraska have been successful, but all attempts to found similar colonies for the Lithuanians have proved utter failures. Such a Lithuanian

settlement was started about ten years ago in Prairie County, Arkansas. The place was pompously called "Lietuva" (Lithuania), and persistently advertised in Lithuanian papers. An old Lithuanian priest bought a farm in the settlement and spent his life's savings building a small church. Less than thirty Lithuanians bought tracts of land of from eighty to two hundred acres, and after three years of great hardships and disappointments the "colony" was abandoned. Subsequent attempts of Colonel W. F. Cody ("Buffalo Bill") to induce the Lithuanians to take part in his enterprise in Wyoming, and a movement to establish an agricultural settlement in Wisconsin, were likewise unsuccessful. There are, however, some Lithuanian farmers in Pennsylvania, New Jersey and New England, more in Illinois and Wisconsin.

The Lithuanians, generally speaking, do not like open-air work, preferring employment in mines, factories, foundries and closed shops. In the anthracite coal mines, they are miners and nothing else but miners. In Baltimore, Philadelphia, Brooklyn and Boston a great many are tailors and excellent tailors they are; in fact, there is no Lithuanian settlement in which there is not a Lithuanian of that trade. In the West (Chicago, Kansas City and Omaha) they are employed in packing-houses. They make up a large per cent of the employés of the steel plants in and around Pittsburg and also in South Chicago. In Newark they are hat makers, in Binghamton and Brockton they are in the shoe factories; in New England in the mills, and in the vicinity of Greater New York they are in the sugar and oil refineries. Others work on the railroads in Chicago and on the docks in Cleveland.

The Lithuanians in the Old Country are so used to the Jews that even in the New World the sons of Israel seem to them indispensable. For many of them the Jewish stores are the only places for buying everything, even religious articles. In the early period of emigration, the Jews, especially in Chicago, were men of confidence; the Lithuanians sent money through them, deposited their savings with them, and employed them as interpreters. The only Lithuanians

¹They are distributed chiefly as follows: About 50,000 in the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania; 25,000 in western Pennsylvania and West Virginia (Pittsburg, its vicinity, and various soft coal mines); 10,000 in Philadelphia and Baltimore; 15,000 in Greater New York (almost exclusively in Brooklyn and Long Island City) and vicinity (Jersey City, Elizabeth, Newark, Paterson, Yonkers, etc.); 25,000 in New England (mainly in Boston, Brockton, Lawrence, Worcester, Waterbury, Union City, Hartford, Bridgeport); 10,000 in Ohio and Michigan (principally in Cleveland, Cincinnati, Detroit and Grand Rapids); perhaps 50,000 in Illinois and Wisconsin, the chief center being Chicago, where the Lithuanian population is estimated at 25,000 to 30,000. Spring Valley, Westville, Connellsville, East St. Louis, Waukegan, Ashland, Sheboygan and Milwaukee are other settlements in Illinois and Wisconsin. Several thousand are scattered over Missouri, Kansas, Indian Territory, New Mexico, Montana, Colorado and Washington. The southern states are practically devoid of Lithuanians, and such large Polish centers as Buffalo, Detroit, Milwaukee have but a small number of the people from the shores of Niemen.

that are in New York live among the Jews in the East Side, and several hundred Lithuanians of Chicago work for the Jews, as ragmen. Nevertheless, in some settlements, especially the older ones, Lithuanian merchants are now successfully competing with them. In Scranton, for instance, the Jewish stores are even boycotted by some Lithuanian organizations.

The Lithuanians are not shrewd enough to be successful merchants. Still, in the majority of their settlements are to be found small clothing and notion stores, groceries, and butcher shops conducted by them, and the most secret desire of the average Lithuanian is to earn enough money to open a saloon. This explains

Drunkenness. why one sees so many Lithuanian beer-selling places in Chicago, Shenandoah, Pittston and practically in all other settlements. The saloonkeepers usually possess sufficient knowledge of the English to be tolerable go-betweens in all dealings of their countrymen with English-speaking people, and in many places are the real leaders of the foreign population. They organize societies and congregations (and not without selfish purposes), arrange balls and picnics and direct public opinion. They have proved so meddlesome in all affairs that people have tired of them and in many places do not want to see them at the head of any organization.

This brings us to the most deplorable curse of the Lithuanians in America. They are far from being temperate, though there are few habitual drunkards among them. They seldom come to excesses, but drunkenness generally is not considered a crime or a fault, unless it gets troublesome or injurious to others. A guest is offended if not offered a glass of beer by the host. No wedding or christening is imaginable without intoxicants. In some places whiskey is regularly "washed down" with beer. The success or failure of a ball, picnic, or even church fair, is measured not by attendance, but by the number of emptied kegs of beer. A temperance movement inaugurated in 1893 and another, more vigorous, five years later, failed utterly. With the Lithuanians it seems that more money earned means more beer bought. In

Scranton, for instance, with a Lithuanian population of 3,000, three years ago there were only two Lithuanian saloons; now, notwithstanding the fact that the licenses for liquor traffic have been raised to \$1,100, there are eight saloons, besides fifteen or more so-called "beermen" who sell intoxicants almost exclusively to the Lithuanian houses.

Fortunately, there are welcome indications that the reign of beer in all jollifications is approaching its end. "Socials" with high admission prices and scarcity of drinks are gradually taking the place of "balls" with their plenitude of beer; only limited numbers of the invited guests are in some instances admitted to the weddings in contrast to the old free-to-all system. So the undesirable element is excluded from amusements; and the fairs without beverage, proved successful. Another temperance movement is not yet in sight, but a new spirit is visibly pervading all classes of the Lithuanian population in America, which can be expressed in one short sentence: "Too much beer! too much!"

Relations to Poles. The Lithuanian emigration to America began before the awakening, in 1883, of the national spirit in Lithuania. Naturally at the beginning the Lithuanians lived in intimate relations with the Poles, their co-religionists and nearest neighbors, with whom they had been tied for five hundred years by political union. They built churches in common, and entered the same benevolent societies and otherwise. But now the name of "Polander," instead of "Litwish," occasionally given Lithuanians by some obscure Yankee, is the only reminder of early friendly relations between two nationalities. The separation began in 1884 with the advent of some Lithuanian nationalists to America, was widened by the subsequent unfriendly attitude of the Lithuanian clergy toward Poles and finally, about 1895, became an undeniable fact. At present, the two nationalities have nothing in common.

To the Church. The Lithuanians are generally devout Roman Catholics, though not ecstatic. In this respect they are just the opposite of the Poles. There have been only two or three church

riots in America among them, and these never assumed the proportions of similar disturbances among the Poles. The people of that nationality, if they have a disagreement with their pastor, usually start a new church, even if it be independent. On the contrary, Lithuanians who fall off from the church do not enter any schism or start a new sect; they prefer to be without religion at all. Three attempts to create an "Independent" movement among the Lithuanians have proved a total failure.¹

To this peculiarity of the Lithuanian character perhaps is due the fact that the Lithuanian Freethinkers' Alliance under the leadership of Dr. John Szlupas has many adherents and many more sympathizers.

Factions. As in all nationalities in which religious sentiment plays a larger part in the social life than any other factor, the factions among Lithuanians are based rather on religious notions than on economic, class or intellectual tendencies. There are three great parties among the Lithuanians in America. The Catholic party, represented by congregations; so-called "church societies" and the Lithuanian Roman Catholic Alliance (membership 2,000) are mostly under the leadership of the clergy. In extreme opposition stand the radicals, atheists and socialists, who are represented by the Lithuanian Freethinkers' Alliance. The third, the so-called national party, stands midway, its main tendency apparently being devoid of all religious color with slight leanings toward anti-clericalism and radicalism. This party is represented by the Lithuanian National Alliance (membership 5,000). None of the factions has a clear program of action, unless in the negative sense, *i. e.*, it is more in opposition to the others than in pursuit of any object.

Societies. There are no secret societies among Lithuanians (except the already twice mentioned Freethinkers' Association) and few military organizations, formed during the period

¹ In Boston the members of a church did not like their priest, and being unable to get rid of him, built a new church, but for seven years they stubbornly resisted all tendencies to take a priest independent of the archbishop, and finally, when a clergyman was secured, acceptable both to them and to the church authority, they willingly submitted to the archbishop.

of closer relations with the Poles. The Lithuanians dislike unnecessary pomp and display, and are now even discarding showy caps, scarfs and badges. About forty per cent of the Lithuanians belong to one or another benevolent society. A majority—the "church societies"—require from their members the fulfilment of religious duties; others—the "national societies"—do not pay great attention to the religion of their members. There are two greater organizations, with a total membership of 7,000, the already mentioned alliances, which pay a small benefit to the families of their deceased members. Of purely beneficial societies there are three in America. One prints cheap popular literature, which is distributed among poor Lithuanians gratis. Two are educational, one supported by the clergy and the Catholics, another by the "nationalists," their purpose being to help poor university students, both in America and in Europe. Of strictly charitable societies the Lithuanians have none. Occasionally they make some contribution, chiefly through the papers, for their fellow-countrymen who may be suffering imprisonment and banishment for the Lithuanian cause at the hands of the Russian government. Often they take up among themselves collections for the decent burial of those who have died in poverty, or for the support of unfortunate and destitute families. There is no immigrant house for the Lithuanians in New York, the agitation for such an establishment, instituted in 1896, being dead long ago.

Each faction has its organs. The nationalists control three weeklies, which are pronouncedly anti-clerical and at least two of them are used by socialists and freethinkers for the propagation of socialistic and atheistic ideas. In opposition to them, the Catholics have also three papers, of which only one is controlled and edited by the clergy. In addition to this periodical literature, the freethinkers from time to time publish occasional anti-religious and radical pamphlets, and the "Society of the Love of Fatherland" a series of popular booklets intended to be distributed among the poor in Lithuania. There is also one quarterly, published in the form of a magazine: its tendency is conservative.

*Racial
Characteristics,
Educational and
Social.*

The Lithuanians in America practically have none of higher education in their midst, though some of the clergymen bear the "D's" of philosophy, divinity and laws. There are over sixty Lithuanian clergymen (both Catholic and Lutheran), about ten physicians (three of them women), two or three attorneys-at-law and a score or two of "intelligents," which, in Lithuanian, means persons having some college education. Of the parochial schools the Lithuanians have about ten with small attendance, the bulk of their children going to public schools. Notwithstanding the fact that there are no Lithuanian schools in the old country and private teaching of the native language is strictly forbidden by the Russian government, the majority of the Lithuanians know how to write and nearly all how to read their language.

The standard of living of the newly-come Lithuanians is lower than that of the American workingmen, but certainly is much higher than that of certain of the other recent immigrants. It is an undeniable fact that they are the best dressed people among all immigrants from Central Europe, it being due perhaps to the abundance of tailors among them. Not covetousness or unwise thriftiness, but only poverty prevents the Lithuanians from buying better clothes and daintier dishes and from renting more comfortable houses. Those who come to America to stay here forever, and their children, try in all respects to be equal to their American neighbors.

In American politics they are stalwart Republicans, except when in some locality their countryman is put on another

ticket. Their republicanism is not due to the cognizance of the principles of the party, but solely to their opposition to the Democrats, whom they invariably identify with Irishmen, and the Irish¹ are sincerely disliked by them. There are some socialists among them, probably some two or three hundred, affiliated with the Socialist Labor party.

Since the beginning of Lithuanian immigration to America, five or six of that nationality have been tried for counterfeiting American money, two or three for bigamy, twenty or thirty for murder, more for minor offenses, such as larceny and disorderly conduct. Only five or six have been executed for crimes, among them "Terrible Pete," who with his gang of ten or fifteen desperadoes held the anthracite coal region in terror for fifteen years. The remnants of this gang still make their hand felt in some places.

The Lithuanians, generally, are peaceable people and quarrel only when under the influence of intoxicants; but, unfortunately, they prefer for the most part to have their differences settled by courts, rather than amicably outside. Hence the abundance of petty cases before "squires" and judges, and the wrong idea that the Lithuanians are the most quarrelsome nation in the world. To offset this painful accusation, I would say that there are no Lithuanian tramps in America, no professional thieves or beggars, no cut-throats, but that they are generally law-abiding, good-natured citizens, bringing new and wholesome blood into the veins of American life.

¹ The first foremen over the Lithuanian workmen in this country have been Irish, and the latter generally have the credit for "hooting, abusing and molesting" the new comers.

Notes on the Poles in Baltimore¹

Laura B. Garrett

District Agent Baltimore Charity Organization Society

The Polish people of Baltimore live chiefly in the southern and southeastern

¹ These notes treat only of the Polish Catholics. The Polish Jews live in other sections of the district, and when in need are visited by an agent of the Hebrew Benevolent Society. According to the United States census of 1900 the foreign born Polish population of Baltimore City is given as 2,811, the native born of foreign parentage, 5,525.

parts of the city along the water front, where are the great packing-houses. There are many large, old-fashioned dwellings, which were once lived in by well-to-do citizens, but are now occupied each by six or eight families. A family rents one to three rooms and mercenary landlords

have covered many of the former yard spaces with rear buildings, leaving for each house but a narrow court with a hydrant and closet, which are used in common by the tenants of the whole property. Four-room rear dwellings are frequently occupied by two families.

The more thrifty of the Polish people own much of the property in their neighborhoods. As landlords they are ignorant and grasping. They rent out apartments of one to three rooms for from three to five dollars a month and are indifferent as to the sanitary condition of their

families are taken into the adjacent counties to the large truck farms and south to oyster packing-houses. At these seasons whole blocks in some parts of the district are deserted. Many of the people pay rent for their rooms while they are thus away, but sometimes several families combine and rent one or two rooms in which to store their small stock of furniture.

The houses are cleaner than those occupied by any other group of foreigners among us. The halls are whitewashed once or twice a year, the floors are scrubbed (the tenants in turn doing the



AT THE PACKING HOUSE—A GROUP OF YOUNG FRUIT PACKERS.

property. During the packing seasons, many of these landlords leave the city and it is impossible to trace them, even when closets are overflowing and surrounding courts become saturated with filth.

Many of the people, besides these more ambitious landlords, have bought and are buying their own homes. They make payments by instalment and often do without sufficient nourishment in order to meet payments. One of the large Polish Catholic churches is conducting a building association and the priests are the custodians, not only of this special form of saving, but of money laid by for other purposes. Many of the houses are empty during the seasons of the year when entire

general work), and the rooms are kept wonderfully neat. Even such as can afford to buy more generously get only the necessary pieces of furniture—a few chairs or boxes, a table, a stove, a bed or two, with often no other accommodation furnished for the children to sleep on than the floor. The mattresses are stuffed with straw and once or twice a year the ticks are emptied, washed and then refilled with fresh straw. Those who leave the city for country packing-houses carry their clothing in these ticks. One old woman, whose husband is chronically ill, propped him in a rickety rocker while she emptied the mattress, washed the tick, and filled it with fresh straw. By night she

had him back in bed, clean and comfortable. Neighbors, business men, doctors, teachers, all lay stress on the extreme neatness and cleanliness of the Polish people.

To hang a few cheap prints of religious subjects in elaborate gilt frames on the walls and to arrange some pretty dishes on a shelf are the only attempts at decoration. The Polish people in Baltimore, coming as they do from the peasant class, are very fond of red-birds and many of them have two or three of these brightly colored songsters hanging by their windows. One of the saddest sounds of the

what name he had given to the boss they could not find him. After ineffectual efforts to determine his assumed name, it was realized that the news must wait to be told until he should come home in the evening.

*Fruit Packing
and Canning.*

The men, women, and children are hard workers. The men work as stevedores, on the docks, and on the streets or in the packing-houses. A few are tailors or shoemakers, but hardly any rise to the rank of superintendent or boss. The great field for labor for the women and children



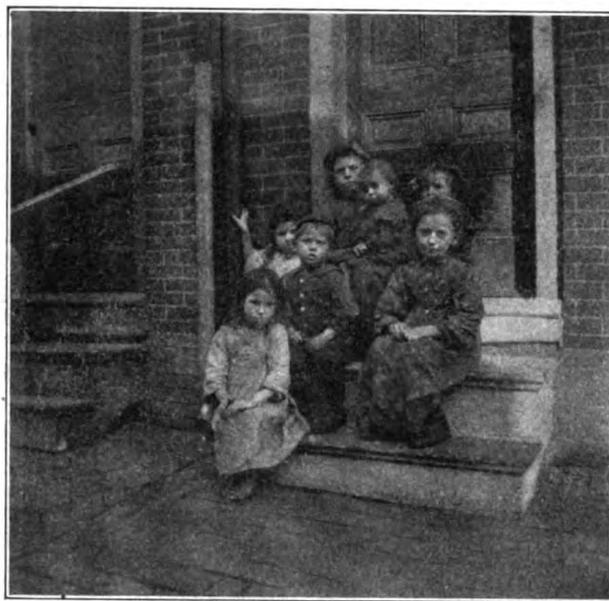
AT THE PACKING HOUSE—WORKERS GETTING FRUIT TO PEEL.

district is the whistle and call of these birds. Every spring they seem to be pleading for fresh air and sunlight and freedom for themselves and for their friends.

As it is difficult for Americans to learn the Polish names, the Poles often assume indiscriminately English names which at different times are varyingly given. One instance of this carelessness came strikingly to our notice. A Polish woman died suddenly and the neighbors rushed to our office to ask us to find her husband. They knew he was working at the City Hall, but as they did not know

is the packing-house. They are eager for the seasons to begin and in crowds rush to the great canning houses from the time the first fruit and vegetables come in the spring until the last are received in the fall. The length of the season varies in different years. In 1904 the season began early in May and continued to the middle of November, with an off-season of three or four weeks in July.

In the packing house the work is done by family groups; the men, women, and older children paring or peeling, the younger children running to bring fresh supplies, to empty the baskets of prepared



ON A POLISH DOORSTEP.

fruit, and to receive the pay. In most of the houses the packers are paid by the hour, in others by the quantity of fruit prepared. Five to ten or twelve cents is paid for a bowl or bushel basket. A child can earn from fifty to eighty-five cents a day, a woman, if expert, two dollars. The hours of work are long and the conditions unsanitary. The peelers start at four or five in the morning and keep at work until the supply of fruit or vegetables is exhausted—often until six in the evening. The packers begin at seven in the morning and work, during rush seasons, until ten or eleven at night. Several of the managers of the packing houses say that the Polish people are the best workers they have ever had. "Even if the whistle is blown at two in the morning they will come and work with no fooling until five or six at night."

During the summer hundreds of these families leave Baltimore for the canning houses in the country. As spring fruits and vegetables ripen, there are great preparations in the district. Large wagon-loads of Poles may be seen on their way to the country. In some are women and children; in others, men; and in still others, loads of provisions—great bags of flour, hams, bacon, etc. The women wear clean calico dresses, great aprons and stiff sunbonnets. The children are

bright and clean and eager to be off. Soon after the return, the hard-earned money is spent, as each year there are to be paid the standing bills of the winter past. Landlord, grocer, and baker each claim a share.

*The Oyster
Beds in Winter.*

During the fall and winter many families go South as oyster shuckers. The traveling expenses are paid, but the work furnished is uncertain and irregular and many drift back before the season is over.

Mr. P——, a shrewd old carpenter of the district, says the Poles are "a great people for work; they work, work, work and then don't know anything to do with the money but hoard it up. They are a clean lot but are great for gambling and the children lie and cheat and steal and the parents like it if they steal anything worth having. The boys are great gamblers and play craps at every corner, and the parents take the money won. One woman recently bought a ton of pea coal. It was dumped on the pavement and as she carried it up the alley, bucket by bucket, the children crowded round and sneaked it off by the single piece, by the handful, by the boxful (little strawberry boxes); even little, toddling babies helped to steal it. Every time the woman appeared, the children retreated to sit on

a neighbor's step. The children are immoral, dishonest and lazy" But Mr. P—— adds, "Not worse than others brought up the same way."

Nearly all the Polish people in Baltimore are either Hebrew or Catholic. There are four Roman Catholic churches in the city, all in the southeastern district. When the writer has been present at high mass in any of these churches, the aisles and the halls have been crowded with men, as well as the body of the church with men, women and children. The congregations are quiet and orderly and neatly dressed; the older women in simple clothing, the younger women and girls in gawdy hats, cheap laces, and jewelry.

Most of the people have dull, heavy faces; the men's show stolid coarseness, the women's resigned indifference. They lack confidence in those with whom they are thrown; even their priests find it difficult to win their confidence. Teachers in the district say the Polish Hebrews are

bright and dirty, the Polish Christians stupid and clean. The parents are careless about sending the children to school. They are entered late in the fall, in October or November, and are removed in May when the packing-houses open for the spring season. Even during the winter months the attendance is irregular. The children in their play are not alert. Their chief amusement seems to be had in hanging around steps or cellar doors, sitting on the curb, dangling their feet in the dirty gutter water, or standing in crowds to watch a funeral or fight. The true spirit of play seems to have been crushed out of even the little ones by the hard conditions under which they live.

These people are independent and a Polish priest who is their wise friend believes that their standard of life is gradually being raised. He holds that his parishoners are not in need of material relief and has been unwilling to have established, in connection with his church, any relief-giving society.

The Slovaks in America

P. V. Rovnianek

Editor Slovak Daily, Pittsburg, Pa.

Of the additions in recent years to the great cosmopolitan population of the United States, that which is constituted of the Slovaks emigrating from northern Hungary is easily one of the first in importance. As yet, few Americans have an adequate conception of the influence which leaders of the people know that they are destined, and that in a very short time, to exert upon the national life and character of this country. During the period of their removal from the old homes to the new—the past two decades—they have made a progress which, considering their condition in Europe, must be admitted, when understood, to be little short of marvelous.

In the conditions under which the Slovaks lived at home are to be found the chief explanation for their settlement in America in large numbers and also assurance that they are a permanent as well as a large and increasing part of the future American citizenship. A Slovak, once settled in this country, in ninety-

nine cases out of a hundred, is here to stay.

The Slovaks inhabit the northern district of Hungary, where they have lived for centuries running back into the mists of tradition. There are good historical, ethnological and linguistic reasons for the belief that they constitute the trunk of the great Slavonic national tree, from which have branched so many of the great Slav nations of Europe, at the head of whom now stands the powerful Russian empire. From a time antedating authentic history, the Slavonians were celebrated as a peaceful and industrious people, fond of agricultural and pastoral life, and such is the leading characteristic of the Slovak, as of the related nationalities of the Slavs, to-day.

The incursions of the Mongul-Huns in the middle ages reduced the Slovaks to a condition of political and social degradation from which they have never recovered, but out of which they are destined to be lifted by the patriotism and

the energy of those of them now settled in the United States and those who are yet to come. Owing mainly to the bravery and the military prowess of the Slovaks, Europe was saved from incursions by Asiatic invaders—Huns, Magyars and Turks—but they themselves fell under the dominion of the Magyars, which has since continued, and within the last half-century has become so complete that the Slovaks may now be said to be absolutely without political rights, and almost without legal or social rights which their rulers are bound to respect. In the subversion of the rights of the Slovaks, however, the Magyars are in a manner meting out punishment to themselves for the centuries of somewhat milder tyranny which they practiced. The resulting emigration has produced an agricultural and financial depression in Hungary which promises to be long continued as there is no means of replacing the peasants who have left the country.

The immigration to this country may be said to have come exclusively from the agricultural class, a class which includes a very large part of the Slovak population of Hungary. Previous to 1882 the immigration had been sporadic, but in that year the people began to come in companies of considerable size and settled in the mining and industrial regions of Pennsylvania. At first there was a disposition among them to return to their native country, but in a little while some decided to stay. Then it was that they began to look around them for opportunities to settle on farms and return to the manner of life which they had led at home. There are now hundreds of Slovak farmers in Pennsylvania, Connecticut and Ohio; and in Minnesota, Arkansas, Virginia and Wisconsin there are colonies of them, where for many miles on every side the land is entirely in their possession. It would scarcely be possible to name a state in the Union where a few Slovaks have not settled and obtained farms which they own, having bought them with money earned previously during the time of their employment in the industrial centers.

Owing to the political persecutions from which they suffered at home, the Slovaks had little opportunity for acquiring education and knowledge of the ways of

civilization. Since they began coming to this country in large numbers their advancement in these respects has been no less remarkable than the improvement in their material condition. This is due largely to the intense religious spirit which prevails among the Slavic people, and to the fact that here they have been able to combine schools with their churches. In every community in which they have settled in considerable numbers, they have started their church congregation and founded their church school where their children are being educated in the English and Slovak languages. In Pennsylvania there are now from 120 to 130 Slovak congregations, some of them very large and of considerable wealth. The people are divided in religious affiliation among four principal denominations: the Roman Catholic, the Greek Catholic (by which is meant that portion of the Greek Catholic church which is united with the Roman Catholic church, but preserves its own liturgy and customs), the Russian Orthodox, and the Lutheran. About one-half the total number of congregations, and perhaps somewhat more than this proportion of the total number of communicants, are Roman Catholics. The Russian and the Lutheran churches have each about ten congregations and the others are Greek Catholics. The missionaries of the Russian church have been very active and considerable numbers have left the Greek to join the Orthodox church. Of late years, too, the Presbyterian and Congregational denominations have been working among the people with churches and missions.

Scarcely second to the influence of the churches has been the influence of the newspapers in the elevation of the condition of the Slovaks in their new home. It required considerable audacity to begin the publication of the first newspaper for circulation among these people in this country. In Hungary they had never read newspapers. They were taught by the Magyar government that newspapers were for the official class only; that the peasants had no business with them. And the government has had means of enforcing its opinion on the subject. So well is it enforced and so well on the other hand do the Slovaks ap-

IN THE MOTHER COUNTRY—A GROUP OF SLOVAK PEASANTS WITH IMPLEMENTS OF HUSBANDRY.



preciate the privilege they have in America which is not accorded them at home, that after less than twenty years of the experiment there are nearly as many newspapers in the Slovak language published in the United States as in Hungary, while the combined circulation of those published there nowhere nearly approaches the total circulation of those in this country.

The first Slovak newspaper published in America, the *Amerikansko Slovenske Noviny* (American Slavonic Gazette) was founded in Pittsburg in 1886 by Jan Slovensky, a teacher in his native country—here a clerk in the office of the Austro-Hungarian consul. Associated with him was Julius J. Wolf, also a teacher. Mr. Slovensky retired in 1892 and the writer became associated with Mr. Wolf in the publishing business. We still conduct the paper founded by Mr. Slovensky and also the only Slovak daily paper published in the world. *The Slovak Daily* is well sustained and is making rapid progress, good evidence that the Slovaks are rapidly attaining a high standard of American citizenship.

There are a dozen or more other Slovak weekly and monthly newspapers thriving in various parts of the country. They have been instrumental to no small extent in causing the establishment of a variety of industrial and business enterprises in the Slovak communities through capital stored up by Slovaks while in the employ of various industrial concerns. The small mercantile establishments among them are almost numberless. They have their butchers and grocers, their clothing stores, their drug stores, and in fact are equipped throughout for supplying their needs from establishments which they can call their own.

In several of the large cities, especially in Philadelphia, New York and Chicago, wire and tinware factories which have been established with Slovak capital and are conducted with Slovak labor are in a fair way to secure the cream of the trade of this kind in the whole country. A peculiar advantage is derived from the fact that for centuries the tinware of Europe was made largely by the Slovaks. In this country, also, electrical designs and other skilled work turned out by

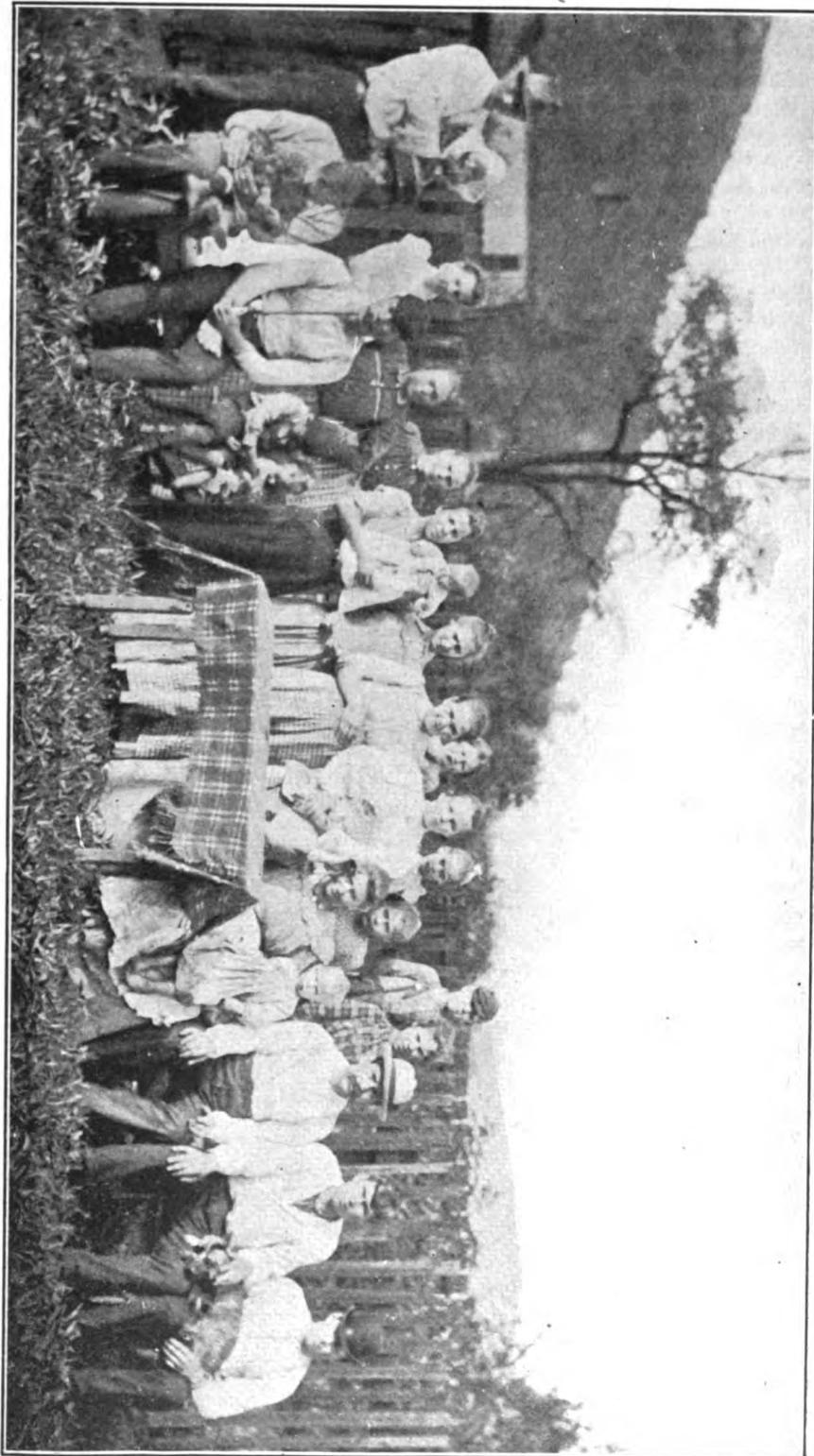
Slovak plants have attained a very high position in the markets.

Organization among Slovaks has played an important rôle, despite the fact that at home the government had not permitted any form of Slovak organization whatever. Here, again, the results of efforts in this direction were most gratifying. In 1890, the writer instituted the National Slavonic Society, the first organization among them, with a membership of 250. It has now over 20,000 active members and 512 lodges. It is primarily a beneficial organization, but it has besides done a work in the education of its members and in inducing them and those who come under their influence to become American citizens. As previously stated, the Slovaks who come to America do not as a rule return to their native country. The society requires its members to obtain naturalization papers after a reasonable time, and through the influence of the membership thousands of others, not members, have become citizens. Other societies have made this a feature of their work, so that directly and indirectly the work of the National Slavonic Society in making American citizens has been a notable one. Since its organization, the society has paid out nearly a million dollars in benefits on account of the death or injury of members, or the death of members' wives. Besides this the local associations have paid out a total of much more than a million dollars in sick benefits.

Further, the society has kept the Slav spirit alive among the immigrants. It is always the first to contribute to Slovak national purposes. It has helped hundreds of Slovak students, both here and in Hungary, giving them allowances sufficient to support them while they were obtaining their education, and has given, also, liberally to the support of national literary and patriotic workers. It has come to the rescue of Slavs in Hungary, who are persecuted by the government on account of their national sentiments, providing the money for the defense at their trials and in cases where they are convicted and imprisoned supporting their families until released.

With this National Slavonic Society as a root, there have originated many other

STOYAK WORKMAN IN THE ADOPTED COUNTRY



societies, among them the First Catholic Union, the Greek Catholic Union, the Evangelical Union, the Pennsylvania Roman and Greek Catholic Union, the Zivena (Ladies' Association), the Presbyterian Calvinistic Union, the Catholic Slovak Ladies' Association, the Sokol (Gymnastic Association), and hundreds of literary, benevolent and political clubs, so that there are now between 100,000 and 125,000 organized Slovaks in the United States.

Finally, these societies have sources of moral benefits, almost incalculable. They have given courage and spread the ideas of American liberty many years in advance of the time when they could have been obtained by other means. When a Slovak now returns to his native country he does not go to cringe to the official classes; usually he becomes a center of independent spirit from whom ideas of liberty reach the minds of many of his down-trodden countrymen. Sometimes he gets into trouble by reason of his independence, but even the persecutions with which the government officials visit him serve to scatter the seeds of liberty which are bound sooner or later to work a great improvement in the condition of the entire Slav population of Hungary. It is in this respect that the influence of the Slavs in this country upon those at home has been most important. They have even financed the industries of their country in some degree, compensating it in a material sense for the withdrawal of their own labor from its agriculture.

Counterparts of the organizations among the Slovaks have been formed among the Slavs of almost every nationality that has representatives in this country—the Poles, Russians, Bohemians, Slovenians (Wends), Croats, Servians and others. Relations of the utmost cordiality exist among them and they are frequently found working together for their mutual improvement and advantage.

The Slovaks in this country have been to some extent hindered in their progress by misunderstandings in the minds of Americans which are gradually being re-

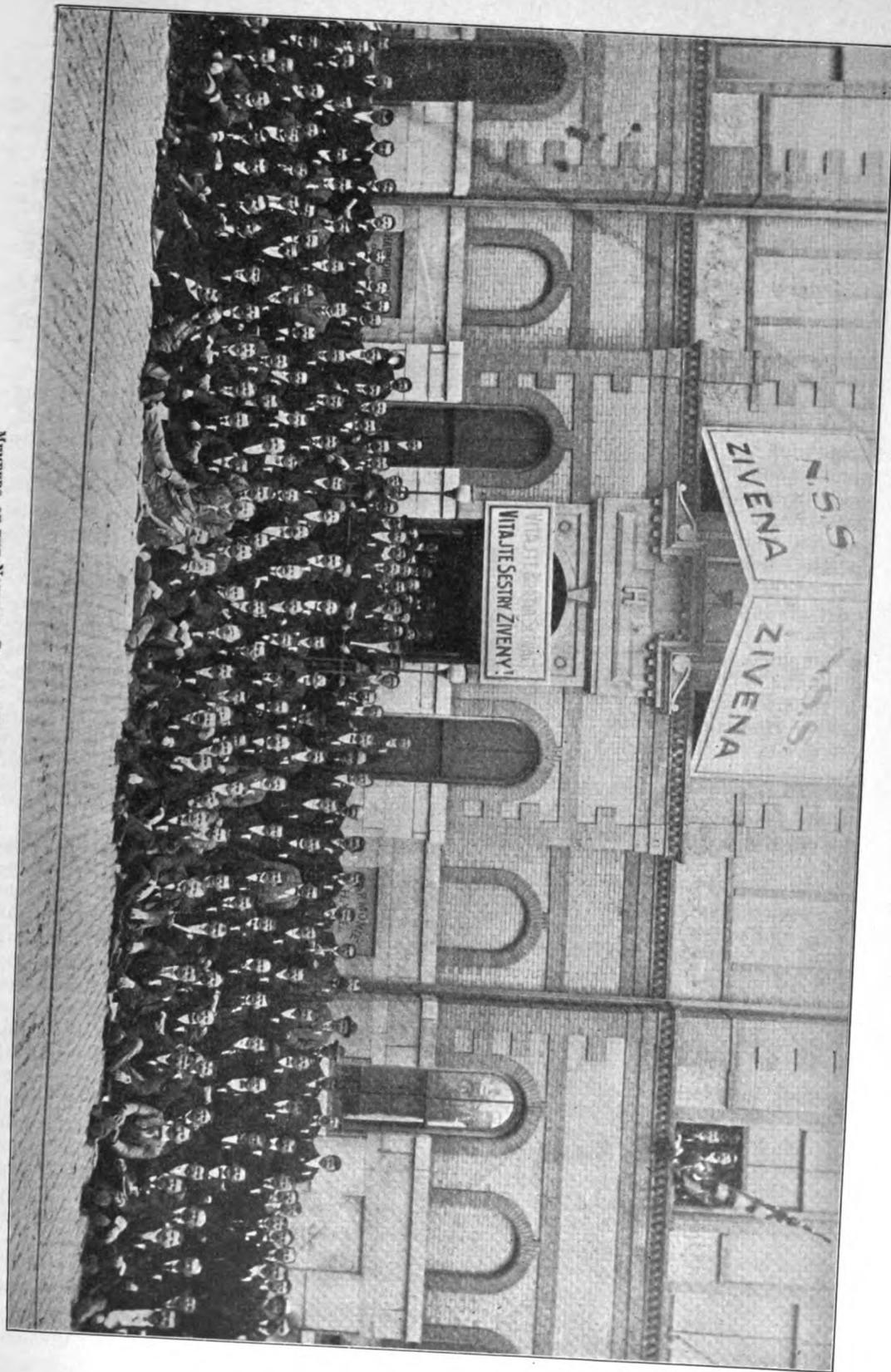
placed by feelings of friendly interest. They still have sufficient force to be the occasion of considerable mischief. A belief spread by the daily press that Slovak weddings and christenings are usually occasions for disorder and riot is one of the most troublesome of them—one which will possibly not be thoroughly overcome until all the people understand American customs well enough to see to it, whenever they are accused of indulging in a riot, that their side of the matter is properly presented to the American public and the real disturbers exposed.

It has been the custom among the Slavic people for hundreds of years to celebrate events such as weddings or christenings with the greatest of festivity. If left alone, this merry-making would be harmless, but it usually happens that when the celebration is at its height, some emissary of a constable or alderman, with fees and costs in sight, appears among them and starts a disturbance.

But although the public has been misled, it is gradually coming to know that so far from being peace disturbers and criminally disposed people, none of the immigrants coming to these shores are more law abiding. The writer has examined reports from over fifty penal institutions, including the Eastern and Western penitentiaries of Pennsylvania, and found few among their inmates.

The army of the United States contains hundreds of young Slovaks. So also do the higher educational institutions of the country. The immigration is as yet too young to have produced an educated class of professional men in this country, but that condition of things is coming fast. It will be here in a few years and will have arrived much sooner than it did in the case of the Irish or of the Germans, or of any other class of immigrants. Then, the part which the Slovaks are playing, and are to play, in the making of this country will be made to appear in its true light; and their fellow citizens will be ashamed that they have believed them the savages the sensational press has often pictured them.

MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SLAVONIC SOCIETY AT A CONVENTION.



The Ruthenians in America

Ivan Ardan, Scranton, Pa.

Editor *The Svoboda*

The Ruthenians or Ukrainians,¹ who come to America, called also the "Little Russians" or "Russians," are a branch of the second largest Slavic group, occupying at present the southern part of Russia, the eastern and southwestern part of the province of Galicia, and part of the province of Bukovina, in Austria, and northern Hungary.

For a period beginning with the sixth century of the Christian era, the Ruthenian nation was a power feared and respected even by the rulers of the Byzantine empire. Weakening by internal dissensions and the repeated onslaughts of Asiatic hordes from the East, it became part of Lithuania, then of Poland and lastly of Russia and Austria-Hungary.

The number of Ukrainians in Europe is computed at from thirty to thirty-two millions. The movement of emigration to America does not date back much further than thirty years. No statistics are available on which to estimate it numerically, but taking into consideration the ever increasing influx and the natural increase in the population once here, even the most conservative cannot to-day place the number of Ruthenians in the United States much below 350,000. In addition there are 60,000 in Canada and about the same number in Brazil and other South American republics, making a total of 470,000 or about half a million Ukrainians in the New World.

Causes of Emigration. The main reasons for this emigration have been economic ruin, political and national oppression, and religious persecution. During the time of servitude, the Ruthenian peasants had to give their landlords a very large share of the profits from their holdings, but high as this may have been, the landlords had certain duties toward their serfs, to supply them with provisions in case of hunger and the like. With the abolition of serfdom² this has been changed, and with the aid of the re-

spective governments the greedy landlords or "pans"³ have taken advantage of their junior brethren to possess themselves of the greater part of the cultivated land besides receiving (in Galicia) in indemnity for their feudal privileges, the enormous sum of 180,000,000 of Austrian crowns.⁴ A great mass of the former serfs have thus been left practically paupers. The greater part of the pasture lands have been appropriated, also, by the "pans" and practically all of the timber lands. The peasants in some districts are compelled to use straw and manure for fuel and to build their huts out of clay and straw! The freed serfs were obliged to pay to the landlords 132,000,000 crowns for the privilege of brewing beer and distilling whiskey (an industry which remained in their hands anyway), and when the naive peasants went into the courts to get back the lands criminally taken away from them, the "pans" who have even the courts and government officials at their disposal, won 30,000 out of 32,000 lawsuits—fruitless litigations which cost the peasants 40,000,000 crowns.

Economic Conditions.

Statistics show that a Ruthenian farmer in Galicia to-day owns on the average 4.09 "morgs"⁵ of land, 3 "morgs" out of the 4.09 being suitable for cultivation; that the net expected profit from the same is 20.29 crowns and that his taxes in proportion are higher than those of the "pans," because of higher appraisal. 46.60 per cent have not more than 1.94 "morgs" and 88.36 per cent are to-day practically bankrupt, as the land they possess is too small to support them. The indebtedness of Ruthenian farmers is steadily on the increase. In 1870, the total recorded indebtedness of peasant lands in Galicia was 4,933,784 crowns;

³ "Pans" in Galicia constitute 5.25 per cent of the landowners and possess 60.69 per cent of the cultivated land.

⁴ The Austrian crown is equal to about 90½ cents United States money.

⁵ One acre of land equals 0.706 "morgs."

¹ Ukrainians is pronounced "Oukraïnians."

² In Austria-Hungary in 1848; in Russia in 1861.



TRIUMPHANT DEMOCRACY—A RUTHENIAN SOCIETY PARADE IN A MINING TOWN.

in 1894, it had reached 144,862,870 crowns, and one must know that at least half as much more is not recorded. And no wonder, in the face of the squeezing usury demanded.

Furthermore, there are no industries of any importance in the Ruthenian territory and no way for one to earn a living outside of his own and the neighboring "pan's" farm. With the transfer from feudal conditions the "pans" were not slow in taking advantage of the situation. The average wages paid in Galicia (1901) to a male farm hand were 0.60 crowns for a 13 to 16-hour day, to a female 0.36 crowns and to young boys and girls 0.28 crowns. These abominably low wages and long hours precipitated an agricultural strike two years ago which ended victoriously for the strikers.

The resulting standard of life of Ruthenians in Europe is very low. The peasants in Galicia live almost exclusively on potatoes and cabbage. Fifty per cent eat no bread through six months of the year. With an annual increase in population of 1.07 per cent the country is overcrowded and in Galicia to-day there

is one peasant soul to every 1.45 "morgs" of cultivated land!

The condition of Ukrainians living in Russia, Hungary and Bukovina is in some respects worse than that of those in Galicia.

Political Factors.

Ukrainians are a democratic nation; they have no nobility of their own; their noblemen renounced their tongue and national customs in exchange for privileges from Poles, Russians and Magyars. The nation at present consists almost exclusively of peasants, working and professional men. Their rights are not respected, not only in autocratic Russia where (since 1867) they have not been allowed to use their speech publicly, nor even to publish or read the Bible in their tongue, and where there is not one Ukrainian school in the whole empire for 25,000,000 of that people—but also in constitutional Austria and Hungary where laws are enacted with the explicit purpose of Polonizing and Romanizing them. To present more clearly the civilizing mission of Polish noblemen in their stronghold, the Austrian province Galicia,

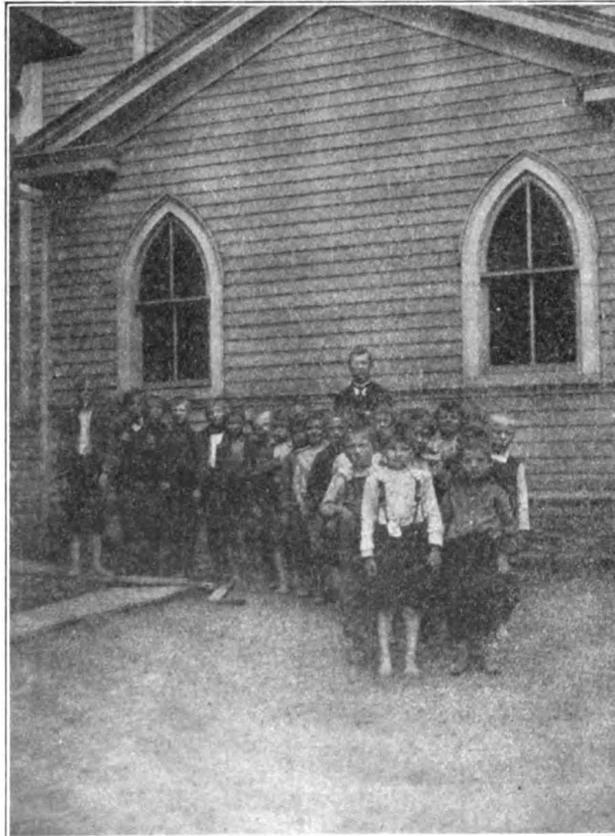
a mission which is sorely felt by Ruthenians of that province, I take the liberty of putting forth the following statistical data: There are 4 penitentiaries as against 2 universities, 698 breweries and distilleries of whiskey against 40 gymnasiums, 793 lottery agencies to 78 industrial, business, and other schools, 22,046 saloons, innumerable gambling dens and houses of ill-fame to 4,468 public schools.¹

Religious persecution is carried on in Russia against the Ukrainian adherents of Protestantism, and of the Greek Catholic Church, and in Galicia against Greek Catholics.

¹ In some districts of Galicia 56 per cent of the villages are without public schools; consequently there are 62.44 per cent of illiterates in the province. Of the children of school age from 36 to 53 per cent are left without instruction. The percentage of illiterate in Russia and Hungary is still greater. In Bukovina some improvement has been made lately in educational matters, but the policy of exterminating Ruthenian is strictly adhered to even in the other above-mentioned territories.

The Early Emigration.

Such conditions as these were enough to drive even the conservative Ruthenians from their fatherland, first to traverse different countries of Europe and then to find their way to this hemisphere. The first comers to the United States were probably from Hungary. Employment was readily found, but their lot was not an enviable one—separated from their families and living among a people whose language they did not understand and who looked upon them as intruders, come to take the daily bread away from them. They had to suffer many hardships, inconveniences and abuse; they were held in contempt and beaten and killed. The compensation for their work, however, was comparatively large; so they stayed, and in course of time have formed colonies of their own. To supply their most deeply felt want, in this country, the first



SOME RUTHENIAN SCHOOL BOYS OF OLYPHANT, PA., WITH THEIR TEACHER.



RUTHENIAN FARM, SPRINGFIELD, MANITOBA, CANADA.

The Ruthenian immigration into Canada has increased rapidly since 1895. For the most part homesteads of 160 acres have been taken up. Occasional Ruthenians own grain mills and expensive agricultural machinery. There are few schools, the district being sparsely settled, but several Ruthenian boys are being educated in Manitoba College.

church was organized in Shenandoah, Pa., in 1885, by the Rev. Volanski, a Ruthenian priest from Galicia, a man of great energy, who within a very short time had organized other congregations and built several churches in Pennsylvania and New Jersey and one in Minnesota. Schools he also organized, and co-operative stores, beneficial, dramatic, musical and other societies and published the first Ruthenian paper in this country. His departure for Europe was a loss to Ruthenians here, which retarded their further progress but did not stop it.

Economic Standards in America.

About nine-tenths of the Ruthenians in this country are laborers and workmen. They are chiefly employed in mining and affiliated industries. They make good workmen and good union men. Farmers constitute about one-tenth of their number; business and professional men are comparatively few in number. The Ruthenian girls and young women work, also, in different shops and factories, but prefer domestic service, at which they are efficient.

Their standard of life here is much higher than in Europe, but it does not come up to the American standard. They

eat substantial food and plenty of it, but do not live in such good houses, or wear such clothes, or buy such expensive furniture as the American workmen. They consider as luxuries a good many of the things, such as going to theaters and different social functions, which the American workman takes as a matter of course. They are, as a rule, saving, and hardly a Ruthenian but has from fifty to two hundred dollars at least saved and put away either in some hidden corner or with a private or public bank. In exceptional cases, their savings reach two, three and four thousand dollars. This saving habit gives them an advantage over the American workmen, especially in case of distress, sickness, death in the family, lack of work, or a strike. During the first years of immigration the Ruthenians sent the greater part of their savings to Europe to pay off debts or to improve their farms, and after a few years' stay would go back there. Within the last ten years, however, there has been a noteworthy change. A great many either renounce all claims to their old country possessions in favor of relatives, or sell them, and out of their savings buy lots and build houses in America, or take up

farming. This is due partly to practical sense of their own and partly to the agitation of their wives and children, whose lot is far better here than in Europe.

Further, Ruthenians have organized societies which for a small monthly amount give to their members five or six dollars a week in case of sickness or injury while at work. Some, also, pay death benefits of from fifty to two hundred dollars and these societies have been combined of late and aim to pay death benefits ranging from five to six hundred dollars on the death of the father of a family, and an additional two or three hundred dollars on the death of his wife. Of such Ruthenian organizations there are four, the largest with a membership of 13,000.

Ruthenian men and women drink, the farmers and Ruthenian Protestants being exceptions. Habitual drunkards, however, are few among them and are being looked down upon. This general drinking habit is due partly to the custom brought here from abroad, partly because they have more money and drinks are cheap, and partly to such causes as the instability of the immigrant's life and its tragedy, especially if he is married and the wife has not yet come. A marked improvement, however, is indicated by the complaints of saloonkeepers, and local movements are on foot to discourage drinking, especially among the young people and women.

The Ruthenians cling with some tenacity to their old customs despite the fact that the life in this country makes them discard a great many. They are superstitious, especially those coming from the Carpathian mountains. They are devout, attached to their churches, and feel very badly if then do not find one in the place where they live. Religion, however, with a vast majority of them, is more a matter of custom and formality than a force regulating their daily conduct.

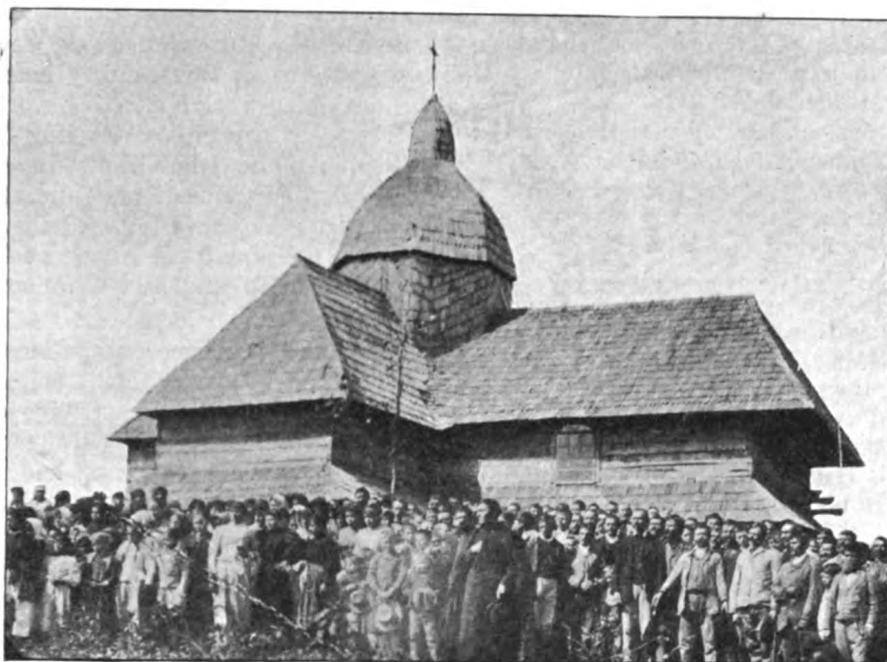
The majority of Ruthenians in the United States are members of the Greek Catholic church. Greek Orthodox Ruthenians (almost all converts from the Greek Catholic religion) are less numerous and the number of Ruthenian Protest-

ants, recruited chiefly from Russian Ukraine, is still smaller. There are 83 priests and ministers, and 108 Ruthenian churches, 80 Greek Catholic, 26 Greek Orthodox and 2 Protestant, besides several Protestant missions where services and prayer meetings are held. The rallying to the church has been to a certain degree an obstacle to progress among Ruthenians, chiefly for two reasons, first, because of proselyting on the part of the Greek Orthodox church of this country which is supported by the Russian government for political rather than religious motives, and is trying to lead the Ruthenians back into the atmosphere of the dark ages when religious fanaticism, superstition and adoration of autocrats were supreme virtues; second, because of the attitude of the Roman Catholic Church, which is trying to dominate and control the Ruthenian church properties and their church affairs in general. The resentment resulting, religious disputes, dissensions and lawsuits among members of the same colony and often of the same church, have absorbed energies much needed elsewhere.

*Education
and
Literacy.*

Judging from what has been said of European conditions, the conclusion is natural that the intellectual life of American Ukrainians cannot be of a very high plane.¹ Yet, coming to America, the Ruthenians are anxious and do learn their native and the English language. It is not a rare occurrence that a man of from thirty to fifty years learns to read from a prayerbook and to write from a letter received from the old country. The "method" is this: at first the man tries to read out a prayer which he knows by heart, usually the Lord's Prayer, and from this he begins to distinguish the different characters. The letters are first learned by heart, afterwards copied, and in this way the man begins to write—a way of learning very primitive, of course, and laborious, and one which requires a great deal of patience on the part of one who learns. But it leads to the end.

¹ Immigration reports for 1902-1908 show 49 per cent of illiteracy among Ruthenian immigrants, which, high though it is, is considerably lower than that among the whole Ruthenian population in Europe.



A RUTHENIAN CHURCH, BRAZIL.

The Ruthenian Immigration to South America began about 1893 when great inducements were made to European settlers, but is to-day at an end. They were given a quantity of land, but the forests had to be cleared first and there was no way to earn money outside of their farms. Those who have weathered the disease and distress of pioneer life have regained hopes for the future.

In towns and camps where Ruthenians are more or less numerous and organized they have their schools in which the adults are taught to read and write their own and sometimes, also, the English language. And the children, who invariably go to public schools in the daytime, learn to read and write in Ruthenian. These schools average from thirty-five to one hundred pupils. This fall, also, a Ruthenian boarding school on a small scale has been established in Yonkers, N. Y. Also, a fund has been started out of private collections for the support of Ruthenians in higher schools. It has already done some good and there is much more to be desired in this direction.

There are four Ruthenian weeklies (one with a circulation of 15,000) and one monthly published in the United States. The latter discusses such scientific subjects as *The Interior of the Earth*, *The Beliefs of Ancient People*, *The Races of Mankind*, and the like—a periodical unique among Slav publications in America. Some Ruthenian books are published in this country, but the majority—steadily on the increase—are imported from Europe. Periodicals and books pub-

lished in other languages, especially Slovak and Polish, are read, and the younger generation read, also, English books and newspapers.

Education among Ruthenians in this country is promoted, moreover, by reading circles, lectures, and societies for self-improvement, dramatics and singing, which are found in places where a priest, or any person more educated than the rest, gives the thing a start.

The Ruthenians of America do not differ much in characteristics, good or bad, from other Slavic peoples.

The exceptions are these: They are not as fanatical as some others; they do not move in a mass, but possess a good deal of individuality; they are assimilated readily and with exception of Hungarian Ruthenians are not hot-tempered or easily irritated. Their physical endurance is superb.

This, in brief, has been a sketch of a race in America which had a glorious past, when, by reason of its territorial position for many centuries, it played the rôle of a guardian of European civilization against the Asiatic hordes, but which

Their Reawakening in America.

now, by force of circumstances, has been reduced to a great physical, intellectual and moral degradation.

In America, and especially in the United States, the Ruthenians wake up to a new life. If they succeed within a generation or so to regain their former excellences, avail themselves of what is good in American civilization and avoid what is bad in it, they will surely make a worthy addition to the citizenship of the United States. To help them to attain this end, the educated people of their own race and patriotic Americans as well, should take a livelier interest in the "contemptible Hun," to educate him, to lift him up, to make him a better man.

So far the Ruthenians have few educated persons in this country able to do this hard but really effective work, and Americans, instead of starting among Ruthenians and immigrants in general well-organized educational undertakings on a large scale, have confined themselves to local denominational missions which do very little good and sometimes are even harmful.

I hope the time is near when means will be found and used with all energy and persistence to the best advantage of this great nation and of the stranger from across the sea seeking bread and shelter on the soil of Washington.

The Doukhobors

THEIR CHARACTER AND ECONOMIC PRINCIPLES

Joseph Elkinton, Philadelphia,

Author of *The Doukhobors*

The exodus of some 7,300 Russian peasants from the Caucasus six years ago attracted considerable attention because of the circumstances accompanying their coming to America. To understand this immigration to British Columbia, one must go back a century and a half to the time when there arose in southern Russia another of the many dissenting sects, composed of peasants.

According to the tradition of their elders, certain Cossacks of the Don, beginning with three brothers, became convinced that Christ forbade fighting and that the ceremonies of the Greek church were not necessary to the worship of the Almighty. These views found a warm response in the hearts of the Russian mujiks, and within a score of years several thousands were refusing to bear arms or recognize the authority of the Greek church.

Persecution was inevitable and freely bestowed by the government under Paul the Mad. From 1785 to 1800, hundreds were banished to Siberia and others cruelly tortured. A ukase of 1800 reads, "Everybody who shall be convicted of belonging to the sect of Doukhoborts shall be condemned to life-long hard labor." Early in the nineteenth century, Alexander I instituted another policy toward

them and provided a place for them to enjoy their convictions undisturbed. This was known as the Milky Waters Colony, just north of the Crimea reservation. Here they fairly prospered, until Nicholas I, coming to the throne, broke up the colony and drove these peace-loving farmers to the Caucasus mountains. The governor of the district testified: "They were active, indefatigable in labor and industrious in agriculture, and being sober and well-living men, they were more independent than others."

The deportation of the ten thousand Doukhobors from the Crimean settlement to Trans-Caucasia occurred between 1841 and 1845 and was a heartrending experience. The mother of Peter Verigin, their chosen leader, was then about twenty-six years of age and she told us how she was driven with her little children, at the point of the bayonet, for a thousand miles; of the great perils to which they were subjected while crossing the Caucasus mountains, and of the Kurds and other hillsmen who threw stones upon them from the heights above. After some forty years residence in the Wet mountains, of Georgia, at an altitude where cereals could scarcely be raised, but where, nevertheless, they accumulated



WIFE AND FAMILY OF A SIBERIAN EXILE.

The women are more numerous than the men. As one visits from village to village the substantial character of these women who have suffered so much grows upon one.

considerable property as herdsmen, they were scattered by Alexander III among the Georgian villages of the lowlands.

It was in 1886 that Peter Verigin was banished to Archangel, on account of a dispute that arose about the distribution of money and ownership of an Orphan House, between the "Large Party" and the "Small Party" of 3,000 or 4,000, which had no objection to bearing arms or to bribing the government officials to rob their brethren by an unjust decision. In the face of this dissension, a wide-spread awakening took place among a large portion of them; they ceased to smoke, drink wine and eat flesh; they also practiced communism and resolved no longer to bear arms even in self-defense. It was almost ten years later that Peter Verigin, who was being transported from Archangel to a remote corner of Siberia, in 1894-95, met some of his brethren in Moscow and decided with them to propose to the "Larger Party" to abstain from oath-taking and military duty in any form and to burn their firearms. It was this last act which enraged the "Small Party," which forthwith brought upon the other faction the cruel whips of the Cossacks by sending a report to the officials that the "Larger Party" was in rebellion against the government. Two thousand people were present at one of these burnings, when the Cossacks were ordered to

disperse them with whips and thereafter were "quartered" upon them in their villages.

*The Doukhobors
and the
Friends.*

This "execution," with many other details of the persecution, was brought before the English-speaking public by Count Leo Tolstoi, in a letter published in *The London Times*, tenth month, 23d, 1895, and also published by the writer in his book on *The Doukhobors*.¹

In 1898 a petition was presented to the Empress Dowager as she passed through the Caucasus, asking that she intercede for these sorely persecuted peasants so that the Emperor would allow them to emigrate or to settle all together in some remote part of his empire where they might escape the hand of the oppressor. Leave to emigrate was granted, if they would leave Russia before the next annual conscription took place. The marvel is how, without means for transportation, most of them escaped to America. Their sufferings were reported by Prince Hilkov and his appeals met with a prompt response on the part of the Society of Friends. Four steamships were chartered to bring them away from Batoum during the winter of 1898 and the spring of 1899, and their transference to unsettled tracks of British

¹ Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia, 1902.

Columbia, was a humanitarian act on a large scale. At least \$200,000 was raised by Friends in England and America.

The character, history and customs of these exiled sons and daughters of Russia has subsequently afforded a most interesting, if sometimes perplexing, study—whether from a psychological or religious standpoint. Children in mental understanding, they are often innocently ignorant of what they reverently retain from the Greek church and the age-long customs of their Fatherland. They religiously observe “holy days,” while refusing to bow before the images of “saints” and rejecting the sign of the cross. They continue to recite unwittingly some of the best hymns of the Greek Orthodox church, although the greater part of their worship consists in singing collectively the Psalms of David and some of their own composition.

They have been associated in the popular mind with the Quakers, whereas they really have little in common except their testimony for peace and non-resistance, which the Society of Friends has continuously maintained for 250 years. It was rather a desire to relieve suffering humanity that prompted the Friends of Philadelphia to send them several carloads of food and clothing after they had settled in Canada, where they would have starved the first winter had they not received this succor. Further, their protest against the formalities of the Greek church made them interesting to the Friends, whose spiritual ideas about worship and formal religious observances generally have led them to dispense with much that is prevalent in the “services” of other denominations and so, sitting down in silent, reverential waiting upon Almighty God, they commune with Him in Spirit and welcome only those utterances which proceed from that Spirit in their assemblies for worship. Yet the contrast between one of these quiet Quaker meetings and the Doukhobor “Sun Rise Service” is rather striking. In the latter there is a continual chanting of some Russian (Doukhobor) hymns and much bowing and kissing, with formal recitations from the scriptures. Another possible likeness is the Doukhobor protest

against the use of intoxicating drinks and tobacco.

In one particular, however, there is a most striking difference between these two peace-loving sects, and that is in the matter of education and governmental support. The Quakers have ever been foremost in all educational development and in fidelity to the governments under which they have lived as law-abiding citizens.

*The Communal
Life of the
Mir.*

At the time the four ships, bearing over seven thousand souls, landed at Halifax and Quebec, it was supposed the refugees would at once assimilate with the settlers of the Northwest territory, but all their traditions are much opposed to such a course and it will take the passing of a generation to bring them into line with the free institutions of this land in which they have so providentially found an asylum. A majority refused to take up any land in their own names for three or four years after coming to Canada, for fear the Dominion government would somehow bring them into trouble. Most of them farmed their land as squatters. They had suffered so much from the Russian government that they are suspicious of any government.

When I was among them in 1902, previous to the arrival of Peter Verigin, the internal life of the people was evidently in a transitional stage, some aspiring to individual ownership of their homesteads, while the majority were evidently afraid to act independently of the commune. This had brought about a rather unfortunate state of affairs. As their best men were sent into Siberian exile, the counsel of the more ignorant was often followed and these advised against citizenship and registration required by the laws of the Dominion. Indeed, they have been taught to regard their leaders almost as divine.

During his fifteen years of exile, Peter Verigin kept in touch with his people by writing, although he is an uneducated man, and it is to be said that some of his epistles are remarkable for their practical wisdom and religious feeling. On the other hand, he is capable of questionable diplomacy, and whether he changed or not during the years of his exile, his present rule is very autocratic and some-

times insincere. Yet he is, in many respects, the most capable and certainly the most influential man among the Doukhobors to-day. Upon his arrival during the winter of 1902, he assumed control of the colony and took out homesteads in the name of a committee of three, of whom he is the chief. This made it possible for the government to reserve certain sections of land appropriated for their use beyond the time usually allowed settlers.

The communal life of the Doukhobors is based upon the Russian *Mir*, over which an elder or *Starosta* presides. Their villages in Canada, often separated by several miles, consist of twenty to twenty-five one-story houses, or mud huts, facing on either side of a central street, about a quarter of a mile long. Storehouses and stables have much the same size and appearance as the houses and are often under the same roof. The immense crops of wheat harvested this summer have brought much money into the communal purse, but that is in the hands of Peter Verigin and he has bought 10,000 acres of land adjacent to the Yorkton colony. They have a distinct advantage by virtue of their communal system is their ability to purchase wholesale, and one will find the latest agricultural implements in use by them. But a common purse and management in the purchase and distribution of supplies works many hardships to the more independent and cannot long survive in America, especially when that management is administered with little regard to the rights of the individual. Peter Verigin has indeed introduced much discontent among the villagers because of his determination to continue the communal system and to control the economic conditions of his people. This is illustrated by his presenting claims of indebtedness to those who would withdraw their stocks from the commune, in order to work separately upon their farms.

The Problem of Education. The indisposition to settle upon individual homesteads in their most serious hindrance to becoming Americanized, for they are completely under the direction of "the elders" in each village; thus little mental progress can be made by the adults

and the present management enriches the commune at the expense of the individual. The whole situation is one of serious difficulty, requiring the continuance of tact and patience (which the Dominion government has shown from the first) before any advance can be made in an educational way.

A year ago an offer was made by members of the Society of Friends living in Philadelphia, to build and maintain schools in the Northwestern settlement, thirty miles west of Rosthern, on the North Saskatchewan river, and another in the Yorkton colony, 300 miles from Winnipeg, but Peter Verigin practically blocked both overtures with the promise of building a schoolhouse in each village, which he has entirely failed to do, knowing his régime will be ended with such educational enlightenment. The Canadian authorities do not insist upon compulsory education and as they can best deal with the Doukhobors through Peter Verigin, the probabilities are that only a few of the children will get the education they so greatly need. An experiment was made a year ago, when the writer brought a half dozen of these children to Philadelphia and put them in preparatory schools for the winter. Their progress was most commendable.

At present there is one school at Good Spirit Lake, Assiniboia, taught by two Friends from England and consisting of some twenty-five scholars. There is also a small colony of English Friends near the Elbow on the north branch of the Saskatchewan river, who went out there the past spring to help the Doukhobors learn farming and the English language. The suspicion and ignorance of the Russians, however, to say nothing of the counter-influence of their leader, makes these efforts to enlighten them very difficult. There is hope in the fact that the children are apt to learn. The Philadelphia Friends are waiting and watching for the earliest opportunity to start schools among them, but for the present, the heart of this people is apparently set upon the almighty dollar, and they get the best of daily wages as laborers on the farms or in the towns. It is said that they teach their children the psalms and other scriptures which have been handed



THE PATRIARCH IVAN MAHORTOV AND HIS SCHOOL

down by word of mouth from generation to generation, and there is a high moral standard maintained among them, with little or no crime to punish. This, together with their industrious habits, will eventually produce valuable citizens.

The settlers about them who are interested in their progress, and those who use the needful tact in dealing with them, value them as neighbors, while many in the Dominion think the government was unwise in bringing them into this country.

The Religious Pilgrimages. Religious pilgrimages among them have been greatly exaggerated by the press and the vast majority

of the Doukhobors have disapproved of them, but they signify a low order of intelligence and a restlessness which only years of settled life will eradicate. In the autumn of 1902 and again this summer, the civilized world was informed of such fanatical outbreaks. A few of the Yorkton Doukhobors liberated their horses and cattle, believing it to be contrary to the will of God for them to be retained in servitude. This delusion spread through a tenth of their villages, and 120 horses with 285 heads of cattle,

were thus turned loose, for conscience' sake; agents of the government gathered the animals and later sold them in order that the Doukhobors might have the benefit of the proceeds. When the sale came off, they bought back most of their own stock, paying a high price, as the animals were in splendid condition and the bidding was lively. No one was so much disappointed as the settler who thought he was going to buy a fine animal at a low price and so take advantage of these over-conscientious colonists. I saw these cattle and horses when among the Doukhobors and greatly admired the care they had evidently received at the hands of their owners.

The two thousand Doukhobors in Saskatchewan were entirely opposed to this interpretation of God's will on the part of their Yorkton brethren, and sent representatives to remonstrate with them and to buy up their stock when offered for sale.

There is hope for any people who have such a conscience as these long persecuted Russians have, and their principle of non-resistance will survive all the armaments of the world.

Housing and Social Conditions in a Slavic Neighborhood

Mary Buell Sayles

New York Tenement-house Department

In Jersey City there are two distinctively Slavic sections—one almost exclusively Polish, with a few Lithuanians sprinkled through it, the other made up of Russians and Poles in the proportion of about two to five, with again an admixture of Lithuanians and a few scattered Hungarian families. Both communities are situated close to the water-front, edged about by railroads, docks and factories. As the housing conditions in the two sections are of the same general character, and the occupations and mode of living of the people practically identical, I shall confine myself in the main to a description of the larger and more interesting district, though many of my social statistics in regard to the Poles and Russians relate to all families of these nationalities found in the three districts which I investigated during the winter of 1901-02.

First of all, however, it may be well to review briefly the race and religion of the two peoples referred to as Poles and Russians. Concerning the Poles the facts seem clear enough. Some of them distinguish themselves as "German," and some as "Russian" Poles, but most of them make no such distinction in ordinary speech; and so far as could be learned, they are uniformly Roman Catholic in religion. With the so-called Russians, the case is more complicated. When the investigator put the question, "Polish?" to a Russian family, one of two answers was certain to come, "No! Greek!" or "No! Russian!" Upon the cornerstone of a little church erected three years ago in the Russian-Polish district appears an inscription which brings these two answers into relation. We read, "Little Russian St. Peter's and St. Paul's Greek Catholic Church." We venture to conclude that the people in Jersey City who describe themselves as "Russians" or "Greeks" are Ruthenians from "Little Russia," or the nearby Austrian province of Galicia; and that in religion they are "Uniates," or

members of a branch of the Greek church which, while retaining its own peculiar liturgy, acknowledges the headship of the Pope at Rome.

In this connection it is worth while to note that according to the last census there were in Jersey City in 1900, 3,124 Poles (including those from Russian, German and Austrian Poland), and 1,694 Russians. With so much of explanation I shall continue to use the names ordinarily employed by these people in speaking of themselves, leaving to specialists the determination of their precise race and nationality.



THE RUTHENIAN CHURCH, JERSEY CITY, N. J.

At the southeasterly corner of lower Jersey City, skirting the water-front and the long sheet of water known as the "Gap," which extends inland at right angles to the Hudson river, lies a small and somewhat isolated tenement district. Although cut off on three sides by water and on the fourth separated by business streets from the other residence sections, it contains within the limits of some dozen city blocks a wide range of social and housing conditions. Along the northerly edge, on Sussex street, are long rows of substantial and frequently elegant old brick residences, now generally let out

by floors to German, Irish and American families, in the main well-to-do working people. To the south along Morris and Essex streets, nearer the water-front, are also many old brick and frame private houses. But we find here an almost equal number of four and five-story brick buildings designed expressly as tenements to accommodate sometimes two, sometimes four families on a floor, with tiny triangular and octagonal airshafts, or none, and dark interior rooms. Here, too, are rear tenements in considerable numbers, in one case as many as ten in a single block. Often these are old frame houses, now neglected and dilapidated; often four-story tenements of wood or brick occupied by from four to eight families. In several places two rows of rear tenements stand back to back with an intervening space of but two or three feet.

*Where
the Slavs
Congregate.*

It is to this part of the district that the various Slavic people have flocked, drawn by the presence of the great American sugar refinery and numerous other factories, and the nearby railroad docks. Along these streets I visited, three years ago, 254 Polish families, 101 Russian families, 22 Lithuanian families and a smaller number of families from Austria-Hungary. Altogether it is safe to say that the entire Slavic community resident in this section comprised at that time from 400 to 450 families, or upwards of 2,000 individuals.

So strong was the impression of the predominance of the Slavic element in some of the blocks investigated, that it was a surprise to find, on tabulating the records, that not more than sixty per cent in any one block were Slavs. Yet very generally in the rear houses, and throughout many front houses, a non-Slavic family was a notable exception.

Even where Russians and Poles are most solidly packed, however, the streets present no such panorama of foreign life as one is sure to see in a district where Italians are equally predominant. Anyone who has worked among Italians will have been impressed by the extent to which their family life overflows into halls and yards and over sidewalks. Those who have visited among the Slavs must have

been impressed by contrast with the intensity of their home life and its definite confinement within each family's own four walls.

The typical Slavic home in Jersey City is located in a house occupied by from three to eight families and consisting of three rooms—one, a fair-sized kitchen and living-room with two windows on the street or yard; the others, small bedrooms, one or both of them interior rooms ventilated only by tiny windows opening on the kitchen, the hall, or an airshaft perhaps five to ten square feet in area. The floors are generally clean, often, especially among the Poles, scrubbed to an amazing whiteness. The walls are hung with gorgeous prints of many-hued saints, their gilt frames often hanging edge to edge so that they form a continuous frieze around the walls. The mantel is covered with lace-paper and decorated with bright-colored plates and cups, and gorgeous bouquets of home-made paper flowers are massed wherever bureaux or shelves give space for vases. Gayly figured cotton curtains at the windows and in doorways complete a bright and pleasing picture and numerous canaries in cages—I have found as many as ten in a single kitchen—lend vivacity to the scene.

Such is the impression of the average Polish home which one carries away. Thus it is with something both of surprise and resentment that one faces figures (albeit gathered by one's self) which assert that over thirty per cent of Polish homes, and over forty per cent of Russian and Ruthenian homes, vary from "dirty" to "very dirty." Yet when one compares these figures with corresponding statistics in regard to Italians living under similar conditions in the same city, which show over fifty per cent of "dirty" or "very dirty" apartments, the cleanliness of the Slavic people is emphasized afresh. It is peculiarly true of them that "when they are clean they are very, very clean," and when otherwise, very much otherwise, as the accumulations of rubbish and filth which one frequently finds in yards and in the narrow spaces behind rear houses, fairly attest.

Next to the three-room apartment, four- and two-room apartments are most com-

mon among the Slavs. Among the Poles the average number of rooms per apartment is 3.22; among the Russians, 2.85. These facts, again, are interestingly related to the situation in the rear houses, where, far more often than in the front houses, the two-room apartment is found. More than half the Russians and Lithuanians visited lived in rear houses, while all but sixteen per cent of the Polish families in the sugar house district were in houses facing directly on the street. The great mass of the Slavs pay rents of eight dollars or less per month; the Poles averaging \$6.65, the Russians \$6.30 per apartment.

and over ninety per cent of Russian heads of families are unskilled, in both cases the factories and workshops claiming more than one-half of this percentage, and the railroads and docks furnishing occupation to the greater part of the remainder. In the immediate neighborhood of the sugar refinery a question as to occupation is answered almost invariably by "Tsoogarhaus." Many other curious answers are forth-coming, as "Leawally," meaning Lehigh Valley railroad. Among the Lithuanians, ninety-five per cent of whom are unskilled, the railroads and docks are the commonest places of employment.



SHELTER AND RECREATION AS IT IS FOUND LOOSE—A SUNDAY MORNING SCENE IN THE VACANT GROUND AT THE FOOT OF MORRIS STREET.

Unskilled Laborers Predominate. Perhaps the most interesting of the social statistics available in regard to the Slavs in Jersey City relate to their occupation. The scheme of classification adopted grouped the various occupations under the headings of "unskilled," "skilled," "mercantile" and "miscellaneous," or "special." It was applied to all members of the seven leading national or race groups found in the three districts investigated, among them, to 515 Polish and 101 Russian heads of families. Among both of these people the unskilled laborer predominates to a greater extent than among Italians, Irish, Americans or Germans. Over eighty-one per cent of Polish

When we consider skilled workers, we find but one, a carpenter, among the Russians, while but five of all the storekeepers and saloon-keepers of the various districts are Russians. Thirty-one Poles are engaged in skilled trades, metal workers, carpenters and cabinet makers being most numerous; and there were found nineteen Polish storekeepers and eight saloon-keepers and bartenders. But two Poles had to be classified under the catch-all heading of miscellaneous, and but one Russian—the priest of the Greek Catholic church. In this connection it may be noted that nine Polish house-owners were found.

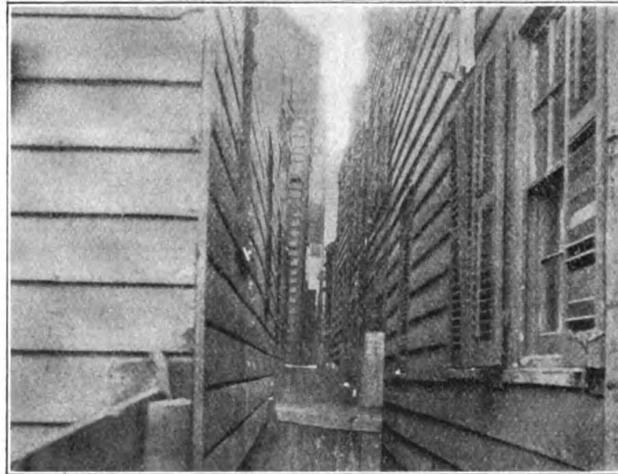
A custom which accounts for much of

the characteristic overcrowding of the Slavic immigrants, is that of taking so-called "boarders," really, in most cases, lodgers who either get their meals outside the home, in restaurants or saloons, or prepare them independently on the family cook-stove. It is among the Russians that this practice is most common. Over sixty per cent of the Russian families I visited acknowledged that they kept boarders ranging in number from one to six. About the same percentage of Lithuanians eked out their incomes in this way. Of the Poles visited in the sugar house district, a considerably smaller proportion, but twenty-eight per cent, admitted

one, nineteen two, fourteen three, nine four, and three five boarders. Forty-nine Polish families kept from two to four boarders.

Overcrowding to the Danger Point. It is a common thing to find both men and women boarders in the same two- or three-room apartment,

with a family including babies and half-grown children of both sexes. A case recorded, where eleven people lived in two rooms, two little girls of eleven and fourteen sleeping in a corner curtained off from the room occupied by the male boarders, is perhaps somewhat worse than the average, but it cannot be called an



WHERE TWO ROWS OF REAR HOUSES SHUT OUT EACH OTHER'S LIGHT AND AIR.

that they took boarders. It is undoubtedly true, however, that all these percentages represent understatements of the truth. I recall one case where a Polish couple who had at first insisted that only they and their two children occupied their two-room apartment acknowledged, after unusual insistence on my part, that two women boarders used one of the rooms; and finally, when further pressed, threw open the door of a little closet under the stairs—a cubbyhole scarcely three feet wide and sloping to the floor—and showed me a cot on which a male boarder slept. This is not an extreme example of overcrowding. Of the sixty-four Russian families who took boarders, nineteen kept

exception. I have at hand a large number of examples where overcrowding, with boarders, reaches the point of three persons or more per room with an allowance of less than four hundred cubic feet of air space per individual.

It is important, however, that we look beyond these deplorable conditions to the underlying causes, among which is irregularity of employment, a conspicuous feature of longshore work and of some factory work. In many cases I was assured that the fathers of families where boarders were kept were on half-time work in the sugar house. In one case a Lithuanian woman whose husband had been ill and unable to work for two months, ex-

plained to me that four male boarders formed their chief source of income. Each of these men paid four dollars a month into the family treasury for sleeping accommodations and washing. This family included three children, two of them under five, and their apartment consisted of three rooms for which they paid a monthly rent of eight dollars.

From my point of view, as a student of housing conditions, and with my ignorance at the time of making my investigation of the Slavic people and their

them with decent and healthful homes. In Jersey City there are three serious housing evils: dark and unventilated bedrooms, of which nearly 2,000 were noted in the course of my investigation, and which are most common in the poorest quarters; the foul yard vaults, almost the only sanitary accommodation in the Slavic districts; and the fearful danger from fire in a district where less than one tenement house in twenty-five is provided with any sort of fire-escape.



A CONTRAST—CITY AND SUBURBAN HOMES COMPANY'S MODEL APARTMENTS, FIRST AVENUE, SIXTY-FOURTH AND SIXTY-FIFTH STREETS, NEW YORK, WHERE MANY OF THE SLAVIC RACE LIVE.

languages, I am naturally not in a position to attempt an extended interpretation of the facts presented. Certain conclusions would indeed seem inevitable in view of these facts. But as we are chiefly concerned, not with the racial traits or past history of the various Slavic people, but with the problem of making intelligent citizens of them, it will perhaps be well to fix our attention on immediate practical means to that end. Except for the problem of education, there is no more important problem affecting the immigrant population than that of providing

While such evils are permitted to surround the home of the immigrant, we American citizen must hold ourselves accountable for many of the evils for which we blame him. The education which the schools give needs to be supplemented by the practical education which goes with close supervision and inspection of both old and new tenements. Every possible leverage of law and educational effort is needed to assist the Slavic immigrant peoples in reaching a plane of living where they will be an aid, not a hindrance in our national development.

The Magyar in New York¹

Louis H. Pink

The Hungarian colony in New York is comparatively small, but its interest is in inverse ratio to its size. Eighty per cent of the Magyars arriving in New York go at once to the farms and mines. Those who remain in the city are found on the East Side in three distinct quarters. Only the largest of these is important enough to be called a colony. The two smaller quarters are on the upper East Side, one on One Hundred and Seventeenth and One Hundred and Eighteenth streets settled almost entirely by recent arrivals, the other lying between Seventy-fifth and Eighty-fifth streets. The colony proper is bounded by Stanton and Seventh streets, First avenue and the East river. It contains from 50,000 to 60,000 Magyars and Hungarian Jews, besides large numbers of Germans, a colony of Polish Catholics, the shattered remnant of a once vigorous Bohemian quarter, a determined line of Irish who are making their last stand along the water-front, and many Russian Jews.

It is almost impossible to distinguish between the Hungarian Jew and the Hungarian gentile in New York. They mingle indiscriminately, they both glory in the traditional freedom and patriotism of the Magyar, for in Hungary the Jew has never been persecuted. When driven from western Europe in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, he found refuge, security and, to a greater extent than he had before known it, freedom, in the Alföld towns and villages. The Hungarian Jew still clings tenaciously to the belief of his fathers, but unlike the Russian, he regards Judaism as a religion, not as the mark of a distinct nationality. In all but creed he is a Magyar.

There are more Hungarian Jews than

¹A yearly average of 21,348 Magyars have come to the United States during the three years ending June 30, 1908, the past year showing an increase of about 4,000. Of the total for the three years, 86 per cent were booked to Pennsylvania, 19 per cent to New York, 16 per cent to New Jersey and 15 per cent to Ohio. Thus 86 per cent were, by their declarations, destined for four states.

In Pennsylvania the Magyars work in the mines; in New Jersey and Ohio, they are in factories, in clay pits and to a degree in construction work. A New York Magyar in the government service where he comes in contact with immigrants of all races, a veteran of our Civil War and a member of Kossuth's personal staff, is authority for the statement that no better citizen-material comes to these shores than the Magyars.—Ed.

gentiles in New York. Marcus Braun, recently appointed special commissioner of immigration by President Roosevelt, is authority for the statement that while on the upper East Side the gentiles are in the majority, seventy-five per cent of the Hungarian colony are Jewish.

But few Hungarians of the higher classes come to the United States. The great mass of Hungarian immigrants are laborers. They come, not to escape oppression, but in search of enlarged opportunity. In some regions of Hungary it is as much "the thing" for the young men to go to America as it is for the sons of American farmers to seek the cities.

East Houston street is the Broadway of the Hungarian colony; Second avenue is its Riverside Drive; Avenues A, B and C are important centers of social and business activity. The life of the quarter is one continuous whirl of excitement. Pleasure seems the chief end and dancing, music, cards and lounging at the café are the means of attaining it. Intensely social, extremely fond of conviviality and gaiety, polished, graceful, bright—the Magyar soon learns the English language. The Russian Jew requires years of patient struggle to rid him of his guttural, and learns English pronunciation only because of his idomitable perseverance. The Italian takes equally long to discipline his vowel sounds and temper their use with mercy. The Magyar speaks English, and with the true accent, almost at once. The Hungarian Jew learns English more readily than the uneducated Christian because he has been brought up to use German as well as the Magyar language, while the uneducated Christian has been taught to eschew all languages but his own as a matter of patriotism. Quick as the Magyar is to learn and to adapt himself to strange circumstances, he likes to live and let live. He lacks perseverance. He prefers to live comfortably on a moderate income rather than submit to the hardships incident to the accumulation of a fortune. He prefers to spend the heat of the afternoon at the café rather than be

the slave of high position and an impaired digestion. He has no taste for the "strenuous life."

Institutions have but slight hold upon the Magyar. The wild blood of his roving forefathers is strong within him. The same passion for untrammelled personal liberty which led them over the steppes of Asia and finally, under Attila, to cross into Europe, now inspires the Magyar peasant with scorn for improved machinery and for the slavery of the modern industrial system.

There are only three institutions which are extensively supported by the Magyar in New York—the newspaper, the literary society and the charitable organization. There is but one Hungarian daily paper in the United States, *Hirmondo*, published at Cleveland, Ohio, but having a large circulation in New York. Besides this there are published in New York, several weeklies, semi-weeklies and semi-monthlies, and the *Austro-Hungarian Gazette*, printed in German, but having an interest to all the peoples of the dual monarchy. The literary societies are numerous, though their function is social, rather than literary, while the purpose of some is to arouse and to keep aroused the Magyar patriotism. There are two charitable organizations, the Hungarian Association of the City of New York and the Hungarian Relief Society. The former dispenses charity without regard to race or creed, the latter was until recently affiliated with the Austrian Society and confines its work to immigrants. As a rule only Christians apply for its assistance. The Jewish applicants are taken care of by the United Hebrew Charities. While the Magyar is easy-going and pleasure-loving above all the peoples who seek our shores in large numbers, in pride, in independence, in fertility of resource, he is inferior to none. He will starve rather than beg and will apply for charity only as a last resort and sometimes not then.

Magyar patriotism is kept alive in the new soil by societies organized for that purpose, by the agitation of several of the newspapers and by emissaries from the fatherland. There is a rapidly growing

rift and not a little feeling between those who wish to retain their allegiance to Hungary and those who have chosen to cast in their lot with the adopted land. The immediate cause of the breach was the presentation of the Hungarian flag to the New York societies some two years ago. The recent visit of the Hungarian deputies has again aroused an ebullition of patriotic spirit.

Tailoring is the chief occupation in the colony and it is practically monopolized by Jews. Many Hungarians are furriers, others work in hotels and restaurants. Shop-keepers and merchants are numerous. On the upper East Side the Magyars are to be found in cigar factories, wire factories, brass factories, shoe factories, gas works. The brighter young men enter the professions.

The Magyar women are unusually pleasing and graceful. Those who work prefer to sew at home for they consider it a disgrace to work in a factory. They are bright, have a passion for social functions, and are accomplished musicians and dancers.

The most important influence on the lower East Side, the institution, if it may be called an institution, to which the Magyar is most deeply and passionately attached, is the café. It is the expression of his social life. It takes the place of the club and to a certain extent of the home. Almost every block in the Hungarian quarter has its café and some blocks have four or five. Each café has its special clientele. One is patronized by artists and musicians, another by shop-keepers, another by professional men. Here sociability and good fellowship reign. Here may be heard the clink of glasses, the hubbub of conversation, the fiery music of the gipsy orchestra. In the absence of restraint there is fascination. The most practical man has a streak of roving blood coursing through his arteries, and to this relic of the free life of our ancestors the café appeals. "Business be damned" archly whispers the spirit of the café into the ears of the lawyer, the banker, the financier, who out of curiosity visits the Hungarian café, and if there is a single strain of sentiment within he becomes a veritable Donatello for a night.

The Anthracite Coal Industry¹—The Anthracite Coal Communities²

Reviewed by Owen R. Lovejoy
National Child-labor Committee

There are many sources of reliable information regarding the anthracite coal industry in Pennsylvania and the people who compose the mining population. But it can be affirmed without hesitation that the two positively essential books are Dr. Peter Roberts' *The Anthracite Coal Industry* and *The Anthracite Coal Communities*.

The former is a study of the history and processes of the production of coal, is written for the general public, and with its maps, charts and statistical tables, possesses the double value of being more fascinating than a story and of being of permanent use as a work of reference. The development of the coal beds and the organization of the industry by large corporations, the methods of management, inspection, and transportation are described in non-technical terms, while the author's argument for the "syndicate" as against the small producer is presented with force and will be read with surprise by many who have seen in the "coal trust" the doom of the miner's liberty.

Estimates show that the coal already taken from the region (about one billion, one hundred million tons) is approximately one-fifth of the entire deposit, and that the present rate of production can be maintained for eighty or one hundred years. The tables of profits and wages are extremely valuable, and charts showing the number of days in the average miner's working year fully sustain Mr. Mitchell's contention that the miner is fortunate who is able to find above 200 days' work in a year. But even more instructive to the student of actual conditions is the chapter on incidental profits of operators. To illustrate: It is shown that from 1881 to 1899 the total profits to the coal companies on the 19,632,172 kegs of powder sold to their miners for blasting was no less than \$34,626,823. In 1881, fifty-four tons of coal were produced for every keg of powder used. In 1889 the amount was 39.36 tons per keg. "The increased consumption of powder—to the miner meant more expense; to the operator, more profits."

In a chapter on accidents an estimate is made of the loss to society of men in the mining industry who are killed or permanently disabled. The average age of those who lose their lives is 32.13 years; the total number in 1899 was 461 killed and 1,033 injured, and estimating the miner's average earnings as \$400 a year, the loss to society from 1890-99 would be \$54,190,496—an amount equal to one-half the entire

capital used in the anthracite coal industry to produce the 54,000,000 tons of coal in 1899! Of course this is but the economic side of a problem which is essentially a human problem; but the intelligent philanthropist will be thankful to Dr. Roberts that he first considers man as a factor in the economic process, thus clearing the field for a thorough study of man the human being, which is the purpose of the second volume—*The Anthracite Coal Communities*—"a study of the demography, the social, educational and moral life of the anthracite regions."

This book is written during and since the great strike of 1902, the chief significance of which, in the judgment of Dr. Roberts, lies in the fact that "Never before, in any industrial dispute, was it more clearly seen that the students of the industrial and social problems are laboring for identical ends, and that the reformers of the industrial and social world are fighting under the same banner." The author believes that a study of the conditions he describes will lead to a conviction that "considerations of patriotism demand the co-operation of all citizens for the future peace and progress of the anthracite communities."

The sociological problems of the anthracite coal communities are all to-day but phases of the one great problem introduced into the region by what Frank Julian Warne calls *The Slav Invasion*. There are two classes of people to be educated for life under these new conditions. The American must be educated to feel and show a brotherly spirit toward this Slavic population and these aliens must be educated in English and American language and ideals. The first is the chief desideratum. At present the Slav or Italian who has just arrived by the gravitation of poverty and ignorance often falls into the section of a mining village wholly destitute of moral or physical sanitation, and in this first contact with our native population it is frequently true that "the type nearest him is vile and uncomely."

Despite these initial disadvantages and other corrupting influences which continue to surround them, Dr. Roberts shows the Slavs a sturdy race, giving promise of both economic and social survival. In Shenandoah the Slavs, comprising about 60 per cent of the population, have accumulated property representing "a total investment in the town of \$1,320,000 in fifteen or twenty years." He has made an intimate study of the home, school and church life of these communities, and the chapter on "The Three Crises," treating of the marriage, parenthood, and death of the miner, is full of sympathy and wholesome suggestion.

¹ *The Anthracite Coal Industry*, Roberts, Peter, with introduction by Prof. W. G. Sumner, pp. 261. The MacMillan Company, New York and London, 1901. Price, \$3.50.

² *The Anthracite Coal Communities*, Roberts, Peter. The MacMillan Company, New York and London, 1904, pp. 387. Price, \$3.50.

while his arraignment of business and social leaders for their failure to attempt the leavening of society reads like the cry of the ancient Hebrew prophets against the careless shepherds of Israel. The statistics of infant mortality are tragic. "An enlightened philanthropy, which would impart to these mothers information regarding the care of infants and the best food for them in a climate which varies greatly from that of their native homes, would partly check this quenching of the torches. Everywhere in these mining towns the shiftless and intemperate bring many children into the world, whose bodies are not properly fed, whose minds are distorted and whose hearts are cursed. These parents have nothing, and falling into a state of indifference as to the morrow and its evils, they inflict society with their progeny, and scotch the advancement of man."

Among the social forces at work in the region, he says, "the United Mine Workers' Union is a beneficent and potent factor in obliterating racial suspicion and prejudice. If the organization is preserved and its usefulness enhanced, it will, more powerfully than aught else, lead the way to social progress and assimilation." His praise is not however, unqualified. He makes a strong appeal for attention to the moral as well as the economic interests of the people. "The anomalies in the judicial and political life of anthracite communities are ominous and unless arrested they will work the ruin of many."

The picture drawn of the typical miner's home applies not only to the Slav, but as well to the English-speaking people. His description of the domestic life is appreciative and delicate, and those familiar with these scenes can readily recall the pathetic outlines of the weary miner's wife, already breaking down at a time when her husband is in the vigor of his life, as she goes about her ceaseless toil in the unadorned little cottage. "They are worn out, their frames are shattered, they look prematurely old, and the causes are the burden of motherhood and the ceaseless toil of home. What is there of poetry and music in such a life and native-born girls of refined taste, who have seen it in all its dreadful reality, shun it as they would the galleys."

Much of this sacrifice might be avoided were the miner able to expend in home comforts the money paid to coal companies in excessive rents, and it will be difficult for these great corporations to answer the startling disclosures of cupidity here revealed. That poor men should be prohibited from buying a home by a corporation which systematically collects rental enough to repay the entire cost of construction in four or five years is injustice calling for measures more drastic than "philanthropy" offers.

The author exhaustively treats the problem of the public school and advocates prin-

ciples similar to those indicated in his contribution on another page of this number. Defects in the school system doubtless help to account for the excessive amount of child labor in the region. "The laws of our state relative to child labor are an intricate mass of confusing statutes, which well illustrate the legislative jobbery of our representatives, who disregard both science and history in their eagerness to do something whereby their political prospects may be enhanced. The law requires every employer to keep a register of all boys employed under sixteen years of age which may be seen by the inspectors. No employer does it. Certificates from the parents or guardians of the child, stating its age, are required before the child is employed. Employers secure these, but they are not reliable. The employer is protected, the child sacrificed, and a premium is put on perjury." A vigorous appeal is made for an educational system adapted to the needs of a society recognized to be industrial.

The relief of the dependent is shown in many instances to be administered by officials who have little regard for the interest either of the community or of those in need. The author believes the only way to put a check upon this extravagance is for private organizations to secure agents to revise the list and investigate the conditions of those seeking relief.

No phase of the miner's life seems to have escaped notice. The religious institutions and customs of the Slavs are discussed, the saloon is arraigned, the criminal is explained—both as to genesis and numbers—the dominant political and other social features of the people are analyzed, while the reader is never allowed for a moment to lose sight of the purpose of the book—to arouse society to the necessity of introducing into this region a scientific application of principles perfectly familiar, but too frequently ignored, especially in communities passing through a racial or an industrial transition.

While the remedies suggested will arouse divergent opinion, the two volumes will be read with an absorbing interest and permanent profit. Dr. Roberts has little patience with anything that savors of radical reform, or is otherwise than orthodox in economic theory, and at times appears to judge the entire socialist philosophy (which he regards as a menace) by the type of certain agitators who have played upon the ignorance and passion of the mining population. However, economists of all schools must agree with him that "the public conscience of the Anglo-Saxon nations lays greater stress on truth, sympathy and justice, than upon 'liberty, equality and fraternity.' The old Puritan characteristics of seeking the truth, practicing sympathy and enforcing justice, are not extinct. Our surest hope of reform of existing abuses is in the strong and active conscience of the leaders of men."

*The Slav Invasion and Mine Workers*¹

Reviewed by Walter E. Weyl
University Settlement

In the book before us Dr. Warne traces the effect of the new immigration from Eastern and Southern Europe since 1880 upon the economic, political, religious and social conditions in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania. He portrays in a somewhat roseate manner the standard of living of the former residents, bringing it into sharp contrast with the mode of life of the Slav immigrant upon his arrival. "Escaping, as he was, from an agricultural environment which had barely supplied food, clothing and shelter, the Slav came single-handed, alone. Wife and children he had none, nor wished for them. Placed in the anthracite region by the force of circumstances, without either the time or the means or the knowledge, even if he had the mental quality, to look elsewhere for work, the Slav could only supply his pressing physical demands by selling his labor. Under such conditions he was satisfied to live in almost any kind of a place, to wear almost anything that would clothe his nakedness, and to eat any kind of food that would keep body and soul together."

To the resulting antagonism of the two races or rather the two classes of races, Dr. Warne assigns the principal cause of the industrial, and above all, the labor history of the region. The lower standard of living of the Slav workman² enabled him to underbid the English-speaking mine worker, and to obtain a footing in the mines. This was especially easy as a large proportion of the workers are unskilled. For some time the custom prevailed for English miners to employ Slav laborers, but even this condition was not stable or permanent. Gradually the remuneration of the miners was cut down as a result of the existence in the anthracite regions of a large body of cheap labor. The rates per ton were upon the whole not reduced, but mining became more difficult and less remunerative as the veins became thinner and the expenditure for powder greater, while a considerable number of extra payments or allowances which had been customary in the past, were gradually reduced or entirely cut off. As a result the Slav laborer, satisfied with a smaller wage, became a miner and, first in the lower or Schuylkill, and finally in the

¹ *The Slav Invasion and the Mine Workers*. Warne, Frank Julian. Lippincott. Philadelphia and London, 1904. \$1.00.

² These immigrants were grouped together by the earlier residents of the district, who, themselves, were either native Americans or immigrants from Germany and the British Isles, and came to be known as "foreigners," or somewhat grotesquely, as "foreign-speaking peoples." Recently the word Slav has been applied to the whole of this new immigration, and it is in this sense that Dr. Warne uses the word.

upper regions, began to drive out the English-speaking miner.

The great anthracite coal strike of 1902 is attributed by Dr. Warne to the attempts on the part of the English-speaking miners to maintain their existence. Without the increase in wages gained by this strike and by the former strike of 1900, the very existence of the English-speaking miners, contends Dr. Warne, would have been rendered impossible. There is perhaps a certain element of truth in this contention, although it is probable that this consideration never consciously presented itself either to the English-speaking or Slav miners. What the strike did mean might rather be stated as a successful attempt on the part of the miners as a whole to base their wages on the demands of the men with a higher standard rather than upon the demands of those with a lower standard of living.

In the thirty years since their earliest irruption into the region, the Slav miners gradually acquired a higher standard of comfort and came to demand higher wages. The existence in the region since 1900 of a strong miners' union, the United Mine Workers of America, and the successful strikes of 1900 and 1902 emphasized the fact not only that the poorly placed miners were determined to raise their standard, but that it was possible to find a common basis of action between the English-speaking and the Slav workmen. Formerly, says Dr. Warne, "race antagonism, differences of habit, of tongue, of religion, had all tended to ostracize the Slav socially—to set him apart." The main cause, however, of the mutual jealousy and opposition of the past seems to have been economic, and with the increase in the standard of living of the Slav workmen of the anthracite regions, a large part of the animosity disappeared and the basis was formed for united action and for the creation of the union.

In the final paragraph of the next to the last chapter, Dr. Warne strikes the keynote of the present situation in the anthracite region. "Whatever nationality is to dominate the industry, a standard of living conformable to American conditions should be enforced upon the workers as well as upon capital. This is possible under present conditions only through such an organization as the United Mine Workers of America."

Dr. Warne is to be congratulated upon the careful and candid statement of the conditions of the life of the Slav worker in the anthracite fields.

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*Social Problems
and the
Presidential
Message.*

Theodore Roosevelt, police commissioner, signer of the tenement-house law, and friend of Jacob Riis, took a hand in writing the message to Congress which Theodore Roosevelt, president, submitted to the national legislature this week.

President Eliot, of Harvard, has said that the administration of a great university involves the treatment of all those problems which are pressing for solution in modern communities. Similarly, in taking the needs of the city of Washington as a text President Roosevelt expressed his views on municipal conditions in general. Philanthropic workers in Washington can feel gratified that their investigations in the national capital have led up to such an emphatic presentation of some of their claims, and as a reflex, enlarged consideration of these and kindred problems in other cities may be hastened. Overcrowding, sanitary ills, child labor, factory inspection, "race suicide," small parks, schools, juvenile courts, compulsory school attendance, public playgrounds—these are some of the subjects of "tremendous, vital importance" in their implications.

So, too, in the consideration of the problems of capital and labor with which the message opens, questions of the right to organization, of the "open shop," and of the employer's liability law (which is advocated) are taken up on the ground that "both in enactment and enforcement of law the federal government within its restricted sphere should set an example to the state governments."

In dealing with the subject of immigration and naturalization, the president's philosophy seems to be summed up in two phrases: "There is no danger of having too many immigrants of the right kind;" "The citizenship of this country should

not be debased." No discrimination because of race or religion is to be tolerated, but "above all we should not assist any man of an unworthy type, any man concerning whom we can say that he will himself be a bad citizen, or that his children will detract from instead of adding to the sum of good citizenship of the country."

In contrast to the specific recommendations for a revision of the naturalization laws, the designation of courts having jurisdiction, and the systematization of the issuance of certificates, the message refrains from making definite recommendations as to such immigration legislation as that advocated by Commissioner-General Sargent in his report.

To quote from the message:

*The City of
Washington as a
Model.*

In pursuing the set plan to make the city of Washington an example to other American municipalities several points should be kept in mind by the legislators. In the first place the people of this country should clearly understand that no amount of industrial prosperity, and above all no leadership in international industrial competition, can in any way atone for the sapping of the vitality of those who are usually spoken of as the working classes. The farmers, the mechanics, the skilled and unskilled laborers, the small shopkeepers, make up the bulk of the population of any country; and upon their well-being, generation after generation, the well-being of the country and the race depends. Rapid development in wealth and industrial leadership is a good thing, but only if it goes hand in hand with improvement and not deterioration, physical and moral. The overcrowding of cities and the draining of country districts are unhealthy and even dangerous symptoms in our modern life.

Overcrowding. We should not permit overcrowding in cities. In certain European cities it is provided by law that the population of towns shall not be allowed to exceed a very limited density for a given area, so that

the increase in density must be continually pushed back into a broad zone around the centre of the town, this zone having great avenues or parks within it. The death-rate statistics show a terrible increase in mortality, and especially in infant mortality, in overcrowded tenements. The poorest families in tenement houses live in one room and it appears that in these one-room tenements the average death-rate for a number of given cities at home and abroad is about twice what it is in a two-room tenement, four times what it is in a three-room tenement, and eight times what it is in a tenement consisting of four rooms or over. These figures vary somewhat for different cities, but they approximate in each city those given above; and in all cases the increase of mortality, and especially of infant mortality, with the decrease in the number of rooms used by the family and with the consequent overcrowding is startling. The slum exacts a heavy total of death from those who dwell therein; and this is the case not merely in the great crowded slums of high buildings in New York and Chicago but in the alley slums of Washington. In Washington people cannot afford to ignore the harm that this causes. No Christian and civilized community can afford to show a happy-go-lucky lack of concern for the youth of to-day; for, if so, the community will have to pay a terrible penalty of financial burden and social degradation in the to-morrow.

*Child-labor
Factory
Inspection.*

There should be severe child-labor and factory-inspection laws. It is very desirable that married women should not work in factories. The prime duty of the man is to work, to be the breadwinner; the prime duty of the woman is to be the mother, the housewife. All questions of tariff and finance sink into utter insignificance when compared with the tremendous, the vital importance of trying to shape conditions so that these two duties of the man and of the woman can be fulfilled under reasonably favorable circumstances. If a race does not have plenty of children, or if the children do not grow up, or if when they grow up they are unhealthy in body and stunted or vicious in mind, then that race is decadent, and no heaping up of wealth, no splendor of momentary material prosperity can avail in any degree as offsets.

The congress has the same power of legislation for the District of Columbia which the State legislatures have for the various states. The problems incident to our highly complex modern civilization, with its manifold and perplexing tendencies both for good and for evil, are far less sharply accentuated in the city of Washington than in most other cities. For this very reason it is easier to deal with the various phases of these problems in Wash-

ington, and the District of Columbia government should be a model for the other municipal governments of the nation in all such matters as supervision of the housing of the poor, the creation of small parks in the districts inhabited by the poor, in laws affecting labor, in laws providing for the taking care of the children, in truant laws, and in providing schools.

Juvenile Courts.

In the vital matter of taking care of children much advantage could be gained by a careful study of what has been accomplished in such states as Illinois and Colorado by the juvenile courts. The work of the juvenile court is really a work of character building: It is now generally recognized that young boys and young girls who go wrong should not be treated as criminals, not even necessarily as needing reformation, but rather as needing to have their characters formed, and for this end to have them tested and developed by a system of probation. Much admirable work has been done in many of our commonwealths by earnest men and women who have made a special study of the needs of those classes of children which furnish the greatest number of juvenile offenders, and therefore the greatest number of adult offenders; and by their aid, and by profiting by the experiences of the different states and cities in these matters, it would be easy to provide a code for the District of Columbia.

*Housing
Investigation.*

Several considerations suggest the need for systematic investigation into and improvement of housing conditions in Washington. The hidden residential alleys are breeding grounds of vice and disease and should be opened into minor streets. For a number of years influential citizens have joined with the district commissioners in the vain endeavor to secure laws permitting the condemnation of insanitary dwellings. The local death-rates, especially from preventable diseases, are so unduly high as to suggest that the exceptionable wholesomeness of Washington's better section is offset by bad conditions in her poorer neighborhoods. A special commission on housing and health conditions in the national capital would not only bring about the reformation of existing evils but would also formulate an appropriate building code to protect the city from mammoth brick tenements and other evils, which threaten to develop here as they have in other cities. That the nation's capital should be made a model for other municipalities is an ideal which appeals to all patriotic citizens everywhere, and such a special commission might map out and organize the city's future development in lines of civil social service, just as Major L'Enfant and the recent park commission planned the arrangement of her streets and parks.

*Compulsory
School
Attendance.*

It is mortifying to remember that Washington has no compulsory school attendance law and that careful inquiries indicate the habitual absence from school of some twenty per cent of all children between the ages of eight and fourteen. It must be evident to all who consider the problems of neglected child life or the benefits of compulsory education in other cities that one of the most urgent needs of the national capital is a law requiring the school attendance of all children, this law to be enforced by attendance agents directed by the board of education.

Playgrounds.

Public playgrounds are necessarily means for the development of wholesome citizenship in modern cities. It is important that the work inaugurated here through voluntary efforts should be taken up and extended through congressional appropriation of funds sufficient to equip and maintain numerous convenient small playgrounds upon land which can be secured without purchase or rental. It is also desirable that small vacant places be purchased and reserved as small-park playgrounds in densely settled sections of the city which now have no public open spaces and are destined soon to be built up solidly. All these needs should be met immediately. To meet them would entail expenses; but a corresponding saving could be made by stopping the building of streets and levelling of ground for purposes largely speculative in outlying parts of the city.

Wife-Beaters.

There are certain offenders whose criminality takes the shape of brutality and cruelty towards the weak who need a special type of punishment. The wife-beater, for example, is inadequately punished by imprisonment; for imprisonment may often mean nothing to him, while it may cause hunger and want to the wife and children who have been the victims of his brutality. Probably some form of corporal punishment would be the most adequate way of meeting this kind of crime.

*Commissioner
Sargent's Report
on Immigration.*

Commissioner-General Sargent's report upon immigration for the year ending June last, advance sheets of which were finally released for publication this week, is a document crowded with facts of social interest and will be reviewed more comprehensively when published in its completed form.

In the first place the report is of particular interest by way of comparison with the year before, one of an unprecedented influx of immigrants. The numbers fell off over 44,000 or over five per cent, but

were still above 800,000 and greater than those of any year except the preceding.

This net decrease when analyzed proves to have been in spite of an increase of over 19,000 from the United Kingdom and nearly 14,000 more from other north European countries; on the other hand the Italian contingent was less by over 37,000 and the Austro-Hungarian by nearly 27,000.

A second very interesting part of the report is the entirely new set of tables compiled by special investigators as to alien inmates of penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions in the United States. Unfortunately, however, as is so often the case with statistics, the facts one would most desire to get at are not available, *viz.*, in this case the relative proportion of institution cases among the different racial groups. The basis for such facts is lacking until there is census recognition of such groups alongside of the present presentation by countries of origin only. This classification did very well so long as emigration was mainly from countries of the homogeneous type, but "born in Austria-Hungary" may mean an Italian, a German, a Jew, a Magyar, a Pole, a Bohemian or one of the numerous lesser Slav groups there represented.

The year covered by the report is also interesting as being the first completed under the legislation of March 3, 1903. It is disappointing to find that the clause providing for the fining of steamship companies for bringing in obviously diseased immigrants appears to be evaded by getting deposits from such immigrants sufficient to more than cover the risk.

In addition to reports on immigration through Canada, and on the Chinese, an interesting report is included from Commissioner Williams and there are reports of importance from special inspectors sent to Europe to investigate conditions, and especially abusive conditions, attending emigration for America.

Questions connected with contract labor, disease and naturalization frauds and with undesirable if not illegal stimulation of emigration by transportation agencies are also taken up. The commissioner continues to urge legislation to secure (1) better distribution of immigrants as regards their place of settlement in this

country; (2) adequate physical inspection, at the port of embarkation, and (3) the keeping of statistics of outgoing alien travel in order to know—what is now impossible to get at—the net alien inflow.

*Openings
for Philanthropic
Workers.*

No better evidence of the need for increasing the resources for philanthropic training could be had than the predicament in which the Employment Exchange Department of CHARITIES finds itself. The department was taken in charge in the fall by Miss Helen M. Kelsey, formerly registrar of Wellesley College, who brought to it the resources of the high class professional bureau of which she is the head—the Fifth Avenue Agency, New York.

The department has lately been asked to fill positions in various branches of philanthropic and social activity which offer opportunities for the exercise of individual initiative and trained judgment. Organizations all over the United States need secretaries, visitors, investigators, inspectors, superintendents, etc., but their difficulty is to find the men and women trained and experienced in the several lines and at salaries, ranging at the start, from forty to one hundred dollars a month. There must be among the readers of CHARITIES, or among their friends, students with sociological training who would be glad of an opportunity to do three months' practical work, in inspection or investigating; office men with an intelligent interest in civic affairs who would find congenial and useful activity in a social betterment club; head-workers in settlements who desire to study and meet new conditions; teachers who are capable of superintending schools for charitable organizations; social workers who could organize the various charities of a small city. From such people, and especially from those who, while holding fair positions, are open to opportunities in kindred fields which would mean legitimate advancement, correspondence is solicited. The usefulness of the department is in no sense limited to those out of work.

Similarly, heads of societies and institutions who may not be in immediate need of assistants, would do well to indicate the specific qualifications of the sort of

workers they would like to be brought into touch with.

*The
Goodsell-Bedell
Bill Still a
Stumbling Block.*

Again the Goodsell-Bedell law has blocked the way for the establishment of a country tuberculosis sanatorium for New York city, this time the Sullivan County Board of Supervisors having exercised the power conferred upon them by the law to deny the application of New York city for permission to build a sanatorium on the summits of Shawangunk mountains, a mile from the village of Bloomingburgh.

The problem is not merely one of rousing rural districts to the point of showing an intelligent consideration of the pressing needs of the great urban centers, but of driving home the responsibility of ministering to their own needs. A movement in this direction manifested itself at the recent Minnesota State Conference of Charities.

The situation in New York state may be summed up as follows: On November 1, for the estimated 30,000 consumptives in New York city, there were available but 1,962 beds, or one bed for every fifteen cases. For the 22,000 state cases there were available 193 beds. Since of this total of 193 beds, 118 are for local use only in Buffalo, Rochester and Westchester county, there remain, available for the estimated 18,250 state cases the sum of seventy-five beds, or one bed for every 244 cases.

The query of those interested in New York city's health is: How long will those who make no better provision than this for their own, be permitted to stand in the way of those who believe that, even on a basis of dollars and cents, it is cheaper to cure than to allow to die?

*Finicalness
as a
Neighborhood
Contagion.*

A slight variation has recently been introduced into the public's usual reasoning to justify its deep-seated aversion to institutions for consumptives by the residents of Mt. Airy, a suburb of Philadelphia. A small private sanatorium has recently been opened there by a former head nurse at the White Haven Sanatorium. The neighbors complained to the board of health, asking that

the institution be suppressed on the ground that it was a nuisance. After several inspections the board of health decided that it was not a nuisance within the legal definition of the term. The neighbors, nothing daunted, have now filed a bill in equity in the common pleas court, praying that the use of the property for the purpose for which it is at present used be declared a breach of the title. The plaintiffs assert that the beds, and even the occupants of the tents on the lawn, may be seen from the street; that the patients are a source of annoyance to the neighbors because they cough; and that consumption is an infectious disease, liable to be spread by the dried expectoration of the patients.

The defendant asserts that all sputum is disposed of carefully; that the institution is conducted in accordance with modern hygienic principles; and that the patients do not expose themselves in improper attire. The outcome of the controversy is not yet apparent.

The argument from the infectious nature of the disease is, of course, a classic pretext for objecting to the presence of a sanatorium, but it has remained for the sensitive Philadelphians to call the attention of the public to the impropriety of allowing tents used for sleeping purposes to be immodestly exposed on the lawn within view of the street.

*Where the
Need is Greatest
in New York
for a
State Hospital.*

The State Commission in Lunacy held a hearing November 29 and 30 on the sites proposed for the new state hospital. By chapter 541 of the laws of 1903 the State Commission in Lunacy was "authorized to select, subject to the approval of the governor, a site for a state hospital for the insane at some place in the counties in the northeastern part of the state north of the county of Rensselaer." In pursuance of the provisions of this law several sites in Washington county have been offered the commission, which has made an inspection of the various pieces of real estate, and has also had the sites visited by committees of state hospital superintendents. At the hearing last week there were some fifty Washington county men present representing land in Cambridge, Shushan, Greenwich, Whitehall, and Comstocks, the

last of which was also recommended by the former railway commissioner, Isaac V. Baker, of that town. There were also representatives from Albany and Troy to urge that the site selected be within easy reach of these places, as nearly half the insane population of the counties which now send their patients to the Hudson River State Hospital at Poughkeepsie come from the two counties of Albany and Rensselaer.

On the following day, Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, appeared and spoke in opposition to the selection of a site in Washington county. He called attention to the fact that while the law of 1903 was merely permissive, authorizing but not requiring the State Commission in Lunacy to locate the new state hospital in the northeastern part of the state, the general insanity law requires that the commission "shall recommend to the legislature the establishment of other state hospitals in such parts of the state as in their judgment will best meet the requirements of such insane."

Inasmuch as the existing overcrowding is almost wholly in the southeastern part of the state, Mr. Folks thought that the first new state hospital should be located near New York city and that the second, should two be established, should be in the vicinity of Albany.

Notes of the Week.

The Closing Up of the Johnstown Relief Fund.—Early in November Robert C. Ogden and Francis B. Reeves, representing the Johnstown Relief Commission of 1889, performed the final official act of the commission in paying over to the Conemaugh Valley Memorial Hospital the sum of \$3,075. This is the sixteenth and final payment to that hospital. The last action taken by the commission as a whole was to create annuities of \$75 payable annually in November to each child orphan of the flood until it should attain the age of sixteen years, to erect the hospital, and to pay to it annually the sums held for the benefit of orphans who should die before their sixteenth year. The sum just paid represents the shares of five deceased orphans. Of the whole number (about eighty) three were born to widows after the flood.

Tuberculosis Provision in Saginaw, Michigan.—The sum of \$30,000 has recently been given by Miss Helen Wells, of Saginaw, Mich., for the purpose of erecting a spe-

cial tuberculosis building in connection with the well-equipped general hospital already in existence. Pending the erection of this building a part of the sum is available for the salary of a visiting nurse and other provision for the care of poor consumptives in their homes.

New York City Charitable Budget.—The budget of New York city for the year 1905, recently passed by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, shows appropriations to private charitable institutions amounting to \$3,098,356.38. Compared with the appropriation for the present year, \$2,846,249.55, this is an increase of \$252,106.83, or .0889 per cent, but of this increase, \$139,300 is for deficiencies of the year 1904. The only change in the lists of institutions is the omission of the Temporary Home for Children of Queens County, to which \$500 was allotted last year, and the 26th Ward Homeopathic Hospital and Dispensary, to which \$125.74 was allotted last year, and the addition of the New York Eye and Ear Infirmary, which is allotted \$5,000. There is no change in the general conditions under which the appropriations are made nor in the rates of payment. The Department of Public Charities receives \$1,977,490.16, an increase over this year of \$75,000, or .0394 per cent. Bellevue and Allied Hospitals receive \$614,800.78, as against \$598,880.78 for this year, an increase of \$15,920, or .0265 per cent.

One Way to Get a Playground.—The Civitas Club of Brooklyn, through its committee on education, secured for the borough last summer a playground in a somewhat novel fashion. The committee investigated congested districts in the city, decided which one was the most needy, and, having decided, looked for an available piece of property therein. They found one in a large lot bounded by Union and President streets and Fourth Avenue. This tract was divided into lots belonging to several individuals. The committee put itself in communication with all these owners and finally received their permission to use the property for the summer. Funds were next raised among members to fence in the property, and finally it was turned over to the Board of Education, which proceeded to equip it, and maintain there a well-patronized playground for the usual term of six weeks. This method of co-operation is to be continued during the coming summer.

New York House of Refuge.—The superintendency of the New York House of Refuge, a position left vacant by the resignation of Col. Omar V. Sage, has been tendered Joseph P. Byers, formerly secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and now warden of the Eastern Penitentiary, Pennsylvania.

The Tenement-house Law.

The New York Times, December 1, 1904.

The opinion handed down by the New York Court of Appeals affirming the constitutionality of the tenement-house law at present in force should end a futile opposition to its reasonable requirements. The contention that it was in contravention of the constitutional rights of citizens owning tenement houses in that it took away private property without compensation never had a leg to stand upon, and the money spent in the effort to establish this contention was chiefly of advantage to the lawyers. The state, in the exercise of its reasonable police powers, has the right to say that only under certain conditions shall property of a certain class be used for certain purposes. Under these same powers it has the right to say that property not safely habitable shall not be used as habitations. It may vacate buildings unsafe from any cause, and may refuse to permit them to be occupied as multiple apartment dwellings unless they have the conveniences and appointments which experience has shown are essential to health and comfort.

The contention that to deny an owner the right to use as a tenement house a building not suited to that purpose is equivalent to taking away his property without compensation is as absurd as to maintain a like contention if the owner of a building is not permitted to use it as a storehouse for dynamite or other high explosives. The tenement-house law is clearly an exercise of the police powers of the state, and a very reasonable use at that. The courts have taken this view of the matter from the first, and the threat of the tenement-house owners who do not care to make their buildings safe from the point of view of the public health to take the matter on final appeal up to the Supreme Court of the United States would seem to indicate that they are badly advised. Equally futile is work at Albany. Public opinion would not tolerate any other modification of the tenement-house law than one increasing the stringency of its provisions, which are really much too liberal in their sanitary requirements; and if such a law as the owners want could be "jammed" through the legislature, the governor who failed to veto it promptly and unconditionally would be less wise than any governor we have had at Albany in many years.

The best and cheapest course open to the tenement-house owners is to comply with the law, or, if they will not do this, to use their buildings for other purposes. That they have not seen this without costly litigation attests the wisdom of those who were instrumental in securing the passage of the present law and who are pledged to its defense against all efforts to subvert it or repeal it.

The Thirteenth Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Correction

A SCHOOL CURRICULUM TO STRENGTHEN CHARACTER—TUBERCULOSIS—THE JUVENILE COURT

A. W. Gutridge

General Secretary St. Paul Associated Charities

There was no formal announcement to that effect, but prevention was undoubtedly the keynote of the Thirteenth Minnesota State Conference of Charities and Correction held at Faribault, November 16-18. It showed itself particularly in the clear-cut discussion of such subjects as the county hospital and district nurse, of tuberculosis, the juvenile court, the principles underlying charitable and correctional work, in an analysis of what should characterize the ideal county commissioner and of the opportunities for settlement work in the smaller cities, in the presentation of the educational aims of the American Political Science Association and in the consideration of a common school curriculum which would tend more to lessen pauperism and crime.

Again, the views of prevention set forth turned almost wholly in one direction—toward education. A course of study and a system of discipline applicable to both school and home life, which will bear more directly than present methods do upon the formation of stronger character and the development of more perfect personality, were advocated. The conference distinctly recognized the superior claims of that charity which concerns itself with intelligently cultivating in young people as self-control which, in after life, not only will keep them from becoming paupers and criminals and from contracting at least some forms of bodily disease, but will enable them to deal with social problems with greater wisdom. The fact was emphasized that education is not made effective by instruction alone, however thorough, but chiefly by enabling people to work into actual living the truths already known to them.

The president's address was upon the tramp. It called upon people to quit feeding the vagrant and urged that there is need of stations but a few miles apart, supported by the public, where an opportunity to work for lodgings or a meal can be furnished; but it emphasized, also,

the fact that "the real vagrancy is the vagrancy of thought and sympathy." It was pointed out that this difficulty can be met only by education of both giver and beggar, and of the community generally. The existence of a tramp in the community can not be expressed in terms of one bad man and a few score of good people; it indicates moral disease in the community generally.

County and township systems of outdoor relief were considered by A. O. Cowles, of Mantorville, for the county, and T. J. Conlin, of Faribault, for the township, the management of workhouses by F. R. McDonald, superintendent of the Minneapolis workhouse, and lockups by D. A. Lindsay, agent of the State Board of Control. The liveliest interest of the second session was awakened by the address of Mrs. C. C. Higbee, of St. Paul, upon the need for a separate training school for girls. The State Federation of Women's Clubs has taken the matter up as the philanthropic subject most needing the attention of the state legislature at its approaching session. Minnesota has at present but one institution for its delinquent boys and girls. The conference was unanimous in its demand that a separate school for girls be established. Mrs. A. R. Colvin, of St. Paul, urged that the orphan asylum fills a want by providing a suitable place of temporary care for children whose homes are for the time broken up.

*Practical
Health Measures
Throughout the
State.*

In the paper by Dr. Tomlinson of the St. Peter State Hospital upon the county hospital and the district nurse, the argument went to show the humane and economical advantage of county hospitals, that they would not only lessen pain and suffering but also reduce to a minimum the number of people unfit for productive occupations. They would at the same time educate the community in the ways of healthful living would largely do away with the need for

poorhouses, and would serve as centers for the work of district nurses. The speaker contended that the district nurse is needed quite as much in the country as in the city.

This paper was a very fitting introduction to the three papers which followed upon tuberculosis, and which in the intense interest created were the feature of the conference. Dr. G. D. Head, of Minneapolis, discussed the value of the dispensary, Dr. H. L. Taylor, of St. Paul, of sanatoria and Dr. H. M. Braken, secretary of the State Board of Health, of things to be done in the homes. The papers while claiming to set forth nothing new, indicated painstaking preparation by the writers and were filled with helpful suggestions as to what could be done at once. A press agent was appointed to give the widest possible circulation to the papers in the newspapers of the state for the benefit of the people generally. Dr. Head admitted that for many years to come the vast majority of cases, especially among the poor, must of necessity be managed at home and urged the adaptability of the dispensary to home treatment and the practicability of the establishment of dispensaries in small cities and towns. But more especially he said:

The chief need at present is co-operation between the dispensaries of our cities and towns and local tuberculosis committees composed of laymen and medical men who have in charge the general management of the tuberculosis work in their communities. The committee should use all the dispensaries of its city or town for the purpose of reaching, educating, and treating the tuberculous poor. I do not mean that this should be the only way in which the work should be carried on, but the dispensaries should be one channel by which the poor with tuberculosis should be taken care of.

The general tuberculosis committee with its financial backing having put itself into close relations with the dispensary, what can be accomplished by the dispensary in the crusade against tuberculosis? It can examine all suspected cases which present themselves, using every means known to medical science to detect the early stages of the disease, including the taking of a careful history of the case and keeping a record of the same, a painstaking complete physical examination of the patient, a bacteriological examination of the sputum, and finally the injection of tuberculin in the still doubtful cases. This latter test it seems to the writer to be one of the most

neglected but most helpful agents at our command for detecting early lesions of the disease.

After a careful examination the dispensary can consign the incipient and curable cases to a sanatorium. If there is no sanatorium, or if for good reasons the patient cannot go away from home for treatment, it can outline and direct the home treatment of the case. At this point a vast amount of detail must be worked out in the dispensary management of these cases and just here the tuberculosis committee of laymen and physicians with trained nurses under its charge comes to the help of the dispensary physician. Let me illustrate. Here is a poor patient with incipient consumption who presents himself for treatment at the dispensary. Has he friends or children depending upon him for support? If he has, how can they be provided for while he is away under treatment? If circumstances are such that he cannot leave his home, can home treatment be provided for him? If home environment is unsuitable for successful treatment, can he be placed in proper surroundings for recovery? Can a tent be put up in the yard, or a bed on the veranda? Can the fire-escape or roof be utilized to keep the patient in fresh air? Can plenty of cream, eggs and milk be provided for the patient? If the case is an advanced one and there is no hope of cure, what are the conditions at home? Are there children in the family? Do they sleep with the sick parent? What are the measures taken to destroy the sputum? Are sputum cups provided and is the patient using them? Are other persons in the same family affected? All these details and a thousand more must be carefully studied out and talked over between the dispensary physicians and some one whom they can trust to visit and inspect the home surroundings. The dispensary physicians cannot make these inspections. A good trained nurse should be provided whose salary is paid by the tuberculosis committee. The committee likewise shall furnish funds to carry on the work. Constantly in touch with the committee on the one hand and the dispensary physician on the other, the nurse prevents misguided efforts and unifies the work. There seems to the writer no special reason why all the business details connected with this work should be done at the dispensary as some writers seem to think necessary. Let the exclusive medical work be done at the dispensary. Here have the patients come to receive their examinations and instructions from the physician. The remainder of the details, namely, the providing of food, proper clothing, sputum cups, literature of instruction, details of home ventilation, out-of-door living, etc., all these can be done from quarters entirely outside of the dispensary. Given a dispensary where these cases can be examined and their treatment managed by intelligent physicians; given well-trained nurses who

will work in harmony with the physicians and do conscientiously their whole duty, making their reports to the general committee; given a committee of intelligent laymen who will provide the funds needed to do what the nurses and physicians ask—and the home treatment of the tuberculous poor is as nearly solved as it can be.

The Juvenile Court.

In his address upon the juvenile court Timothy D. Hurley, of Chicago, explained in detail the great need for legislation in every state and showed how it is practicable to have such a court in every county. It was a speech calculated to lead people to undertake the work. Dr. Samuel G. Smith, of St. Paul, president of the National Conference, spoke briefly upon the true motive and method in work for the dependent and criminal. Trying to pick out a pauper or law-breaker here and there and lift him up will always be futile. Improvement is accomplished by raising the standard of living of all. In this raising of the standard of living, however, some who have been considered of average development of personality will be left behind, will be relatively below par, defective people. This should not be forgotten by social teachers.

The meeting of the county officials section was given character by the paper upon the ideal county commissioner by A. J. Eckstein of New Ulm, vice-president of the conference, who presided at the general sessions.

Character Building.

In his paper on a common school curriculum which will tend more to lessen pauperism and crime, Dr. Towne, of Carleton College, Northfield, gave expression to the spirit of the conference with respect to the need of laying greater stress upon character development:

It is a just complaint that the 'child is taught how to get a living, but not how to live.' . . . The teacher should be selected primarily with a view to character, power, and personality, and not, as is so often done, merely on the basis of a certificate of scholarly attainments. . . . In looking up this subject it was evident that in the school conferences and in the educational journals more time had been given to the discussion of the merits of the vertical system of writing than to the necessity, or method, of dealing with the

child's moral nature. . . . In one of the schools of Chicago, where the conditions were particularly unfavorable and the need of moral training very great, truly remarkable results were attained through special attention paid systematically to this one phase—the personality of the teacher. The superintendent was given full power in the hiring of teachers, and would hire no teacher whom he had not seen in the school-room, and who did not show a love and sympathy in dealing with the children. Special attention in that one phase wrought wonderful results in these children who came from the homes of foreigners who were largely employed in the car-shops. These young people were taught to respect their laboring fathers and mothers, that they themselves could not be respected unless they worked; they were taught courtesy to their teachers and to each other. The whole attitude of the children was changed to one of helpfulness and co-operation. The element of antagonism disappeared almost entirely through the influence beyond the children into the home. In many cases the home life was changed. Ideas of cleanliness and order were carried into the homes. The success in this as in other schools that I have been able to observe or learn about, has been due primarily not to change in the course of study, but to the personality of the teachers.

The need for settlement work in small cities was presented by Miss Alice J. Mott, of Faribault, and the opportunities by Miss Eleanor Hanson of the Associated Charities of St. Paul.

Dr. W. A. Schaper, of the University of Minnesota, presented an interesting view of the educational aims of the American Political Science Association. On motion of C. E. Faulkner, superintendent of the Washburn Home, Minneapolis, the conference instructed the president to appoint a committee to promote co-operation.

The state schools for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded, are located at Faribault and many visited them. The next conference is to be held at St. Peter.

Officers were elected as follows: President, A. W. Gutridge, St. Paul; vice-presidents, William A. Schaper, Minneapolis, and the Rev. J. H. Gaughan, Red Wing; secretary, E. D. Solenberger, Minneapolis; enrolling secretary, H. C. Withrow, Duluth; elective members of the executive committee, O. B. Gould, Winona, A. J. Eckstein, New Ulm, Miss Alice J. Mott, Faribault, Mrs. H. A. Merrill, Owatonna, F. L. Randall, St. Cloud, and Louis Pfund, Ada.

Child-Saving and the Standards of the Naturalist

Sherman C. Kingsley

Superintendent Chicago Relief and Aid Society

To discover the foundation principles of Christianity we realize more and more that we must try to understand its great Founder. Political economists, in their search for fundamental truths and principles are wont to say "back to Smith," or "back to Mill." The worker among children must evermore try, even as did the great Froebel, to know and understand the child mind and heart.

Henry D. Thoreau, living a secluded life near his beloved Walden Pond, tried to know his neighbors of the wood. For hours at a time he would lie on the grass and watch a chip-munk in its busy antics about a stump or an old stone wall. Thompson Seton spends weeks and years making the acquaintance of the Sand Hill Stag, Lobo, king of wolves, and Johnny Bear. Neither went to a menagerie for his observations. Each studied his subject in an environment which was intrinsically appropriate. A grizzly, swaying his body with pendulum-like rhythm from one side of a cage to another, is at a manifest disadvantage; and a chip-munk in a cage with ten or fifty other chip-munks would not and could not have told Thoreau what he wanted to know.

If the naturalist must choose so wisely the setting for his study of the ant and the bee, the chip-munk and the bear, and if to really know insects and animals he must observe with such accuracy, sympathy, patience, and love, who shall measure the obligation resting upon those who preside over the destinies of children?

The foundation principles of good child-saving work may be broadly considered under two heads: First, our duty towards the child in relation to his own family, and second, our duty towards the child who has no family or who must be removed from his family.

What then is the first duty? At the very beginning of the family life the minister repeats, "What God hath joined together, let no man put asunder." The

bond between parent and child is of divine origin. That relationship exists while charity workers come and go, whether boards of directors have changed or dissolved. There are lonely children, grown children perhaps, and lonely parents each searching in vain for the other while perhaps the worker who did the placing has long since forgotten both child and parent. I have no doubt that thousands of children might have been saved to their families if such a department as the aid department of Mr. Hart's society had always been a feature of children's work. We need equipment for this kind of work and once equipped we shall find increasing pressure for such activity.

We are creating a literature about children, we are slowly formulating standards for placing children in families; we are substantially agreed that for the normal child of tender years a family is the best place. And are we making equal progress at saving children in their own homes, with their own families? We should not remove a child from his family because we have an empty bed in our institution, because some one can pay, or because we know an ideal family where a child is wanted. Above all, in the darkest hour of their lives, parents should not be asked to sign away their children.

One may fairly ask, indeed, if the children's rights do not also include the right to be saved from evil and brutal parents. Emphatically yes. But separation presupposes the greatest wisdom and devotion on the part of those responsible for the child's removal and the very fact that a society is resourceful, persistent, and devotedly conscientious in its efforts to reconstruct the family, will make the child of hopeless parents all the more secure. Courts and magistrates will have increased confidence and faulty commitments and distorted evidence will not menace the child as they do to-day.

The Boston Children's Friend Society, of which until recently I was general secretary, has kept up its relation with

*The Duty to
the Child in the
Family.*

families for periods reaching into years. This costs money, often large sums. It sees to it that every cent of expense that can be borne by relatives is collected. It has its disappointments, of course, but the results are in the main satisfactory and the actual experience affords all the argument necessary for continuing and developing the work along this line; we must know every resource that the community affords, and be in touch with every agency that can help to save a family.

Not so many years ago the attitude towards illegitimate children was fairly shown by the two baskets of the turn cradle at the door. There was always an empty one waiting; the child could be swung in and no questions asked. The most complete statement of the present attitude of leading workers on this subject is found in the report of the State Board of Children's Guardians of New Jersey for 1903. It is in part as follows: "The policy of this board is to persuade a mother to keep her child and thus to prevent a separation, which we believe to be both unwise and unnecessary—unwise because the child needs its natural food and its mother's care and because the newly awakened love and sense of responsibility are the mother's best hope for her salvation; unnecessary because it is not difficult to find positions at service in new surroundings for the mother with her baby. To justify our position in the matter, we addressed a letter to well-known charity workers, both public and private, all over the United States and Canada, asking them for an expression of opinion in regard to keeping illegitimate children with their mothers. Thirty-two replies were received and the verdict in favor of our policy was almost unanimous, there being but one of the thirty-two who favored separation."

The special agencies that have been organized in New York city and elsewhere for providing situations for mother and children have accumulated an experience which leaves the wisdom of this method quite beyond successful controversy. In the sixty-four Florence Crittenton Homes the same plan is practiced of keeping mother and child together.

This does not mean that there are not exceptions. It means that a profound

study impresses upon us more and more the sacredness of family ties, that there is in these ties of blood, a family individuality, a family destiny, a family salvation which should and must be worked out by the family as a family if worked out at all.

*The Duty to the
Child Without
a Family.*

What principles should guide us in our second duty, the care of the child who has no family, or having relatives, cannot safely remain with them.

Not long ago I read, in an institution, a placard which stated that one hundred dollars would save a boy. I have read similar statements when the sum given was thirty-six and fifty dollars. From 800 to 1,000 boys were placed in three states by that organization and less than half the time of one man was given to their supervision. In receiving children do we not assume the responsibilities of parents? The child is taken because that responsibility is lacking and because the child needs it. Was one hundred dollars a careful estimate of food and clothes and shelter and car fare needed to get a boy to his new destination? It certainly did not cover parental solicitude, wisdom and care. To an inquiry as to how the placing work was done, how the new relationships were adjusted, whether some one took the lad, whether the good man or woman came, or how it was done, the reply was, "Oh no, sir, we send them and we never lost a boy." Were they thinking of little lads with lumps in their throats and quivering lips and with feelings in their hearts which they could not voice—were they thinking of these things—not merely of transportation, for live stock and World's Fair exhibits will almost surely reach their destination. My observation is that it should cost much more than thirty-six, fifty or one hundred dollars to save a child and that if we thus limit ourselves we do not know whether he is saved or not. It seems to me that the worker who makes such a statement commits a serious educational error.

Another man had placed 500 children here and there over a large state. There was no regular supervision, but to know how things were going, a hurried visitation was made. He found only three bad

situations among the whole 500. We ventured the opinion that one person responsible for 500 children thus placed, never would find anything wrong. No scheme for supervision—500 hurried visits. One of the three cases that was not satisfactory was that of a young girl. Something led him to bring her back and it was only after three weeks' association with a good woman in the employ of the society that the child told her story—how a young man in the family, a son who had ruined another girl who once lived in the family, had harrowed her almost beyond endurance. But for this chance visit, the child would have had no friendly ear for her pitiful story.

Teachers in the public schools with fifty or seventy-five pupils before them every day for nine months of the year regret their inability to know the individual child. Are we, too, not impressed with the difficulty and delicacy of the task of really knowing the child and getting his confidence? That parent is fortunate who has the full confidence of his boys and girls. You may know by that token that he is a good parent. Imagine 500 boys and girls with no steadfast, constant friend, no one who comes, no one whom the child claims as a friend. Yes, but the family are his friends, his parents. Yet would we take all that for granted if our Dorothy and Richard, our Elizabeth or Roger were among those who had the homes selected for them in this way. It is our business to know whether the child has gone to happiness or to wretched exile. Supervision makes work and brings unpleasant things to our ears, stories that make us lie awake nights. But we do not ask that the childish ills and problems of our own boys and girls be kept from us for our peace of mind. We are anxious about the boy when he goes to college or to work in the city; and our little girl grown big, father and mother keep the light burning till she is safe home at night and when she is away, are we not concerned if the weekly letter is overdue?

This recognition of our delicate obligations, of the children's rights, is difficult enough even when supervision is one of our guiding principles. Workers come and go, but the child's need remains.

Sometimes he is at a great distance and information reaches us through one or more different persons. This suggests the need of trained agents, persons known to the superintendent. If I must hear the diagnosis of my child's disease second hand, how important for my peace of mind, how necessary for wise action, that the person who brings me that message shall do it with absolute accuracy. So it is with the superintendent who must make vital decisions on the basis of reports.

It takes courage to defy statistics. If 2,000 were fed at Thanksgiving last year, we want to make it 2,500 this year. We want to show a bigger number of children dealt with this year than the year before. It would appeal to contributors. But ought we not to regard ourselves as commissioned to do only what we can do well? If we teach the public that fifty dollars or one hundred dollars will save a child, the public will accept the teaching, so will county supervisors, overseers of the poor and public officials in general. Private societies are supposed to lead in educational matters pertaining to philanthropic work. Their teaching should be sound.

*The Obligations
of
Childhood.*

As the naturalist shows devotion and patience, wisdom and zeal in his work, even so and to a greater degree the worker in this profession should be a lover and profound student of childhood. Let us emphasize the sacredness of the family and urge patience, sympathy and resourcefulness in trying to hold it together. In our relation to the child who has no family or is removed from it, let us urge for him the same manner of care that we think necessary for our own. He may have been the victim of wretched parents; he should not be made the victim of wretched institutionalism or of wretched placing-out. I plead for the best that is in the best men and women who can be had for this work. I know of no nobler or more sacred and responsible calling. May we more and more grasp the truth voiced by the Master when, long ago, he singled out that little one and said that to come to in the knowledge and possession of all that is best, here and hereafter, we must become like the little child.

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The Tuberculosis Fight in an Industrial City. Organized and systematic efforts for the consumptive have been initiated in Pittsburgh by an association of citizens. The first piece of work will be the establishment of a free hospital. Four acres of ground on a hill in the heart of the city, together with buildings which can be adapted to hospital uses, have been given for the purpose. The house has a capacity of fifty beds and there are other buildings suitable for an infirmary and an attendants' cottage. The situation at an altitude of 1,200 feet commands a view of the Allegheny and Ohio river valleys, and is considered by medical authorities in the city the most desirable that could be secured.

It is intended that this hospital shall form the nucleus of a system for the control and prevention of tuberculosis in the cities of Pittsburgh and Allegheny. As the first step in meeting one of the vital social problems of perhaps the most remarkable industrial cities in the United States, the movement will be watched with interest. The problem of the great factory or mill towns is not primarily a charitable one in the narrow sense. But in the relations and conditions of living there are neglected gaps and overlooked emergencies which would make more apparently for ill were it not for the pushing vitality of such centres.

The responsibility for taking heed of them on the part of the resourceful and far-sighted of the community is, therefore, doubly imperative. Their amelioration does not necessarily depend upon any sweeping change, but on the application of perfectly familiar principles long since proved in older or more leisurely communities. The physical facts which make consumption increase (when it is preventable), which let it kill (when it is curable) and which

pile up a sickening demonstration that it is ever and always transmissible—these are the sort of things which must be reckoned with, which must be ameliorated by philanthropic provision for those who have already been wasted by disease, which must be checked by public sanitary preventive measures in street and shop and home, and which will be eradicated only by a movement democratic enough to reach intimately all three, and educate official and citizen, employer and workman, the sick and the well, to the standards of social and hygienic wholesomeness.

Non-Partisanship in Municipal Departments.

The forthcoming annual report of the New York Charity Organization Society will make an urgent plea for non-partisanship in the municipal departments which have to do most directly with the welfare of the poor. The paragraphs relating to this subject are as follows:

The change in the city administration through which, under the present civil service system—ensuring a permanent tenure only in subordinate offices—an abrupt change was made not only in the mayoralty, but in the heads of the departments which more directly affect the lives of the poor, *viz.*, the Tenement-house Department, the Department of Public Charities, the Department of Health, the Department of Correction, and the Police Department. Under the society's charter all of the above-named commissioners are *ex officio* members of the Central Council. The new officials have shown a co-operative spirit, and in several instances have taken an active and helpful part in the work of the society. It is, however, a clear public duty to call attention to the wastefulness, the injury to the interests of the sick and dependent, and the inexcusable folly of attaching the reasonable administration of such a department, for example, as that of the Department of Public Charities to the fluctuations of municipal campaigns.

It has been the more or less consistent

policy of the state of New York in the conduct of its state charitable and reformatory institutions to disregard the political affiliations of managers and employes, and to exempt them from the changes which result from the varying influences of political campaigns. Recent acts of legislation and appointment in disregard of the principles of non-partisanship have roused throughout the state such emphatic condemnation as to exert a marked influence in the last two elections of state officers. The principles of non-partisanship in charitable activities, however, has equally obvious and pressing application in the municipal government. An attempt has been made, by constitutional provision fixing the date of municipal elections in years in which general elections do not occur, to remove such elections entirely from the field of state and national politics. Pending the realization of this larger ideal there might be early unanimous agreement—as in the case of the state charitable institutions—to exempt from political changes the heads of such departments as that of the Department of Public Charities, where there is clearly no room for difference of opinion about the advantages of permanent tenure of office for competent officials, and where the interests at stake would seem to suggest a more imperative demand for experience and approved efficiency. This ideal has now been realized in the management of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals through the device of an unpaid, slowly changing Board of Trustees, and under the management of this board great improvements have been made in the internal administration of the hospital.

*The Department
of Public
Charities.*

No better illustration of the elementary principle that the great city of New York is entitled to the service of experts and the continued service of such experts as have shown marked fitness for great responsibilities than by a comparison between the advance made in the administration of the Department of Public Charities in the first half of the present year, and the first half of the year 1903 and the year 1902. In both of the preceding years new institutions were created, old institutions were reorganized upon a better basis, and administrative reforms of various kinds were made, some of which are mentioned in other parts of the present report, but all of which are set forth in detail in the official quarterly reports of the Department of Public Charities.

Still more striking will be a conservative forecast of some of the things which undoubtedly would have been accomplished in this first half of 1904 if the administration of the former commissioner of charities had been continued and had been given the same support as was accorded it during the previous two years.

It is safe to say that there would have been expended under pending or com-

pleted contracts at least half a million dollars for new buildings and improvements, among which would probably have been six additional cottages for aged infirm persons on Staten Island; an adequate dormitory for employes in the Metropolitan Hospital, who are now lodged in an incredibly unsuitable manner; an isolation pavilion on Randall's Island for children suffering from venereal diseases, of whom there are unfortunately a great number; a new emergency hospital at Coney Island which might serve also as a convalescent hospital for the use of the entire department; and a hospital for nervous diseases on Blackwell's Island. The latter would not necessarily require a new building, but would gather into a group of buildings already existing the six hundred patients suffering from paralysis and other nervous diseases, giving them the great benefit of a special staff of physicians expert in the treatment of such diseases and with special equipment therefor. Undoubtedly the nursing in the wards for sick children on Randall's Island would have been definitely organized as part of a training school for nurses, male consumptives would have been removed from their present unsuitable quarters in King's County Hospital, a camp for convalescent consumptives established at the City Farm Colony on Staten Island, and women would have been admitted as day patients with proper dispensary treatment to the Tuberculosis Infirmary on Blackwell's Island. The vigorous prosecution of deserting fathers and husbands who have absconded from the state, leaving their families dependent, would have been inaugurated.

These measures are enumerated not as baseless speculations, but as definite plans, many of which were well under way on the first of January. For example, the hospital for nervous diseases, which had been recommended and for which the plans had been to some extent worked out by Dr. Frederick Paterson and Dr. Pearce Baily, two of the foremost specialists, had been made the subject of full investigation, reports had been received from the superintendent of the Home for the Aged and Infirm, and other preparatory steps taken with a view to action early this year.

It is as extraordinary as it is humiliating that of these various plans for more efficient and more humane care of the city's dependents, not one has been carried into effect or advanced beyond the stage at which it was left on New Year's day, and that with the exception of the selection of a site for a municipal lodging-house, no new plans have been substituted for them, so far as can be ascertained from an examination of the official reports and personal inquiry at the department.

This is not intended as a personal reflection upon the commissioner who was appointed on January 1, to a position for which he had made no previous preparation,

and for which there was no reason to suppose that he was especially fitted, and who has very probably done as well as any person of his previous experience and preparation could have been expected to do. It is presented here solely as a reason for discarding partisanship in the charitable activities of the city of New York, and for selecting heads of departments which have to do with the care of the poor on the grounds of fitness as shown by appropriate preparation and successful experience. It is presented as a basis for non-partisanship in the care of the sick, the infirm, and the unfortunate, and the continuance in the service of the city of those who are doing the city's work with exceptional efficiency and success.

The considerations which have been urged with reference to the Department of Public Charities would apply with almost or quite equal force to the Department of Correction, the Tenement-house Department and the Health Department. Permanency of tenure for such as are found to have peculiar qualifications for those responsible and essentially non-partisan functions of the municipal government is a principle which every good citizen, whatever his politics, should heartily and unequivocally accept.

*An Acre
Of
Public School.* Imagine 41,472 fingers and 10,368 thumbs stretched up at arm's length, so that all you could see was half an acre of wriggling, squirming hands, opening and shutting in a way that could be compared only to some curious effect of calcium lights. Hands down—their owners being pretty much of a height, and ranged well as to size—a pavement of mouse-colored heads at the right was suddenly revealed, and at the left, a brilliant rag carpet which resolved itself into hundreds of hair ribbons of independent colors and assertive bows. This is what was seen from the platform of the great recreation floor at one of New York's new school buildings, Monday afternoon, when it was said that more children took part in the exercises than had ever before been assembled together in one room.

That 5,184 pupils make it the largest elementary school in the world, or that, topographically three feet above tide-water mark, it is the lowest school building in Manhattan, do not altogether matter, but that public school Number 188, which was thus formally opened on the East Side, is buttressed with resources for social utility and is gabled with new con-

ceptions of educational leadership other than those which batted down the school plants of ten years ago, matters a great deal. The walls are already up for a still larger school building facing upon Seward Park, and later schools will afford still larger evidence of serviceability along such lines, perhaps, as Talcott Williams has pointed out. But for those who had begun in a small way in the settlements or as individual teachers, or in the Public Education Association, or single-handed as Jacob Riis did, to open up a playground here, or plead with an architect for a roof garden there, to stand for a gymnasium or insist upon neighborhood club rooms, it is worth while to take note of the progress which this new structure typified.

*The Equipment
of the Building.* The building covers an acre of ground, and its five stories are built in the form of a hollow square. Beneath this central well and extending out so that it embraces practically the entire first floor is the recreation-room, the largest enclosed school yard in New York. For summer it is supplemented by two roof gardens, and opening off from it are baths—built to be sure rather for portly citizens than for grists of small folks, but the plumbers will have to be redeemed later—and small rooms, used for kindergartens during the day, but assigned to men's and boys' clubs in the evening. The teaching staff is composed of 111 teachers, but these are supplemented by play leaders, lecturers, etc., for the building is working practically all the time. After school hours the yard is thrown open to the school children and in the evening the apparatus is used by the men and working-boys, or a section of the room is partitioned off and one of Dr. Leipsiger's lecturers talks of literature or science in a way that eager folk like to hear.

The block covered by the school is near the East River on Houston street, in the heart of the chief Magyar colony described in the Slav issue of CHARITIES. In fact, one of the speakers quoted from Mr. Pink's article in describing who it was that was using the building—the many Hungarians, and fewer Irish and Germans, the remnants of a Bohemian quarter and Roumanians, Poles and Russians

of the Hebrew faith. Their children it was who, each with an American flag pinned on, piped America in a dozen inflections, and applauded the audience when the audience applauded them till a canary, which swung in a cage in the center of the yard, caught the infection and sang to his heart's content during all of the speaking from all the superintendents which followed—from Gustave Straubenmuller, CHARITIES' district superintendent, George S. Davis, associate superintendent and William H. Maxwell, city superintendent, and from George W. Shraedle of the building committee and Henry N. Tift, president of the Board of Education. Dr. Maxwell can well feel gratified at the development of many of his ideas as expressed in the structure, and Mr. Tift, who has recently been made president of the Board of Education and whose previous board work had been in this part of the city, expressed its policy in these words—"To give every child a chance at an education, so that it will be up to the child to make that chance count." The pertinence of the remark is most striking when it is considered that New York's finest school building was being turned over to children of immigrants who had largely been without schools in their native lands or whose schools there had been suppressed.

Baltimore After the Fire. CHARITIES has published from the pen of Dr. Jeffrey R. Brackett a full account of the relief measures adopted in Baltimore after the great fire in that city on February 7 and 8 of this year.

The Citizens' Relief Committee has now made public its official report, consisting of a report of the executive committee of the Mayor's Advisory Committee to the Relief Fund Commission, and special reports to the Citizens' Relief Committee by the Federated Charities, the Hebrew Benevolent Society, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the German Society of Maryland and the Italian Relief Committee. The Relief Fund Commission turned over in all \$25,000 to the Citizens' Relief Committee and the latter expended in all directly, and through the co-operating agencies the sum of \$23,212.81, returning to the commission a balance of \$1,787.61.

The language with which the committee prefaces its report is creditable to the city of Baltimore and amply justified:

"In view of the enormous losses, the remarkably small showing of only \$23,000 disbursed, proves that the virility and self-respect of Baltimore's citizens cannot easily be matched, and the spirit of independence and capacity for self-help calls forth, even in this progressive age, wonder and admiration. The great buildings being erected in every direction; the seizing upon the opportunity to reconstruct the great wharf property, making Baltimore's harbor one of the best on the sea coast; the tremendous strides in commercial activity, together with citizens of such splendid calibre; are a few indications of Baltimore's great future."

What Institution Builders Can Learn from the Mill Owners. It is somewhat alarming to learn that the number of hospitals, asylums and jails which are injured or destroyed by fire each year in

the United States averages about 233. If these disasters were spread evenly over the year it would mean that each week either four or five buildings of these classes are in flames. Asylums and jails seem to suffer about equally while hospitals show a somewhat higher rate of combustion. These facts are brought out by a report of the Insurance Engineering Experiment Station in Boston, of which Edward Atkinson is director. According to this report the points of danger in hospital, asylum, church and college buildings "are usually to be found in the basement where the heating apparatus is placed, to which the destruction of churches may be in most cases attributed. The danger point is yet more apt to be found in the very bad and dangerous roofs by which such buildings are customarily surmounted, especially hospitals and asylums. These costly, crazy roofs of bad style, unsuitable to the character of the building, also cause a great waste of roof space." The adoption of the flat roof of solid construction is especially recommended and it is pointed out that this "on hospitals will give space for sun rooms glazed in winter and for open-air treatment under tents in summer, far above the ground level." Of course the

special recommendation is the adoption of what we now hear so much of as "mill construction." The report gives a definition of what mill construction is and, as there is some lack of clearness in the minds of many people on this subject, it will be well to quote some sentences from this definition.

1. Mill construction consists in so disposing the timber and plank in heavy solid masses as to expose the least number of corners or ignitable projections to fire, to the end also that when fire occurs it may be most readily reached by water from sprinklers or hose.

2. It consists in separating every floor from every other floor by incombustible stops * * *

3. It consists in guarding the ceilings over all specially hazardous stock or process with fire retardent material * * *

4. It consists not only in so constructing the mill, workshop or warehouse that fire shall pass as slowly as possible from one part of the building to another but also in providing all suitable safeguards against fire.

"What mill construction is not" is described under ten heads but it might be confusing to go further into this somewhat technical matter. The reason for an interest in mill construction on the part of the philanthropist is that it is being used to so considerable an extent in public charitable institutions. In the state of New York the new buildings at the state hospitals and the state charitable institutions exhibit this latest and most approved plan. Its value from the point of view of fire protection, because of its slow burning qualities, is doubtless very considerable but those interested in these institutions cannot but hope that someone may devise a plan of making it less ugly, and less conducive to the transmission of noise.

Safe construction is, of course, of primary importance but mistakes in location of combustible materials frequently vitiate the advantages of good construction and exaggerate the dangers arising from bad construction. An example is given of a state insane asylum occupied by over a thousand patients where, in addition to grave faults of construction, the defects in the location of the fire fighting apparatus were such as to cause

a great and unnecessary increase in the danger from fire. The fundamental need is a system of careful and continuous inspection of buildings used for public purposes. Mr. Atkinson has prepared a very detailed inspection blank especially designed for theatres and public halls but easily adaptable to school houses, churches, college buildings, hospitals and asylums. The idea of this proposed blank for an inspection report is to cover "every minute detail in order that the inspectors might be trained by the use of the blanks in looking over every point." The intention is that the first inspection should cover the whole subject of construction and protection and that, after the dangers of construction have been provided against, subsequent inspections may be limited to apparatus and conditions. It is said that in many cases the greatest danger comes from minor defects that can be easily and inexpensively remedied. Mr. Atkinson estimates that systematic inspection of buildings used for religious, educational and charitable purposes would reduce the loss of property at least one-half and would save most of the lives lost under the present system or the present lack of system.

Institutional workers will certainly join with Mr. Atkinson in the hope that "a type of architecture may soon be evolved in the construction of theatres, hospitals, asylums and college buildings, in which the architectural and æsthetic effects shall be rendered true to the purpose to which the building is put, in place of the too common way of giving what is called architectural or æsthetic effect to the elevation by sacrificing the internal construction and safety of the building to this effort to make it an example of so-called fine art."

Notes of the Week.

Little Italy Neighborhood House.—Over in the southerly of Brooklyn's two Italian districts, and not far from the marionette theatre and other evidences of the community life of a Latin people, Little Italy Neighborhood House was opened last week. Even the Italian's love for color in kerchiefs and peppers cannot take away the bleakness of row after row of bare houses on a winter's night, and the house-warming at 85 Sackett street shone by comparison. There were two roomfuls of

well-wishers, among them three Italians who gave stirring endorsement to the project, Cav. Dott. Gustavo Tosti, vice Italian consul, Giovanni Lordi, vice-president of the Settlement Association, Antonio Zucca, president of the Italian chamber of commerce. Ellis Lord presided. Mrs. Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, of Greenwich House, spoke of the spirit which is basic in settlement work, and Miss Margaret D. Drier, of the mission of the district nurse. This work will form one of the first activities of the house. Another feature, bearing especially upon the artistic aptitudes of the Italian children, is the art work. Five art classes have been started, one sight-singing class. Three teachers of the piano have been secured. A Sunday evening concert club of especially musical neighbors has been arranged, and music is the principal feature of the weekly neighborhood social. Miss Elizabeth Dutcher is secretary of the association, and Miss Louise C. Barthalow, head-worker; the household at present numbering three.

Visiting Nurses in Conference.—A representative and enthusiastic conference of district or visiting nurses was held in the library of the New York Charity Organization Society the evening of December 8. There were forty-five present who, after their day's work among the sick poor, came from Brooklyn, Newark, Orange and Yonkers, while those of Manhattan represented the New York City Mission and many churches, dispensaries, charitable societies and settlements, besides health board and school nurses. Such questions as uniforms, and the care of contagious, obstetrical and tubercular cases were discussed, and it was finally decided to hold four meetings during the year—in the months of October, December, February and April. Miss Damer consented to continue to act as chairman, Miss Jones as secretary and treasurer, and Miss Denniston, Miss Hitchcock, Miss Stewart, Miss Benley and Miss Wagner as a committee to arrange a program for discussions at future meetings. An invitation was extended to hold one symposium in Yonkers. It was decided to keep the meetings informal with no constitution or by-laws. It is nameless and homeless, but an active and healthy body, and the twenty-five-cent fee for current expenses will, in the words of one of the participants, "secure to it life and independence and prevent pauperization." The exchange of the views and experiences of such women should bear much good in homes where they minister and teach the laws of health.

Nebraska State Institutions.—The Nebraska State Prison is now equipped with 240 new cells of modern sanitary design. A school is to be established for the younger and more illiterate convicts by Warden A. D. Beemer. The State Hospital for the In-

ane at Norfolk, which was burned, is being rebuilt. An administration building and three cottages will be ready for occupancy within a few months. A hospital and water system is being added to the plant at the Milford Soldiers' Home.

A Step in Advance.—A step in advance has been taken in Cleveland if an item in the *Press* of recent date is correct. Health Officer Friedrich is quoted as saying, "I have issued orders to have every house, in which a sufferer from tuberculosis has died, disinfected at once. I class the disease as contagious, and, under the law, I have the authority to make such an order."

The By-Product of a World's Fair.—The Iowa state building at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition has been turned over to the Iowa Board of Control and the material is being moved to one of the state institutions.

Among the Monday Clubs.

Monday Evening Club, Cincinnati.—There is promise of an excellent year's work before the Monday Evening Club of Cincinnati to judge by the program mapped out and the sessions already held, with R. A. Longman, visitor of the Children's Home, and Mrs. Bessie Bruce White, of the Union Bethel, who spoke on women as wage-earners, as the speakers. For this month's meeting a discussion of civic sanitation was arranged for under Dr. Alfred Friedlander. The subjects for subsequent months are as follows:

February, The Religious Problem in Cincinnati, W. D. Ball, secretary Y. M. C. A.; March, The Juvenile Court, John A. Caldwell, judge of Juvenile Court; April, Organization of Relief, C. M. Hubbard, general secretary, Associated Charities; May, Social Work, (a) Settlements, J. O. White, superintendent Union Bethel; (b) Missions, Mrs. K. R. Haynes, superintendent Elizabeth Gamble Deaconess Home; (c) Amusements, H. C. Wright, secretary Citizens' Municipal party; June, annual outing.

Monday Evening Club, Boston.—At the regular meeting and supper of the Monday Evening Club, December 19, the subject will be *What the Italians in Boston are Doing for Their Own People*. The speakers will include Andrew A. Badaracco, president of the Italian Conference San Marco St. Vincent de Paul Society, also representative of the Society of St. Raphael for Italian Immigrants; Frank Leverone, on the work of St. Charles' Guild House; Dominick D'Alessandro, president of the Italian Laborers and Excavators' Union; Francesco Malgeri, agent of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants; the Rev. Enrico Rivoire, pastor of the Italian Evangelical Church, and the Rev. Salvatore Musso of the Italian Methodist Episcopal Church.

The Public Conscience and the Hospitals

WHAT ANOTHER LEAN YEAR HAS MEANT IS SHOWN BY THE STATEMENT OF THE BOARD OF MANAGERS OF THE PRESBYTERIAN HOSPITAL.

Frank Tucker

Vice-President Provident Loan Society

The critical financial condition in which many of the hospitals of New York under private management find themselves, is stated in an emphatic and not to be questioned manner in the thirty-sixth annual report of the Presbyterian Hospital just issued. This hospital, one of the "big four" in the New York hospital group, has long been noted for its progressive administration, its splendid plant, its famous training school for nurses, and its broad and liberal policy toward the sick without means to pay for medical and surgical treatment. The direct and logical result of this development of hospital service without adequate public support is found in the financial statement and made significant to the whole population of the city by the board of managers in these words:

"This deficit in current receipts (\$72,936.74 after using legacies received during the year of \$45,603.46 for maintenance) is not a condition peculiar to the Presbyterian Hospital. It does not mean that the great Presbyterian body, of which the Reformed and Congregational churches are practically, though not constitutionally, part, are less mindful of their duties toward the sick poor than other branches of the Christian brotherhood. Other hospitals in New York dependent for their revenue upon other members of that brotherhood are face to face with similar conditions, differing only in degree. It does mean, however, that the people of New York are not alive to the necessity of supporting their hospitals, and that unless the public conscience is quickened and larger means for current expenses are provided, the hospital system of New York must at some date not long distant be changed.¹ It means that except for such provision, public hospitals under municipal management, supported by taxation, must in great part take the place of our present hospitals, which are private only in the

¹ The italics are Mr. Tucker's.—Ed.

sense that they were founded and have been supported by private benevolence, and are under the direction of managers recruited by natural selection from our best citizens, and not subject, as is too often the case with municipal hospitals, to political change or popular caprice. Past generations of noble men who have built up the great fabric of American benevolence on individual initiative, and future generations which they expected to profit by their self-denial and service, would lament such a radical change in American charitable methods."

No better summing up of the hospital situation could be made than the above. Ample proof that the date of the threatened change is not far distant, that it may in fact be fixed definitely in the case of the Presbyterian Hospital, is furnished by the financial statement. The deficit for 1904, after spending for maintenance \$45,603.46 in legacies received during the year, was \$72,936.74. This has been about the annual deficit for several years past. The question naturally arises: How has this deficit been met? The answer is found in the statement of assets and liabilities. Disregarding minor items to get at round figures, we find that the hospital has received as endowments the sum of \$651,600. To represent this sum it holds at the present time bonds and mortgages and other securities amounting to \$315,600, against which there are loans payable of \$34,000. In other words out of an endowment fund of \$651,600, \$370,000 has been spent to carry annual deficits in maintenance of the hospital and only \$281,600 remains to meet annual deficits in the future. With an average annual deficit of \$70,000 it means that unless the Presbyterian Hospital receives some unusual legacy or gift, some radical change in the hospital's policy must take place at the end of *four years*.

Should there be any reduction in the work of this great hospital, or should

either of its fundamental functions be curtailed? Again the situation is summed up wisely and well by the board of managers in this statement:

"If our hospital had no reason for its existence beyond the relief of individual suffering and the cure of individual disease, it would still play an important part in the philanthropic activities of the community. It is this part of its work to which public attention has been and is largely directed, and it is this part of its work which in the minds of most people constitutes the chief reason for its existence. This is a very narrow view to take. Great as is its service to the community in this particular, it is only a small part of the service which it really renders. It is as an educational institution, an institution through which alone doctors and nurses can be trained, and through which alone medical science can be advanced, that our hospital, like others under equally enlightened management, has its chief claim upon the public. It is only by providing hospitals where the art of healing can be practically taught that doctors and nurses can be prepared for their ministrations of mercy, whether to the rich who can afford to pay in money, or to the poor whose only recompense is thankfulness; and it is only by providing such hospitals that medical and surgical science has made the marvelous advance which we have witnessed in our generation, and which it is hoped only presages the progress still to come. In our hospital are assembled the sick and the maimed, who are not merely healed themselves, but, by whose healing, that is learned which will heal others in generations to come; the physicians and nurses who are there both to heal and to learn; the laboratories and surgical apparatus with which alone they are able to put their learning to its highest use. Such a conjunction in a hospital like ours prevents more disease in the generations to come than it actually cures in the generation with which it is immediately and personally dealing. This educational function of our hospital should receive the same prominence which is

given to its actual relief of human suffering; and this function which the Presbyterian and other hospitals under private management are performing is not the least claim to their liberal support by our people."

Where is the remedy to be found? So far as the Presbyterian Hospital is concerned it must come from some source entirely new to its present methods of raising money. This hospital has a competent board of managers who themselves give liberally to its support, their names are a guarantee of wise business management and sympathetic attitude to the medical and surgical work. It makes a systematic and thoughtful appeal to the general public for funds and raises in this way about \$45,000 annually, about one-half the entire amount raised by the Hospital Saturday and Sunday Association for all the hospitals in its list; therefore, it is unreasonable to expect that it can increase its income from this source to any considerable extent. It spends its legacies each year for maintenance. Its charges to pay patients are fair for the service rendered and the management makes every reasonable effort to discover if a patient can afford to pay. In a word the management is able, the plant and service are equal to the best standards set by medical and surgical science, the needs of the sick poor are met upon financial terms approved by thoughtful sociologists, the maimed and suddenly stricken are cared for by an adequate ambulance service, and the result is an annual deficit of \$70,000 after using up current legacies and the employment of every approved method for raising money.

Where is the remedy to be found? The writer again answers the question by urging the raising of a large endowment fund, the income to be used in supplementing the present incomes of the group of New York hospitals which find themselves in the same financial condition as the Presbyterian, the fund to be administered by an independent board of men and women selected for their knowledge of social conditions.

The Fifth Annual Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction

PUBLIC CHARITABLE AND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS—STATE REFORMATORY MOVEMENT—
ALMSHOUSES AND JAILS

Charles A. Ellwood

President of the Conference

The fifth annual meeting of the Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Drury College at Springfield, November 10 to 12. The meeting was not largely attended but was characterized by a spirit of enthusiasm and earnestness which bodes well for the future of the conference. This was shown in the first business meeting when a considerable indebtedness which menaced the future usefulness of the conference was met and paid off by the members present. Another feature promising much in the way of future developments was the attendance of the State Board of Charities in a body, expressive of recognition by the board of the intimate relationship existing between its work and the work of the conference. An alliance in the work of these two bodies, it is to be hoped, will be the further result, an alliance foreshadowed by the choice of conference officers for the ensuing year: President, Dr. A. C. Pettijohn, a member of the state board, Brookfield; vice-president, Miss Mary E. Perry, vice-president of the board, St. Louis; secretary and treasurer, George Macomber, superintendent of the State Training School for Boys, Boonville; additional members of the executive committee, Judge W. M. Williams, Boonville, and the Rev. Fred V. Loos, member of the State Board of Charities, Liberty.

It might be said that the general topic of the conference was the condition of the public charitable and correctional institutions of the state. This emphasis on public institutions was but natural, for it is the system of public charities which remains especially undeveloped in Missouri.

The president's address on *Public and Private Charity in the State of Missouri* was a comprehensive summary and served to outline the problems discussed during the remainder of the conference. The

problems connected with the work of the State Board of Charities were discussed by Elder Loos, his main conclusions being that the needs of the board are first, more money, so that one or more inspectors can be hired, a full salary paid to the secretary, and an open office maintained; second, more executive power along certain lines, so that the management of the present institutions, as well as the erection of new institutions, may be more directly under the control of the board. The discussion on this paper, which was led by Miss Perry, brought out the fact that the conference was opposed to a state board of control on the Iowa plan. H. H. Hohenschield, an architect of Rolla, Mo., discussed the planning and construction of institutions for the indigent and the insane, showing among other things that a model almshouse of moderate size can be constructed by a Missouri county at a cost of from \$8,000 to \$10,000.

Prof. S. M. Greene, superintendent of the State School for the Blind, described in an interesting paper the new state school which is being erected in St. Louis. The state schools for delinquent children were discussed by Mr. Macomber, who was elected to the superintendency of the Boonville institution, when Superintendent Drake went to Iowa. The conclusions of Mr. Macomber, and of Mrs. De Bolt, superintendent of the State Industrial Home for Girls, were that the principal needs are three: (1) State support instead of county support of inmates, (2) parole agents to place and supervise those released, and (3) in the Boonville school, indeterminate sentences instead of definite sentences of commitments. Dr. L. M. Thompson, superintendent of the Missouri Colony for the Feeble-minded and Epileptic at Marshall, described the development of this institution, which is rapidly becom-

ing one of the best in Missouri in spite of any handicap in having to deal with two dissimilar classes.

An evening stereopticon lecture on *How a Great City Cares for Its Poor*, by W. H. McClain, general manager of the St. Louis Provident Association showed graphically the development of private philanthropy in St. Louis; and in this development, it is only fair to add, the Provident Association and Mr. McClain have been no small factors.

A day was almost wholly taken up with the consideration of the condition of correctional institutions and the reformation of the criminal class. A paper was presented on the construction of a model jail by George A. Webster of the Pauly Jail Building Company of St. Louis; and the Rev. H. Paul Douglass of Springfield set forth conditions in county almshouses and jail. The session was concluded by a paper on prisoners' aid societies by the Rev. E. A. Fredenhagen of Topeka, Kan. Mrs. Henry W. Eliot of St. Louis gave a paper on the Missouri juvenile court law, and perhaps the most striking contribution to the conference was presented by City Jailer James L. Dawson of St. Louis on the establishment of an industrial reformatory for first offenders between sixteen and thirty years of age. Mr. Dawson has been for more than twenty years a police official in St. Louis, and he made a vigorous argument.

"I have no hesitancy whatever in stating that to my mind the present treatment of convicted criminal offenders of this state between the ages above suggested is both arbitrary and unjustifiable in view of the fact that fifty per cent of the prisoners now confined in the penal institutions of this country are second offenders, and in view of the fact also that eighty per cent of the youthful offenders released upon parole from the reformatory institutions of other states turn out all right. Are you aware of the fact that two years ago the legislature appropriated \$440,000 to defray its criminal costs for the then ensuing two years, and that this appropriation, large as it is, will not be sufficient for the purpose? Add to this the amount appropriated for police purposes in St. Louis, Kansas City and other cities of the state, and you will begin to realize what crime costs Missouri.

The want of industrial discipline is a

chief reason why liberated prisoners can not retain work after it is procured for them. The only way to remedy this defect in the case of youthful offenders is to make prison discipline as far as practicable the counterpart of industrial discipline.

The young first offender should be subjected to the same hours of labor, the same habits and the same sort of industry; in fact, the same sort of regulations and occupations, that prevail in well-ordered manufacturing and commercial establishments in the outside world.

The reformatory system with indeterminate sentences and parole is the only hope for the reformation of first offenders. It will be found most easily enforced, when the obedience to it is obviously to the interest of all who are placed under legal obligations to submit to it. The present mode of treatment of young offenders must necessarily end in failure for the valid reason that the consent and co-operation of the criminal patient is in no sense secured. For this an adequate motive to which he will be likely to respond is essential. The average criminal is an egotist, who has more faith in his own perverted instincts than in the advice of better men. Ordinarily persuasion for the most part is thrown away on him. The only motive that will affect him is the hope of freedom. That hope springs eternal in the convict's heart, under the present mode of treatment, in the vague hope of pardon or of a favorable opportunity to escape. If he can be convinced that these anticipations are fallacious, but that he will be released as soon as it shall become apparent to the officers who have him in charge that society has no longer anything to fear from him, and that he can convince them of this fact by his conduct in prison, he can be gained, and the rest is comparatively easy.

There are hundreds of youthful first offenders now confined in the state prison at Jefferson City whose release would work no harm to society, but whose morals deteriorate in prison. They would profit by past experience and free association with their kind, such as they would meet in every-day life. I will concede, to avoid argument, that they have not been wrongfully convicted, but I insist that they are needlessly held. I do not understand how it is possible for any person to care less than I do for what the policemen (I have been a policeman myself for more than twenty-one years) or other thief-taker may say to the contrary.

Finally, there are others, who, having been convicted, would have been more likely to amend their ways if never incarcerated. Many on the outside of prison have committed the same acts with no higher motives, and are respected, useful and happy, because the criminal law was not brought to bear upon them; or perhaps, caught in that net which paradoxically

enough holds the small fish and lets many of the larger ones escape through its elastic meshes."

A communication was also read from former Governor Charles P. Johnson of St. Louis, one of the best known criminal lawyers of the West, strongly endorsing the idea of a reformatory in Missouri on the Elmira plan. The conference passed a resolution favoring its immediate establishment and appointed a legislative committee to act in connection with this and other needed legislation.

The conference was fortunate in having Dr. Frederick Howard Wines present at nearly all its sessions. Dr. Wines took part especially in the discussion on the establishment of an industrial re-

formatory. He it was who gave the concluding address of the conference on *The Duty of the People of a State Toward Their Public Charitable and Correctional Institutions*. He maintained convincingly that the main trouble with Missouri's institutions is a lack of proper financial support, due on the one hand to a false economy which puts the burden of supporting inmates of state institutions upon the counties from which they come, rather than upon the state, and on the other hand, to an arbitrary limitation of taxation imposed upon the state by an outgrown constitution.

The conference will hold its next annual meeting at Boonville.

The Seventh Iowa State Conference

TUBERCULOSIS—REFORM OF COUNTY JAILS—ORGANIZED CHARITY IN SMALLER COMMUNITIES

Isaac A. Loos,

State University of Iowa

The Seventh Iowa State Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Sioux City, November 9-11. The address of welcome was made by State Senator Elbert H. Hubbard, recently elected to represent the Eleventh District of Iowa in the Federal Congress, and response was made by Dr. George L. Cady, lecturer in sociology in the State University of Iowa, who voiced an appeal for organized charity. The president's address, by Chairman Gifford S. Robinson, of the Iowa State Board of Control of Penal and Charitable Institutions, reviewed the course of legislation and improvements in the administration of Iowa's penal and charitable institutions during recent years, calling special attention to the adoption of improved methods of dealing with delinquents and urging further attention to the introduction of juvenile courts, the indeterminate sentence, adequate support for a state reformatory, and similar practical policies. President Storms of the Iowa State College of Agricultural and Mechanic Arts expounded the "Christian method of social service," saying:

In this realm of moral force there is one whom all call Master. He stood in the midst of human society at a particular time

and in a particular land, and was of a particular race—the Hebrew. A corrupt government had paralyzed trade, debased the currency and left the people in distress. Poverty was everywhere. Jesus knew what real life and suffering were. He so treated those facts of life and society as to express the loftiest principles and furnish the substance of what must constitute the true science of sociology. . . . I believe the challenge to personality should be our guiding star in dealing with non-efficient people. . . . We ought to be able to apply the method of the Master in changing personality to self-consciousness and power.

At the second session Judge H. M. Townner of the Third Judicial District of Iowa and lecturer on law in the State University spoke on the suspension of sentences. Reviewing present and past practice of courts acting under the common law or under statutory provisions. His address will form one of the most valuable papers for reference in the proceedings of the conference.

Juvenile Courts.

Judge George W. Wakefield, Sioux City, followed with a paper on the juvenile court act and juvenile courts. He pointed out that through our school system we are thoroughly committed to the duty of the state to provide for and

secure the proper education for its children. "Prevention is better than cure," and so the state should look with especial care to the nurture and training of the young offenders against its laws to the end that the child should cease from law breaking and grow into good citizenship. To secure such results is the object of our juvenile court act.

Following discussion by Mr. Layon of Chicago, representing Central Howard Association, and Father Coffin of Fort Dodge, the final paper of the second session was presented by the writer on the *Inspection of County and Town Prisons*, and may be summarized as follows:

The marks of a good prison are three: strength—a good prison must be a prison; it must be sanitary, both for the moral and the physical man; and it must be constructed with a view to efficiency in administration. . . . Numerous classifications of prisoners have been made from time to time, but that of greatest importance is based upon the age and character of the criminal. This gives us the juvenile offender, the first offender, or the occasional offender, and the hardened criminal. Corresponding to these we have the reform school or industrial school; the reformatory and the penitentiary. For these three institutions the state has made provision, but almost no recognition of the important principles underlying this classification of prisons and prisoners has been made in the construction and administration of county and town jails. It would be possible even in county and town jails to apply these principles, but it cannot be done, and it will not be done, without knowledge of what existing conditions are and what they should be.

A general inspection, perhaps by the board of control, of county and town jails should be undertaken to get a medium of communication with local authorities, by which a larger knowledge concerning prison construction and administration may be brought to them.

The third session of the conference opened with a paper by Dr. Henry Wolfer, warden of Minnesota State Prison, on *Employment of Prisoners in State Penitentiaries and State Reformatories*. He said in part:

Of the six systems outlined for the employment of convicts in prisons and reformatories, there are at least two that seem to me to be comparatively free from reasonable objections. These are the "piece price" or "contract" and the "state account" systems.

In the Minnesota state prison the employment of prisoners is divided between the two systems. About 300 work on state account in manufacturing binding twine and other state work, and 250 are employed in the manufacture of boots and shoes under the piece price plan.

The sales from the binder twine plant the past year have been about \$930,000, representing 10,000,000 pounds of twine. The twine is sold direct at about two cents per pound below wholesale or manufacturing prices. None of the twine is shipped outside of the state. The state's net profit from the industry the past year was over \$112,000. The farmers of the state saved over \$200,000, gauged on wholesale prices, and the actual saving was much greater.

The prisoners employed in the manufacture of boots and shoes under the piece price plan on contract net the state about sixty-one cents per day per capita. The sales from this industry average about \$700,000 per annum, making the total sales from both industries over \$1,600,000 per annum.

The prison is more than self-supporting and has been for several years back. Earnings for the past year were over \$86,000 in excess of our total expenses for the maintenance of the institution.

We in Minnesota think we have solved the convict labor problem, at least have come as near a satisfactory solution as the times and conditions will permit.

The discussion of Dr. Wolfer's paper was led by Alfred Shepherd, deputy commissioner of labor for the state of Iowa, who presented the views of labor respecting possible dangers of competition of prison labor with labor outside of prisons.

*Organized
Charity in Small
Cities.*

A good deal of interest centered in a brief paper of Clarence W. Wassam, fellow in economics, in the State University of Iowa, in which he presented his findings in an investigation concerning the present status of organized charity in the state of Iowa. An account of his study will appear in the course of the year in the *Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, published by the Iowa State Historical Society. Mr. Wassam found on careful inquiry that one million dollars was spent last year by the state of Iowa for the relief of the poor by direct state aid through town and county. And to this sum must be added the expenditures of private charity organizations to arrive at the total cost.

Data were sought by letter from all cities in the state with the population

of more than five hundred. Upwards of five hundred letters were written to the 375 cities and towns investigated. There were in all 195 replies, but the results are considered satisfactory since of the 180 towns not replying, 105 contained less than one thousand inhabitants and of the rest none more than two thousand.

Of the 195 cities and towns answering, but twenty-eight were shown to have central organized charities, and of the twenty-eight that have such an organization, but three cities Des Moines, Keokuk and Sioux City have the only associated charities employing paid secretaries.

Much discouragement prevails and some of these towns and cities are ready to admit that they have been unsuccessful in efforts to secure unity of action. Cedar Falls maintains a system suitable for cities of about ten thousand to fifteen thousand inhabitants or smaller.

At the beginning of winter an overseer is appointed each fall for every ward in the city. These overseers, with the officers of the Associated Charities, constitute the executive committee. They have complete charge of the work during the winter months and in the spring the entire organization disbands.

Mr. Wassam advocated:

1. A closer organization of the private and public charities which would result in great saving of money so expended.
2. Investigation and discrimination in giving to the poor.
3. Less giving and more effort expended toward securing employment. Less "complacent generosity and more intelligent investigation."
4. Provision for the support of the aged poor, possessed of small homes, in those homes on a small income from the state or county. The present practice of the state,

except in a few counties, is to remove the aged poor from their homes to the poor farm and sell the houses. Mr. Wassam claims that it would not be more expensive and much more kind to allow them to remain in the houses they had lived in all of their lives, letting the homesteads on their death go to the state.

Miss Charlotte Goff, formerly of Des Moines and now of Sioux City, in discussing Mr. Wassam's paper urged that lack of experience or professional training is the explanation of many failures in organized effort.

Tuberculosis. In the evening of Thursday a plea, supported by the stereopticon, was made for regarding consumption as a preventable and curable disease. Dr. W. J. Kinne of Fort Dodge spoke for state aid in disseminating knowledge on this important subject.

The closing session of the conference was devoted to studies of the homeless; first a paper by Mrs. L. D. Carhart, of Marion, district superintendent of the Iowa Children's Home Society, on homes for homeless children; followed by Joseph G. Hobson, principal of the Worcester School, Sioux City; Mrs. M. W. Harman on the Industrial School at Independence, and Miss Flora Dunlap, head-resident of the Roadside Settlement of Des Moines.

Throughout the conference a leading part in the discussions was taken by the president, Judge Robinson and Judge L. G. Kinne, members of the state board of control.

The officers for the ensuing year are: G. S. Robinson, president; Dr. Margaret A. Schaffner, general secretary; and members of the executive committee, Professor Frank J. Herriott, Des Moines, Miss Flora Dunlap, Des Moines, W. W. Baldwin, Burlington.

The Ninth Illinois State Conference of Charities

COUNTY JAIL ABUSES—STATE INSTITUTIONS FOR CONSUMPTIVES, EPILEPTICS, FEEBLE-MINDED—
CO-OPERATION WITH WOMEN'S CLUBS

Eugene T. Lies

Department Superintendent Chicago Bureau of Charities

This year's Illinois State Conference, at Rockford, November 15 and 16, was successful from many points of view. The attendance exceeded by far that of last year's conference at Quincy, and the local

interest appeared to have been greater, although not all that it should have been. The papers were as a rule short, meaty and practical. They were, with one or two exceptions, free from the declamatory

tendency which makes the average hearer yawn and wish for better occupation. They brought home with force the need of reform in civic and charity matters in city, county and state. Still there were too many papers, and it is probable that the executive committee will recommend that next year's session be occupied largely with discussions of committee reports which in printed form have previously been distributed among the members, the chairman of each committee to present merely a summary of the argument in the report.

The president of the conference warned the Rockford people that attendants at charity conferences are "a hearing, seeing and smelling crowd," and, therefore, it behooved the good Rockford folks to be ready for criticism. It came. A few hours later a local citizen mentioned in the course of the second session that there were two boys, 13 and 14 years old, respectively, harbored in the Rockford jail together with old offenders. Two or three persons constituted themselves a committee of investigation, went to the jail, and read to the keeper the state juvenile court law which was being violated. Result: release of the boys. The almshouse, too, came in for a round of criticism. It was found that insane patients were being harbored with the infirmary inmates, and that the material surroundings of the former were miserably short of conditions considered even fair. The Rockford papers, naturally, made much of these two occurrences, and reforms may be instituted through the holding of the conference in that community.

*County Jails
a Curse.*

The Rev. F. Emory Lyon's report of the committee on county charitable and correctional work was a scathing denunciation of conditions in Illinois jails and almshouses. Mr. Lyon had drawn much of his information from the reports of the local auxiliary committees of the State Board of Charities, which were surprisingly unbiased and intelligent. It was said that Illinois county institutions formed "the skeleton in the closet of our domestic commonwealth." As illustrating this opinion, such expressions as these were quoted from the reports:

"Absolutely rotten," "Place unfit to keep a dog in," "Twenty-five prisoners in a single room scarcely twenty feet square," "Four or five men in a cell," "A disgrace to county and state," "Not fit for human habitation." It was pointed out that all of the jails of this exceptionally bad character were built many years ago. Fifteen jails in the state were built before 1860; thirty before 1870; forty, or nearly half, before 1880, or previous to the last quarter century in which nearly all modern sanitary improvements have been inaugurated." "Forty-one jails in the state have no separate place for children under sixteen years of age, and in county almshouses there were at the time the auxiliary committee reports were made (July 1, 1904) 107 children, or more than one for each county."

It was pointed out how serious were these conditions in the jails in the face of the facts mentioned at last year's conference, namely, "That only twenty-five per cent of the men detained for a longer or shorter time in the county jails, were both indicted and convicted of crime, and assuming that twenty-five per cent of the remaining seventy-five per cent escaped through technicalities, there remains fifty per cent of all who must be presumed to be innocent but who, nevertheless, were held in these fruitful schools of crime against not only their own will but their inclination."

The remedies proposed by Dr. Lyon were: Proper classification, abolishment of the farming-out plan of caring for county poor, and of the fee-system, state control providing strict classification, better sanitation, exercise and employment for inmates, the installation of women as matrons wherever female inmates are kept, and lastly, that most necessary desideratum, absolutely non-political administration.

*Work with
Children.*

The report of the committee on juvenile court work, by the chairman, J. J. McManaman, chief probation officer of the Chicago Juvenile Court, argued the desirability of an amendment to the law by which certain persons can be held in court jurisdiction until they reach their majority, this on the supposition that home

conditions and the heredity of some individuals are so bad as to be impossible of much change in a short time by even the most earnest work of the probation officer.

The committee on work done for children had arranged for three papers—the report proper, by the chairman Dr. H. H. Hart; another by W. L. Bodine, superintendent of compulsory education in Chicago, on conditions leading to juvenile delinquency; and a third by Edgar T. Davies, chief state factory inspector, on some results of the enforcement of the child-labor law. The report of the committee advocated the immediate establishment of an asylum for epileptic children, and one for feeble-minded women. A further recommendation was the following:

The provisions of the juvenile court law for the oversight and inspection of children's institutions and societies and their certification by the state board of public charities has already exercised an appreciable influence to improve the work in this state. It is the belief of your committee that the supervision of the state board of public charities should not be restricted as it now is to institutions receiving children under the juvenile court law, but that all institutions which undertake the care of orphans, homeless or neglected children, should be required to hold the certificate of the state board of public charities. If a child has property the state steps in and undertakes to see that its interests are protected, and that its property is not wasted, no matter how faithful and competent its natural protectors may be. How much more should the state undertake to safeguard the interests of those children who have neither property nor faithful and efficient guardians. Your committee believes also that no child should be given by its parents or guardians to any association or corporation without the approval of a competent court.

Mr. Bodine denounced employers who refused to employ children over fourteen years of age because of the eight-hour provision of the child-labor law governing workers between 14 and 16 years. He declared that "some want only boys over sixteen, so they can work them as long as they please." Many of these children between 14 and 16 do not return to school, do not work, and get into bad ways.

The compulsory education law is the only one that reaches the parent, and I speak

advisedly when I say that incompatibility, intemperance and immorality among parents is the cause of seventy-five per cent of the juvenile truancy and delinquency in Chicago. The social conditions among parents in Chicago, revealed by the enforcement of the compulsory education law, are a disgrace to modern civilization.

Marriage is not a failure. It is the weak, incompetent, insincere creatures who are not fit to wed and raise children, who are the failures. The country has gone divorce crazy. Desertion is the "poor man's divorce," and there are thousands of men who desert their wives and families to leave them at the mercy of the world. This is the real American peril.

Remarriages have often brought step-fathers and stepmothers whose cruelty have brought children into the everreaching arms of crime. Foster parents are frequently just as brutal. I know of instances of cruelty to children that would make an Apache hang his feathered head in meek and lowly shame.

Mr. Davies pointed out that *Child Labor.* 25,000 inspections had been made by his eighteen officers during the past fiscal year. Seven of these inspectors worked in the country districts; eleven in Chicago. More inspectors are needed to cover the 200 towns outside of Chicago where factories are located, and a much larger appropriation than the \$10,000 now allotted. In regard to the argument strenuously put forth by the glass manufacturers of the state against the enactment of the child-labor law, namely, that cutting out the work of children in their factories would force their immediate removal from the state, Mr. Davies said that during the past year not only have none of the old glass factories decided to leave, but that two new glass factories had come into the state and, apparently, expected to make a comfortable livelihood. The appellate court decision holding that the child-labor law applies to coal mines, a contention that had been strongly combatted by the mine operators, will unearth many hundreds of children for the public schools. During the last year the law reduced the number of children working in the state to 5,000. It took out of sweat-shops 600 to 700 children, making the percentage of children to adults working in sweat-shops 8.2 per cent against 14.9 per cent before the enactment of the law. In Chicago over 3,500 chil-

dren under age have been taken from work, while through the enforcement of the child-labor law, together with the compulsory education law, the school attendance has been increased by 8,000 beyond the natural increase due to increase in population. Mr. Davies argued for an amendment to the law which would allow children to work under certain conditions during the vacation season.

*Co-operation
with Women's
Clubs.*

Mrs. F. P. Bagley of the Illinois Federation of Women's Clubs in her report on the relation of women's clubs to public institutions, outlined interestingly a proposed plan of investigation of institutions by local committees representing the federation of Women's Clubs. The work of these committees would be similar to that performed by the New Jersey and New York Charities Aid Associations. They would make their investigations impartially and with the sole view of the good of the inmates. Mrs. Bagley pointed out that with its membership of 24,000 to 25,000 women all over the state the federation is more strongly organized than any other body in the state with exception of the two dominant political parties. The proposed committees could carry on a reform propaganda and attempt to create a wider and more general interest on the part of the public in the welfare of the state's wards.

Prof. Graham Taylor illustrated the possible value of the proposed committees by describing the reforms brought about by the co-operation of an advisory board of citizens with the Cook County Board of Commissioners in the institutions at Dunning; but unless those who criticized knew whereof they spoke and had a sound basis of judgment, their work would be more hurtful than beneficial. This naturally led up to an announcement of the course being given under the auspices of the University of Chicago at the Fine Arts Building in Chicago. The demand for democratic management in all of the affairs of the community is growing strong and wide, but there is danger that the tendency will fall short of its possible beneficent results, unless the need for education, sound and practical, is kept to the fore.

*Provision
for the
Feeble-minded*

Mrs. George M. Moulton's report of the committee on Women's Reformatory Work and Care of Feeble-minded Females, brought out the fact that on June 30, 1903, there were 123 feeble-minded women in 54 county almshouses, while on June 30, 1904, there were 233 in 95 almshouses. Through a questionnaire sent to 1,714 supervisors, it was learned from the answers of 702 that 180 townships are giving relief to 102 feeble-minded females, and in 237 cases the unfortunates, own families are caring for them, making a total accounted for of 339 outside of institutions, or a grand total of 576 known to be in the state of Illinois.

Mrs. Ophelia L. Amigh superintendent of the State Industrial School for Girls at Geneva, spoke strongly in favor of continuous custodial care for feeble-minded women even after the legal age of eighteen at which corrective institutions and asylums for children are required to release them. It was pointed out by Mrs. Martha P. Falconer of the Chicago Children's Home and Aid Society, that the prejudice of the average person to continued custodial care of this class of women, must be removed by persistent educational effort on the part of those who believe in its necessity. Judge Richard S. Tuthill, of Chicago, advocated continuous custodial care for feeble-minded young men and secretary J. Mack Tanner, the prohibition of the marriage of persons who had been inmates.

*Colony
for
Epileptics.*

Prof. J. H. Freeman, superintendent of the Jacksonville institutions for the blind, told of the academic and manual training given the inmates in his institution, fitting them for self-supporting work upon release. A separate institution for feeble-minded blind children was advocated. Dr. V. H. Podstata, superintendent of the Dunning institutions, gave the report of the committee on the care of epileptics. It was the presentation of the need of an epileptic colony in Illinois by a man who combines in himself high skill as a scientist and practical experience as a philanthropist. His investigations showed that the proportion of epileptics to the total population in Illinois is about the same as that in New York.

or one in 500, making more than 8,000 in all. Excluding the dangerous cases complicated with insanity, the very mild cases, and the rich epileptics for whom private care could be secured, there would probably be about 4,000 cases in Illinois for whom colony treatment should be provided. The medical profession is practically a unit on the subject of the need of such a colony in Illinois, as also are the charity workers. A bill to provide for the establishment of such a colony failed at the last session of the legislature. The only thing to be done to bring about its establishment is to arouse public opinion in its favor.

*The Fight
Against
Tuberculosis.*

The last session of the conference considered the work being done by various agencies in the state in the fight against tuberculosis. Dr. A. C. Klebs, chairman of the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of the Visiting Nurses' Association of Chicago, related the practical work of registration of tubercular cases; of caring for patients in their own homes; of the examinations by district physicians in the offices of the Bureau of Charities; the work of the bureau's agents and visiting nurses in ferreting out such cases in the poorer districts; and their material relief upon the advice of the physicians.

Dr. James A. Eagan, secretary of the State Board of Health, stated that between 7,000 and 8,000 persons die every year in Illinois of tuberculosis. The work of the board has been of a character to educate the public mind to the necessity of a state sanatorium. Dr. Evans of the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of the Visiting Nurses' Association, mentioned that the committee has succeeded in inducing labor organizations and fraternal societies to take up the work of agitation. In some labor unions committees have already been appointed to co-operate closely with the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee. Dr. H. M. Thomas, of Chicago, expressed the opinion that the State Board of Health should be made a sort of clearing house for all matters pertaining to the subject of tuberculosis. Dr. George W. Webster chairman of the committee, affirmed that at this winter's session of the legislature a bill for the establishment of a state sanatorium would be passed, if supported by all

agencies and individuals interested. As an object lesson to the people of the state, Dr. A. J. Pettit, of Ottawa, told of work being done in his camp for consumptives operated under the auspices of the State Medical Society. The camp is carried on to demonstrate the value of the modern treatment of consumptives. Thirty-two patients are now in the colony, which was begun July 1, 1904.

Resolutions favoring the following propositions were adopted by the conference:

The transfer of the Dunning asylum of Cook County from the care of the county to the state.

The transfer of all insane patients from the various county poorhouses to state institutions.

The substitution of a "more modern system" for the present grand jury system.

The establishment of an epileptic colony by the state.

Investigation and correction of all faulty tenements and dwellings in Chicago.

The passage of a bill compelling the disinfection of houses in which there has been death from consumption.

Establishment of a state consumption sanatorium.

More adequate appropriation for the state factory inspector's office to enable a more rigid enforcement of the laws pertaining to space and light.

The passage of a bill to regulate the surrender, placing and transfer of children.

The passage of a bill to provide for the visitation of children placed in family homes.

The custody of all feeble-minded women by the state.

Active support of the School in Philanthropy conducted in Chicago under the auspices of the University of Chicago.

The passage of an act for the punishment of crimes against children.

The president was instructed to appoint a committee of seven to take charge of all bills pertaining to state charities, which come before the next legislature. Next year's conference will meet at Pontiac, the opening session coming on the evening of October 3.

The following officers and chairmen of committees were elected:

President, John A. Brown, Decatur; vice-presidents, M. M. Mallary, Pontiac; Mrs. Emma Quinlan, Chicago; Miss Sarah Mont.

gomery, Springfield; secretary, Frank D. Whipp, Springfield; executive committee, Sherman C. Kingsley, Chicago; Mrs. F. P. Bagley, Riverside; Mrs. J. A. Parsons, Jacksonville; Julian Mack, Chicago; W. L. Cosper, Peoria; county charitable and correctional work, Fay Lewis, Rockford, chairman; insane and feeble-minded adults, Dr. W. S. Taylor, Watertown, chairman; chil-

dren's work, (a) (state factory inspection), E. T. Davies, Chicago, chairman; (b) (compulsory education, W. L. Bodine, Chicago, chairman; (c) (juvenile court law), Dr. Josephine Melligan, Jacksonville, chairman; homeless men and non-resident dependents, Eugene T. Lies, Chicago, chairman; relation of women's clubs to public charities, Mrs. Porter P. Heywood, Chicago, chairman.

The Thirteenth Indiana State Conference

STATE PROVISION FOR EPILEPTICS—RESPONSIBILITY OF THE STATE TOWARD MARRIAGE—THE CHURCH AND CHARITY

Amos W. Butler

Secretary Indiana State Board of Charities

The Thirteenth Indiana Conference of Charities and Correction tried the experiment of including Sunday within the time of its meeting. On Sunday, Nov. 20, notwithstanding the fact that a series of great union revival meetings were being held at Terre Haute, representatives of the conference were invited to speak in a score and a half of churches including all of the leading denominations. The Rev. Francis H. Gavis spoke at a large union meeting at St. Joseph's Catholic Church. Rabbi M. Feuerlicht spoke in the Jewish Synagogue. Other leading speakers were Dr. Charles R. Henderson, of Chicago University; Alexander Johnson, general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction; Timothy Nicholson; H. Wirt Steele, the Rev. H. W. Kellogg; Miss Emily E. Rhoades, superintendent of the Industrial School for Girls and Woman's Prison; W. H. Whitaker, superintendent of the Indiana Reformatory. Judge George W. Stubbs of the Indianapolis Juvenile Court and Judge Edward O'Rourke of the Fort Wayne Juvenile Court. Further, two sessions were held in the hall of the State Normal School and the one in the afternoon was addressed by Governor Winfield T. Durbin and Demarchus C. Brown, president of the conference; another in the evening by Alexander Johnson. Several thousand persons heard discourses on the various phases of charitable work that day. The interest manifested in the conference by local ministers and churches was a distinct feature.

The opening session of the conference, called to order by W. C. Ball, the local

chairman, was largely attended and the address of welcome made by Judge S. B. Davis, Prof. T. F. Moran, of Purdue University, responded. Mr. C. Brown's presidential address was entitled *An Historical Sketch and Outlook* and dealt with charitable effort in many lands. The conditions in Indiana were given.

He referred to the fact that the county institutions, the poor asylums and jails, were run for political purposes and while some improvements have been made, they are not what they should be. The advances made in the care of dependent, neglected and delinquent children were noted. The juvenile court law, especially the clause forbidding the keeping of children in jails, was commended. To quote:

Our prisons have been transformed from institutions where positions were given for political service to places where the people's business is conducted in the best possible way; where criminals receive not merely punishment, but instruction and oversight which will enable them to become honorable and self-respecting citizens. This progress has been made in very recent years; and in spite of the fact that there are reactionists, men who are determined to pull us backward, the state has gone too far forward even to look back. The insane are now cared for in four institutions in a way that is a great credit to the commonwealth. The state is looking for results and nothing but results.

I wish to speak of the outlook. I wish to put before you some of the things we are looking forward to. We are looking forward to higher and better ideals in the care of our unfortunates. The present jail system must go. Jails are manufacturing establishments for criminals. The state should by statute prevent the marriage of those who are unfit. All persistent criminals should be confined in the penitentiary during

their lives. The state should look upon penology as a science, just as it does education or the care of the health. The officials of prisons should be especially trained for their work. I wish to make a plea for a closer relation between the church and charity. Personally I believe that the church has not done what its Master taught it to do, namely, take care of the unfortunate. Shall we not look forward to the time when the state shall take care of the infirmaries? Child labor must be utterly stopped. The only qualification for any position in a charitable or a correctional institution should be competency. The state should care for the unfortunate epileptics where their peculiar needs and weaknesses can be observed and as far as possible corrected. Many people are wondering whether the state of Indiana will soon care for those afflicted with tuberculosis.

*The Church
and
Charity.*

The session Monday morning was devoted to the church and charity, Thomas C. Day, of Indianapolis, presiding. The first address was *A Business Man's View of Organized Charities*, by C. M. Kimbrough, president of the Indiana Bridge Co., Muncie. He said that nothing had been done for years that augured so well for society as the forming of charity organizations. "As a business proposition, it pays," he said, "and no matter how we may try to get away from it, the fact still remains that we are our brother's keeper." The Rev. Francis H. Gavisk, rector of St. John's Catholic Church, Indianapolis, made a strong plea for churches to co-operate with charity organization societies, the Rev. M. L. Haines of the First Presbyterian Church, Indianapolis, spoke of the co-operation that had been brought about through them and the Rev. C. M. Carter of the First Baptist Church, Muncie, said: "The separate church charity associations can do but a limited work and a larger organization is absolutely indispensable for complete results. There is need for the hearty, enthusiastic, liberal and unanimous support of the central organization by the church." Dr. W. E. Garrison, president of Butler College, Irvington, declared that for lack of facilities churches sometimes make a sad muddle of things in giving aid, and as conditions grow more complex, this work is gradually passing out of the hands of the church into the hands of organizations made up

of individuals who have been trained by the church and whose lives have been lit up with the spirit of the Great Master. There were also remarks by Capt. Eli F. Ritter, of Indianapolis, and reports of the work being done in organized charities in their respective cities by Mrs. L. LeVan of South Bend and Mrs. Minnie Waldron of Bloomington.

One of the most important sessions of the conference was that devoted to children presided over by George S. Wilson, superintendent of the Indiana Institution for the Blind. The first address of the evening was by Dr. Charles R. Henderson. To quote in brief:

*Marriage
the Fundamental
Child Problem.*

The fundamental child problem of the state is that of marriage, whose social purpose is the rearing of the future laborers, producers of wealth, and citizens of the republic. The state has a serious responsibility to see that its people are well born and maintained and educated. The state can and should go as far as law can go to prevent thoughtless, reckless marriages. Cupid has been blind only too long. Some help can come from purely educational means: by the formation of public sentiment; by plain, pure, specific teaching to girls and boys the meaning, purpose, consequences and duties of the married state. Custom and mode may assist education by making the announcement of engagements more fashionable; by surrounding the ceremony of marriage with beauty and solemnity; by condemning the marriage of the diseased, the degenerate, those unfit to become parents. And, finally, the majesty of the law must be invoked and its power consecrated: by requiring a publication of intention before license is issued; by publicity of the license itself; by requiring as a condition of a legal and valid marriage a civil marriage before a registrar representing the state with a certain and official record; by prohibiting the granting of license to immature youth and to diseased and feeble persons; and by the custodial segregation of the feeble-minded and degenerate.

Mrs. Wallace B. Campbell, president of the Madison County Orphans' Home Association, affirmed that the true work of the orphans' home is to fit children for family life. The Rev. Hiram W. Kellogg of the Central Avenue Methodist Church, Indianapolis, spoke of the work of the Juvenile Court, and the Rev. A. B. Philputt of the Central Christian Church, Indianapo-

lis, told of his personal experience as a volunteer probation officer of that court. Superintendent E. E. York, of the Indiana Boys' School at Plainfield, described the relation of that institution to the courts which commit children thereto and gave credit for promoting the child-saving features in Indiana's laws to the Board of State Charities. Judge George W. Stubbs of the Marion County Juvenile Court, Indianapolis, declared that, in his opinion, the wisest feature of the juvenile court law is its provision for the appointment of volunteer probation officers.

At the afternoon session Dr. J. W. Milligan, of South Bend, formerly assistant physician at the Northern Indiana Hospital for Insane, spoke from several years' experience on what shall be done for the epileptic. Dr. Kenosha Sessions, of Evansville, read a very practical paper giving the results of several years' experience with women in the Southern Hospital for the Insane, as physician of the women's department. Dr. L. H. Streaker, who as a physician of the Indiana State Prison, has made a special study of insane criminals, read a paper on mental defect in prisoners. In this he stated that the indiscriminate sentencing by the courts of men who at the time of their crime are wholly irresponsible has reached an alarming stage and some radical measures must be taken to correct the injustice. He urged special provision for this class of unfortunates and changes in the criminal law.

Crime and Its Prevention.

In the session devoted to the treatment and prevention of crime, D. J. Terhune, a member of the Board of Managers of the Indiana Reformatory and a prominent coal operator, spoke definitely on the employment of prisoners from the standpoint of the reformatory. He said:

In my opinion the schoolroom and the trade school are the great factors in the reformation of the young men in the reformatory. With the expiration of the present contracts in July, 1906, the board of

managers should be left free to introduce such industries and establish such trade schools as will best equip the young men for future usefulness. No great numbers should be confined to any one industry, and therefore the product produced would be so insignificant that it would not interfere with any article manufactured outside.

Judge Edward O'Rourke, of the Allen County Juvenile Court, Fort Wayne, spoke on the work of juvenile courts and probation officers. "The word should be 'Save the young,'" he said. "Teach them to be temperate in all things; to exercise self-control; to be industrious and to live within means honestly acquired." The work of the Industrial School for Girls was described in a paper by Mrs. John B. Elam, of Indianapolis, president of the board of managers of the school, who urged that the coming legislature complete the work begun by the last general assembly in separating the institution from the woman's prison.

W. H. Whittaker, superintendent of the Indiana Reformatory, read a paper on *The Jail Problem*.

The closing session of the conference was devoted to local charities and was presided over by U. G. Wetherly, professor of economics in the Indiana University.

Features of the conference were the round tables for informal discussion of the details of the work in various fields. Devoted respectively to dependent children, Thomas E. Ellison of Fort Wayne, chairman; neglected children and the juvenile court, Rabbi M. Feuerlicht, Indianapolis, chairman; city charities, Mrs. Annie E. Palmateer, Terra Haute, chairman; and county charities, William P. Cooper, Fort Wayne, chairman. There were also three informal meetings called by members present. One of these was composed of the judges of juvenile courts; another of members of boards of county charities; a third, of the county commissioners.

H. H. Hanna, president of the Atlas Engine Works, Indianapolis, was elected president and the Rev. Hiram W. Kellogg of the Central Avenue Methodist Church, Indianapolis, was made secretary.

CHARITIES

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A Children's Flower Show of Christmas-tide. All last week and half-way into this, a mid-winter flower show has been in progress in the recreation room of Public School No. 137, at the corner of Grand and Essex streets, on New York's East Side. The building is an old one, rather gloomy than otherwise, but not so this large room filled to overflowing as it has been with evidences of the out of doors at holiday time—holly and mistletoe, firs and all the evergreens, birds' nests, cocoons, shells, and the like, such as are calculated to make small eyes grow wide open, which are accustomed at this season of the year only to bare parks and slushy streets.

The undertaking is the work of the nature material committee of the Public Education Association. These flower shows were first instituted in 1894 by the natural science committee of the Normal College Alumnae under the chairmanship of Mrs. John I. Northrop. The committee of the Public Education Association first co-operated in 1900, and at that time it was decided to give the flower shows in the public schools instead of in the college, a move distinctly in the right direction. Since then schools have been selected in the crowded parts of the city where there are few or no parks and the work has been carried forward by committees under the leadership of Mrs. Northrop, and the nature material committee.

Until 1903 three regular flower shows were held each year, an Arbor Day show in which special efforts are made to have a fine showing of trees, a second spring show the third or fourth week in May, in which the later wild flowers and cultivated plants are exhibited, and an autumn show the second or third week in October, according to the season, of fall flowers and all the wealth of the harvest

time. A year ago the committee ventured on a December mid-winter show and the success led to its repetition this past month.

Those who know only of hot-house flowers at Christmas time would have difficulty in imagining how attractive tables and walls and counters can be arranged with these mid-winter specimens, or what lively interest can be taken by the little folk in gray old bird nests and real live Christmas trees of the kind that put at a discount the folding-up variety which is for sale on the East Side. An effort was made to provide a sprig of holly for each child. This year's show proved so interesting that at suggestion of Miss Richman, the district superintendent, the time was extended and the children from the other schools brought over in groups. These have come for an hour at a time and there being six school hours and the children coming in groups of 100 to 200, an average of a thousand children have attended daily. The results will bear fruit in a wondrous observation displayed in their drawing classes, for at the close of the show the specimens are turned over for practice work.

Suggestive Pioneer Work.

This is the tenth year of these children's flower shows in New York and the work of collecting the nature material has been developed along interesting lines. Appeals are sent out early to those who are interested in the work of the association, and boxes and barrels and coupé loads come piling in from fields and woods and country estates, from the smaller towns, from the mountains and the seashore. A great box of evergreens, for example, came down last week from the school children in one of the Hudson river towns. The park department contributes heavily, the Natural History Association provides the cases,

and co-operation comes annually from a hundred stray nooks and corners.

One of the results the committee is working for is to create a love and respect among the children for nature. The committee has been accused, of course, of helping in denuding the woods. They cannot be responsible for those who collect recklessly for them. The circulars sent out ask that care be taken, and it is held that to create a love for the things that grow and to educate these many children in nature will do more good than to entirely prohibit picking, will help in the end to prevent wholesale vandalism in the woods.

Of the other side of the story of how much it means to the school children themselves, a great grist of letters bear testimony—letters from principals and teachers and children themselves. The child who wrote that she had seen many flowers in the picture books, but did not know that she was going to see them alive, and could not believe that there could be so many of them, is typical.

The pioneer work thus being done in occasional schools is big in its suggestiveness of possible development elsewhere.

The appointment of Prof. Charles P. Neill as commissioner of labor, to succeed Carroll D. Wright, will be hailed with satisfaction by those who have known of the excellent work he has done in a variety of fields. Mr. Neill is professor of social and political economy at the Catholic University at Washington. He was appointed a member of the District Board of Charities when it was organized about five years ago, and has served continuously in many important capacities. He was a member of the committee which investigated the affairs of the Emergency Hospital, and more recently was asked to serve with John Joy Edson on a committee to investigate the charges against the administration of the reform school for girls.

These things were known to residents of Washington and to charity workers in other cities, but it was as assistant recorder to the Anthracite Strike Commission that Professor Neill attracted national attention—a work so well per-

formed that when Judge Gray was asked to arbitrate the trouble of the miners in Alabama he requested Professor Neill to accompany him as assistant.

During the past year Professor Neill prepared the exhibits of Catholic educational institutions for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition and was awarded a gold medal at St. Louis.

*Two Attorneys
Barrred from
Ellis Island.*

The Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants recently issued a telling pamphlet giving evidence of fraud in the treatment of immigrants, and as the direct result of this activity Secretary Metcalf of the Department of Commerce and Labor, has issued an order barring Herbert F. Andrews and Louis C. Whiton, attorneys at 44 Broadway, New York, from practising at any immigration station in the United States. On the strength of a story of alleged swindle told by an Italian named Salvatore Bamenti, Edward Basso, an employé of Andrews & Whiton, was arrested at the instigation of the society and made a confession of the methods by which he says he took fifty Italians to the lawyers. His affidavit was published in full in the pamphlet, which exposed also a number of apparent frauds last spring.

The most recent case against Andrews & Whiton was announced this week by Commissioner Williams at Ellis Island. The story was told by Giovanni d'Arca, who alleges that he was swindled out of \$70. On November 21 d'Arca says he obtained a pass for Ellis Island at the offices of the Fabre Line, to get his sister Rosa who had arrived that day on a steamer. As he left the steamship office he was approached, he says, by a man who inquired of his business at Ellis Island, and took him to the thirteenth floor at No. 27 William street, where he alleges he was met by Andrews and Whiton, who agreed to get his sister off the island for \$30.

The money was paid, and the next day, d'Arca declares, on not getting Rosa, he returned to the office, and, according to his story, was informed by the lawyers that Rosa had changed her name to Russell, and by so doing made it necessary for an extra charge of \$20 to get

her from the island. d'Arca says he paid \$10 then, and continued to pay sums that reached a total of \$70. His sister, meanwhile, had been deported on November 18 on the steamship Gallia. He demanded the return of his money, he said, and the lawyers refused to pay. Through the society he appealed to Commissioner Williams.

*The Needlework
Guild
of America.*

One of the factors which, each year, makes life brighter and happier and more comfortable to the sick, suffering, and needy, is undoubtedly the Needlework Guild of America, which was organized in Philadelphia in April, 1885, and incorporated June, 1896. The founder, Mrs. John Wood Stewart of Glen Ridge, N. J., still retains her interest and influence. The object of the guild is to collect and distribute garments—new, plain, suitable to hospitals, homes and various other charities. As the garments are really for winter use, warm materials or garments are the most helpful. The annual contribution of two or more new articles of clothing, or shoes, or household linen, or money constitutes membership in a branch of the guild, and there is such a branch in nearly every state. Men, women and children may become members.

The New York City Branch, of which Mrs. Arthur M. Dodge is honorary president; Miss Grace Bigelow, president; Mrs. H. M. Dewees, secretary, 12 West Eighteenth street; and Mrs. Harold G. Henderson, 82 Irving Place, treasurer, recently had its annual distribution. The beneficiaries included adults and children under the care of hospitals, homes for incurables, homes for convalescents, day nurseries, guilds and schools for crippled children, the Salvation Army diet kitchens, and those who are in the care of societies and are ill and needy in their own homes.

The helpfulness and comfort the New York City Guild has given this year could be multiplied and many more recipients made happier and more comfortable if a thousand more women in New York next year would contribute but two new garments and each enable the guild to meet the increasing requests.

And what is said of New York is also true of other local guilds in other cities.

A state association for the prevention and relief of tuberculosis in Maryland was organized December 13, at the close of a mass meeting held in McCoy Hall, Johns Hopkins University. This association may be accounted one of the tangible accomplishments of the state commission, which has been working for almost three years to cultivate a popular interest and sense of responsibility in regard to the subject of tuberculosis. By its bills before the legislature, by its admirable report on the prevalence and economic aspects of tuberculosis in Maryland, and perhaps most of all by the tuberculosis exhibit which was held last winter in Baltimore and has since been copied on a smaller scale in other places, the commission prepared the way for a cordial response to the invitation it sent out for the meeting this month.

Dr. William Osler, the recently appointed Regius Professor of Medicine in Oxford University, presided at the meeting. The principal addresses of the evening were by Dr. Edward O. Otis, of Boston, who described the methods of the Boston association; Dr. W. S. Mayer and Dr. William H. Welch, both of Baltimore, who spoke of the need for organized private effort in Maryland, the results to be accomplished and the way to accomplish them; and Dr. Henry Barton Jacobs, secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, who gave an account of the origin and hopes of that body.

The audience was a representative one, composed of physicians, social workers, and many men and women with a less professional interest in the subject discussed. Before the meeting, membership cards were distributed; many of these were returned signed at the close of the evening. A constitution was adopted and the following officers elected: president, Dr. Henry Barton Jacobs; secretary, Dr. Joseph S. Ames; treasurer, David Hutzler; vice-presidents, Governor Edwin Warfield, Mayor E. Clay Timanus, Cardinal Gibbons, Lloyd Lowndes, of Cumberland;

John Walter Smith, Snow Hill; Dr. D. C. Gilman, Michael Jenkins and Eugene Levering.

*A County
Tyrant
in Ulster.*

The governor of the state of New York has been asked by the long suffering board of supervisors of Ulster County to remove from office the dishonest and grossly incompetent superintendent of the poor, who has so notoriously disgraced the public service in that county. Last winter CHARITIES commented upon the unfortunate situation in Ulster County, and gave an account of the investigation of the administration of Superintendent Sammons by a committee of the board of supervisors, which condemned his methods. At that time it was decided to give Sammons another trial, and a committee on accounts was appointed by the board to supervise and regulate his expenditures. After nearly a year's work, this committee presents a detailed report showing that "the superintendent has persistently violated the act passed by the board of supervisors January 14, 1904, and almost every one of its provisions. To say the least, he is grossly incompetent and unfit longer to fill the office of superintendent of the poor of this county." It appears from this report that the superintendent has refused to obey the directions of the committee, has bought at extravagant prices enormous quantities of supplies, which have been only in part delivered, and cannot be accounted for. Regardless of an act passed by the supervisors that money specially appropriated for salaries should be used only for that purpose, the superintendent drew from the county treasury before May 1 the entire \$10,000 appropriated for that purpose for the entire year. He has refused to keep books prescribed by the committee, and has behaved in such a way that the committee "has found it difficult, and at times impossible, to perform its duty because it has been hindered, delayed, and obstructed by the superintendent, who has at all times assumed a right to make all purchases of supplies, regardless of the act passed by the board of supervisors limiting his expenditures to the sum of \$10,000, and providing that moneys in excess of that

sum shall not be spent without a certificate in writing of the chairman of the board and the committee." Sammons, in fact, attempted to contract for and bind the county for bills amounting to nearly \$3,500 in excess of this amount.

Further, the mismanagement of the county farm is such that although it is very fertile, enormous quantities of fertilizer are paid for by the county, and a farmer regularly employed, absolutely no vegetables have been raised during the year except a two months' supply of potatoes. The farm practically goes to waste. The significant fact is brought out by the committee that among Sammons' bondsmen are the men who furnished from seventy-five to eighty per cent of all the supplies at the county house.

*The Attitude
of Superintendent
Sammons.*

The attitude of the superintendent is exhibited by the following extract from a report of an inspector of the State Board of Charities:

During the conversation I had with Superintendent Sammons he complained of the restrictions of his privileges resulting from the investigation. He said he had been in hell for six months. He used violent and profane language in referring to the members, officers and inspectors of the board, and to the members and auditing committee of the board of supervisors. He said he did not care how many resolutions they adopted, he was elected by the people, and as long as he was superintendent he would run the county house himself, and buy what he wanted in spite of all the resolutions that might be adopted.

Such an exhibition of complete and open disregard of authority and of all requirements of law and order would be almost beyond belief if not vouched for by this reliable committee of a board which is trying to do its duty by the taxpayers it represents. The unanimous verdict of the committee that "extravagance and utter incompetency" characterizes the present administration is certainly justified by the facts which it is able to instance. That the taxpayers are unjustly burdened to support this debauched administration is obvious, but the taxpayers are not the only sufferers. How about the poor inmates of the county almshouse, and the county poor generally? It is not the business of this board to inquire into

their condition, but the investigations of the State Board of Charities made last year have shown us what to expect so long as Sammons remains the guardian of the poor and the helpless. The report of the committee ended with the recommendation that Sammons be removed, and the claims of the county against him and his bondsmen be enforced.

Pending the action of the governor, the board of supervisors might call for a medical examination of Sammons's mental condition. The only charitable view of his case is to regard him as mentally unbalanced.

In the death of R. M. Scruggs, for more than twenty-five years president of the St. Louis Provident Association, that organization and philanthropic people generally in St. Louis have lost a clear-sighted, influential leader—one who has worked to good purpose for more than half a century, had given generous support where it would count to most effect, and had done both modestly. A few years ago Mr. Scruggs built a home for incurables for the Bethesda Association, and it was only after protracted importunities that his name was permitted to be placed on the corner-stone—and then only on assurance that it would be "very small." During the past eight years his contributions to different charitable undertakings averaged \$100,000 a year, and his will shows bequests of \$450,000, \$25,000 as permanent investment for the Provident Association. In the words of a friend, the fact that he gave broadly and that his benefactions were without respect to person or creed—the telephone call in extreme weather which meant he would personally stand behind the resources of the association in meeting pressing demands—is no more noteworthy than his unwavering faith that to give permanent relief in cases of poverty, the moral character of those to be benefited must be awakened.

In the report of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction CHARITIES published two weeks ago a summary of remarks supposed to have been made by Edward T. Devine

*Mr. Loomis on
the Radical
Defect of the
Merit System.*

opening the discussion of the paper by Frank M. Loomis, of Buffalo, on *The Radical Defect of the Merit System*. As a matter of fact there was no discussion at Syracuse of Mr. Loomis's paper, but the necessity for preparing in advance a part of the report of the conference betrayed CHARITIES into the use of the brief summary which, in accordance with the usage of the conference, had been prepared in advance for the press.

The publication of this summary calls forth a rejoinder from Mr. Loomis to which we very gladly give space, thus rounding out a discussion for the benefit of the readers of CHARITIES which is not expected to appear in the volume of the proceedings of the conference. The only remark which we desire to make in reply to Mr. Loomis is that we agree with him that the reference to the result of certain presidential elections should not be taken too seriously, the only point of this reference—if it has one—being that the important appointive offices are more nearly analagous to elective offices than to such positions as are now filled by appointment from eligible lists.

Mr. Devine's criticism of my address is suggestive. There is no disagreement between us on the proposition that a competitive examination is better suited for positions under a system which has had a normal growth than under a new system like that of the Tenement-house Department in which the processes are, or were, in an experimental stage. But even here Mr. Devine concedes that the competitive plan is better than the political spoils system, and he overlooks the fact that choice has to be made between the two methods, in filling the positions of commissioner or deputy, equally as when appointments are made to minor positions. There is no conceivable alternative under existing political conditions in this country. When there is no civil service law, or whenever a position is exempted from the operation of the law, appointments are made almost invariably as a reward for party service; the spoils system immediately has full sway. I quite agree that it would have been impracticable for the mayor of New York to have selected his tenement-house commissioners or their deputies in the first instance by promotion through the medium of a competitive examination; and for the all-sufficient reason that there was then no trained band of subordinates from among whom selections could be made. But, conversely, I will hazard the opinion that promotion from the ranks of those who have

now acquired an intimate knowledge of the practical workings of the department, competing with those outside the department who might like to take the promotion examination, would be much better than to leave the higher positions of commissioner and deputy a prey to the spoilsman under a prospective partisan administration of the city's affairs.

Mr. Devine's question as to whether Roosevelt would have beaten Parker or Root in an examination, and whether Lincoln would have beaten Seward, like his assertion that Hamilton would have beaten Washington, and Aaron Burr, Jefferson, shows a curious misapprehension of my position. No one has suggested, least of all myself, that there should be any examinations for high government positions which are properly, and in their very nature, elective. I was at some pains to outline a plan for free nominations under which elective positions might, and ought to be, filled, in preference to the caucus and convention system under which we are now operating, and am at a loss to conceive how that could have been confused with the method now provided for filling non-elective positions. But possibly Mr. Devine did not expect to be taken seriously in what he said in this regard.

I regret having to agree with much of what he says regarding the inefficiency, incompetence, and worse, of some of the civil service commissions. There is nothing to be gained, and possibly much lost, by a lack of candor in meeting honest criticism. However others may dissent I for one feel constrained to concede the justice of some of the complaints made regarding the methods and practices of civil service commissions. It ought not to be overlooked, however, that the most prolific cause of the irregularities complained of is the pressure brought to bear upon the commissions by partisan heads of departments. Make these heads of departments civil service appointees removable only for cause, as I have urged, and they will no longer be concerned to select their subordinates for partisan reasons, and will cease to press the examining boards to wink at violations of the civil service law. And if we go a step further and select our elective officials under a free nomination system instead of at partisan caucuses and conventions, partisanship will practically be eliminated from our civil service. On the other hand, so long as our civil service commissions are subjected to pressure from partisans in the higher positions, including the heads of departments, just so long, I apprehend, will there be occasions for complaints like those made by Mr. Devine.

Notes of the Week.

Social Work Among the Friends.—At the request of the Young Friends' Association, of Philadelphia, Carl Kelsey, associate pro-

fessor of sociology of Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, recently prepared a syllabus on problems of poverty which the association plans to use in the Sunday-schools to supplement and extend the regular course. Further, various meetings in and around Philadelphia have appointed delegates to a class which Professor Kelsey was asked to take to prepare the members as teachers in their schools. Fifteen sessions will be held throughout the winter on Saturday afternoons in the building of the Young Friends' Association, 140 North Fifteenth street. The two sessions thus far held have been attended each by over one hundred and fifty persons, and no little thoroughness has been manifested in the way of outside reading. Altogether the movement in its zest and personal note is of striking interest.

Dr. Robbins at Locust Point.—The Locust Point Social Settlement in Baltimore, to which Dr. Jane E. Robbins has gone for the winter, is a point of land which appears at first glance to be largely given over to freight cars. The population is Irish, German and American, and the men are many of them stevedores. The land is not yet entirely built over, and the goat still flourishes in many an empty lot. The settlement is fortunate in being on the scene early with an attractive little house, and it has already gathered into its fold a large number of children and mothers.

Compulsory Education in Maryland.—The Baltimore State Board of Education has put itself squarely on record as favoring compulsory education. At a recent meeting a special committee reported that a large number of children are growing up in the state without any schooling at all, and recommended a law making education compulsory between the ages of eight and twelve years.

National Red Cross.—Congress has passed the act incorporating the American National Red Cross, and with the president's signature the organization will have the new charter which its friends regard as the foundation for its future well being. A meeting of the incorporators will probably be held in January.

Johns Hopkins Clinic for Crippled Children.—For the children who have been attending the orthopædic clinics at the Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, a complete orthopædic section, with a gymnasium equipped on modern lines, has been fitted up in rooms left vacant by the opening of the new surgical building.

Tuberculosis Committee.—A tuberculosis committee for the Borough of Brooklyn is being organized under the auspices of the Heights Branch of the Woman's Municipal League. Mrs. Camden Dike is the president of the branch, and Mrs. H. Edward Dreier the chairman of the committee.

A Children's Strike on the East Side

William English Walling

Secretary The Woman's Trade Union League of New York¹

The strike of 125 employees of the Cohen paper box factory, at 84 Bowery, has aroused the interest of the East Side as no other strike since the great conflict in the garment trades last summer. A large majority of the strikers are girls and of these most are very young, many being mere children of fourteen and fifteen years.

These young people have been out for eight weeks living on the pittance which the Hebrew Trades Council has raised from small contributions of sympathetic working people of the East Side. So strong is the feeling against their employer that they are willing to fight it out indefinitely as long as they are provided with the five or ten cents necessary for each meal.

The Hebrew Trades Council, by means of popular concerts and direct contributions by the unions, has furnished about \$700 to the strikers, whose local and national organization is without funds.

The socialist Jewish paper, *Vorwärts*, has also raised money in the strikers' behalf and aroused a general public interest in the strike.

The struggle of these young girls to better their conditions was laid before the Woman's Trade Union League a few days ago, and the league, after considerable investigation, has decided to take up the case of the strikers, raise funds for them, give publicity to the facts, and urge a settlement on the employers.

The strike was caused by a proposed reduction of wages amounting to ten per cent. Before the cut the girls were getting three dollars a thousand boxes. There was no union at the time, but one was formed for the purpose of resisting the reduction. Already the employer has offered to take some of the employees back at the old wages. There is no doubt that he needs them, for he has used every effort to persuade them to leave their organization

¹ The Woman's Trade Union League was organized about a year ago and has branches in Chicago, Boston and New York. Mrs. Mary Morton Kehew is president, Jane Addams, vice-president, Mrs. Mary K. O'Sullivan, secretary. Margaret C. Daly is president of the New York League, and the executive committee is composed of members of unions which have women workers and of well-known social workers. The secretary's office is at the University Settlement.—Ed.

and is said even to have visited some of their homes. The season for the making of cigarette boxes, which is the business of this factory, will soon reach its height, and experienced workers are difficult to obtain.

An extraordinary and deplorable feature of the strike has been the arrest of a number of the small girls on charges of assault. The youth and gentleness of these girls seem to make it most unlikely that they are guilty of the disorderly conduct with which they are charged. In each case the girls have been dismissed, but the small sums of money the strikers have been able to get together have been almost instantly disbursed by the arrests and fines levied against the men of the union who have been endeavoring to put their case before the new employees hired by Mr. Cohen. The strikers charge that the arrests are illegal and absolutely without cause.

The Woman's Trade Union League intends to get to the bottom of these arrests and to watch closely those that are made in the future. It has also directed the attention of the daily press to the strike and hopes that the pressure of public opinion will have some influence on the employer. It is among the principal objects of the league to encourage in every way possible those unions which are attempting the organization of the comparatively helpless women workers, and with this end in view it will continue its investigation and leave no stone unturned to assist the strikers. Enough money has already been raised to continue the strike for several weeks if advisable.

Members of the league have received the accounts of the officers of the union, have attended the union meetings and are convinced that a knowledge, such as they have obtained, of the sufferings through which the strikers have gone, would convince all fair-minded people that the strikers have a serious grievance.

The youth of the employees as well as their sex makes it necessary that they should secure public support if they are to win their struggle.

Merrie Christmas at Saint Johnland

A VILLAGE OF OLD AND YOUNG WHICH WAKENS TO THE SINGING OF THE WAITS

N. O. Halsted

There are probably very few places where Christmas is looked forward to with more eager anticipation than at Saint Johnland. The life of its residents is a simple rural one all the year round. It is miles away from any village and many miles from the city, so there are none of the ordinary social privileges and entertainments. Consequently this little community of nearly three hundred souls goes on year after year living within itself and for itself, and for those homeless ones it is pledged to care for. Everything consistent with economy, however, is done to make this life a happy one.

The national holidays are all duly observed as far as the means available will permit, and to these is added the celebration of the founder's birthday,¹ when the bishop of the diocese makes his annual visitation at a morning service, and the afternoon is devoted to such outdoor games and contests as will best contribute to the enjoyment of old and young alike.

Since its inauguration twelve years ago the present administration has endeavored to eliminate institutionalism and develop a home where the residents shall be as one large family, even though domiciled under many roofs. The fact that many of the boys and girls of former years are constantly returning for short visits, or to spend their vacations near us, would indicate that the effort has not been made in vain.

And the writer is convinced that, aside from the practical benefits they have derived from the home, one of the chief factors in instilling this disposition on the part of Saint Johnland's children is the way in which Christmas is observed. Of all the holidays this is made, as it should

¹ The Rev. William Augustus Muhlenberg, D. D., born September 16, 1796. Saint Johnland was founded by Dr. Muhlenberg in 1861. It is located on Long Island Sound near Kings Park Station, L. I. The Church of the Testimony of Jesus is the center of the settlement, and around it are: St. John's Inn for forty old men, Sunset Cottage for twelve aged couples, five cottages with a total capacity of 155 children, a school, a kindergarten, and twelve small cottages for workmen's families. Shops, barns and outbuildings bring the number of buildings on the premises up to thirty-one. Nearly two-thirds of the inmates of the six homes enjoy the privilege of occupying free beds.

be, the greatest and happiest, and none of them ever forget the joy of the festival.

I take it for granted that no one interested in charitable work can be so cold a philosopher as to deprive a child of his faith in the coming of Santa Claus at this season. It is absolutely certain those interested in Saint Johnland will not do so. Early in December of each year a number of our trustees and patrons provide for his traveling expenses and the veriest sceptic must admit that he never fails to come here. It requires only a little thoughtful planning and a few days work to make this day of days full of new pleasures for even those who have spent more than one Christmas within our gates. The wholesale toy and notion stores are diligently searched for novelties, the memoranda of the gifts distributed in previous years consulted, and Santa Claus is able to leave for every child a toy, or book, or game that is entirely new to him, or her, at that time. (It is true that the little girls always receive new dolls, but these are so varied in size and costume that each one maintains its individuality without apparent effort.) There is an almost endless variety of articles available for suitable gifts and happy faces and excited voices quickly show how much they are appreciated.

A few days before Christmas the school sessions are discontinued and the children, under the teacher's direction, gather and prepare the greens and decorate the church and homes. A pine tree is brought from the woods to each cottage, where it is covered with glittering ornaments and set up to grace the playroom until New Year's day. Every evening an hour at least is devoted to the rehearsal of Christmas music, and but little else is thought or talked of except "Christmas," day or night. Throughout the community old and young are filled with the spirit of happy preparation. The stage and the mail wagon become the objects of the most searching scrutiny. Every time "Jimmy" returns from the station there

is wild excitement over the mysterious packages and boxes that disappear so quickly into the insatiable maw of the office, and one hears such exclamations as "How many has he got?" "Guess what's in 'em!" "Candy!" "Naw, *turkeys!*" And we are all children enough to wonder if either is right.

However, on Christmas Eve, Santa Claus confiscates them all and distributes the contents where he will. Christmas morning will find a great stack of attractive things around the tree in each home. For every child there are at least two, and they are plainly marked with his or her name. How much more of unspeakable joy such children will have in gifts which are their "very own" just because Santa Claus thought to write their names!

But Santa Claus has hardly finished his work of the night and gone, when candle lights twinkle in several of the cottages for a minute and then go out as suddenly as they appeared. Now there are dark figures groping about the lawn and paths until some twenty are gathered, whispering and giggling together. It is dark and cold, and they start a little when the loud clear tone of the church clock bell rings out the hour of five. The watchman appears with his lantern, looks over the shivering group, and then lets them stealthily enter the nearest cottage, where they tip-toe into the hall. There is a moment's silence, and then sweet young voices fill the whole house with a joyous Christmas carol.

Immediately bright faces and white gowns crowd into the hall above, and shouts of "Merry Christmas" greet them from the top of the stairs when their carol is sung. Another carol, and then away they trudge out into the snow and darkness to surprise the sleepers in the next house. No storm has ever been severe enough to keep the children from making these calls on Christmas morning, heralding the Lord's birthday with their hymns of praise and thanksgiving. Every home has been visited and the children are back in their rooms, "for a few more winks," before sunrise.

Ah! you have missed much who have never been awakened by such music on Christmas Day. Lying there in the darkness, one is suddenly conscious of music

and for a moment sleepily wonders what it can be. A few familiar tones, then a word or two, are comprehended, and a holy peace takes possession of one's heart and soul as the little ones sing "Jesus Christ to-day is born." The impression made on the awakening mind by the first phrase of that carol remains throughout the day, and many days afterward, and one has forever after a truer conception of the birthday of the Holy Child Jesus.

On September 16, 1868, Dr. Muhlenberg's seventy-second birthday, the children gathered under his window early in the morning and sang their greeting in words and music composed by some of his nearest and dearest friends. Dr. Muhlenberg's modesty could not permit him to accept the ovation without the thought that it was too laudatory. Before the following Christmas he had changed the tune and rewritten the words, converting the tribute to himself into a hymn of adoration of his Lord, and this has been sung by the little carol singers almost every Christmas morning since that time. The first verse is this:

"Glorious birthday!
Glorious birthday!
Promised since the world began;
With the dawning
Of this morning,
Born the Lord the Son of Man."

The morning service is held in the church at eleven o'clock. Ours is an unique congregation, and of all times this is the one when the people of Saint Johnland seem most like one great family of God's children. Without the door Christmas greetings have brought brightness to every face, and within their Father's house is peace. Old and young respond heartily through the glad service. The frequent rehearsals have made all familiar with the music, and the church resounds with the united singing of choir and congregation. There is a short sermon, the celebration of the Holy Communion, and the recessional hymn, and after a moment of silent prayer all leave as quietly as they entered it.

They separate for but a few minutes, for soon a great bell is rung from the door of the dining-hall, and the good things of God's bounty are spread before them as they gather around the tables

and return thanks for all His goodness. There is always a good turkey dinner on Christmas Day, and when that is over one may truthfully say "the children own the town." And we are all children.

The rest of the day is given entirely to the enjoyment of the Christmas gifts, coasting and skating. In one room may be found a boy of twelve playing dominoes with one of seventy-five; elsewhere is a girl of ten romping with another more than twice her age; and out on the hill shouts and shrieks of laughter proclaim lively times being had by the crowd of youngsters struggling in the snow. Every one participates; there is no restraint; no one is old; the man smoking his pipe in the corner is "only restin' a bit." It is Christmas Day at Saint Johnland.

The children's gifts are too numerous and varied to be described here, but you may rest assured they have all they can take care of. Some one has written that it offends a boy to give him a toy he cannot break in a few minutes, but the little fellows here are not so sensitive;

they seem quite content if their toys and games stand the wear and tear of vigorous play, and they are taught to keep them in good order as long as the liberal use of them will permit.

And be it known that not one resident on the society's domain has been overlooked by Santa Claus. The old men received mufflers, gloves, cardigans, umbrellas, handkerchiefs, cuff links, napkin rings, pocket match boxes, pipes and tobacco, chess men and card games—accompanied all of them by oranges and large cornucopias of candy. Every employé has received one or more presents, and to each tenant family has been sent a turkey and a Christmas package of goodies.

Peace on earth and good-will towards men are surely to be found in Saint Johnland this holy season, and there are grateful hearts thanking our Heavenly Father for His providential care and blessing. Indeed they fulfil the words of the Psalmist's exhortation: "Young men and maidens, old men and children, praise the Name of the Lord."

Second Boston Conference of Child-Helping Societies

THE WARDS OF THE CHILDREN'S INSTITUTIONS DEPARTMENT

Harvey H. Baker

At the annual meeting of the Conference of Child-helping Societies of Boston this month the various branches of the work of the Children's Institutions Department were described by officers, agents and teachers who are actually engaged in the work of the department.

Superintendent D. P. Dame of the Parental School at West Roxbury, which is the truant school for Boston, said that most of his boys do not lack affection for their homes. The misbehavior which results in their commitment to his school is due not to their loving home less, but to their loving excitement and freedom more. The greater number of them are more or less abnormal, and they have become truants and school offenders because public schools are not supplying the kind of education suited to their natures and capacities. They are keen students of human nature as a result of

their experience in hoodwinking parents and teachers. They delight in reading biography and stories of history, especially those of daring and adventure, and they take a keen interest in nature study. Very few have really criminal tendencies. The majority are victims of circumstances.

Miss Alice E. Bentley, one of the teachers, said that at the Parental School one dream of the teacher is realized, for each morning the boys come to their school-rooms well fed, warmly dressed, with a long night's sleep behind them. Aching teeth have been filled, defective eyes provided with glasses, and the boys have the assurance that after work comes play. But they are, nevertheless, very difficult material for the teacher's efforts, for before they are ever committed they have become stupid with narcotics, enfeebled in mind from lack of nutrition

or from heredity, old in the knowledge of evil and woefully ignorant of good. But the teachers do not regard their boys as bad boys. In the outside school the bad boy had a reputation of badness to live up to. He considered himself a marked man, a boy hero. In the Parental School all have the same reputation: the boy sinks to his proper level; he is just a boy among boys.

Miss K. E. Coney, teacher of sloyd at the Parental School, said that sloyd develops honesty and carefulness among the boys. A boy can cheat or be careless in many things and escape by explanations or erasures, but if his word is set down in wood there it stands. Sleds, boot-black stands, and mouse-traps are very popular subjects for their labors.

John E. McCarthy, general agent for the Trustees for Children, spoke of the children who come under the care of the department, because of dependence or neglect.

He said that in placing children directly in families it is required that the family be of the same religious faith as the parents of the child, and that the child when old enough shall attend public school, Sunday-school and church regularly. Clergymen and visitors are to see that these rules are complied with. In recommending families it is the desire of the department that they be selected with a view to training the child in habits of industry and that they be suitable to the age, condition, and health of the child, and especially that the moral, religious and educational instruction be not neglected. The workers of the department owe much to the local visitors in each county who are paid nothing but their expenses. These often settle difficulties which would otherwise require the presence of a regular visitor. The children admitted, because of dependence or neglect, were formerly placed temporarily in the Marcella Street Home where the influences were intended to be of the best, but the great improvement of the children, now that they have been for a while in the healthy surroundings of a country home, has been noticed by every one who has had a chance to observe them. To make all these thousand children as nearly as possible like boys

and girls of good parents is the aim of the system, and on the whole the results obtained are most gratifying. The home of every child is investigated before the department will accept it, or will allow its release on probation after acceptance. The agents and visitors are constantly in touch with the trustees.

Miss Hoogs, whose work is the investigation of the circumstances of children coming into the care of the department, said that she believes that seventy-five per cent of the people who apply for relief in taking care of their children are worthy to be entrusted with that care and need only to be put in the way of getting means to support them. She held that the workers should always be looking forward, working toward the ideal conditions, when relief may be eliminated by better social conditions and the only charitable work which will be needed will be medical advice. She has found the help of relatives so useful as to thoroughly justify that close investigation which is so much criticized by the uninitiated.

Miss Mary J. White, a visitor who is responsible for a large number of children, gave some of the reasons for which homes are disapproved, such as undesirable neighborhoods, want of proper sleeping accommodations, too large families of either children or adults, the presence of boarders and lodgers, intemperance of members of a family or relatives who visit the family often, untidiness of a house, unpleasant temperament or manner of the women who would have the children in charge, doubt of ability to sympathize with or control children, or too great distance from church or school. If the visitor does not find everything satisfactory after the children are placed, suggestions are made, and if the fault is of a serious nature, as for instance intemperance of a member of the family, the general agent is at once consulted and the child removed. One of the principal things insisted upon is that there shall be the most harmonious relation between the family and the children. The children should be taught to respect authority, to be honest, truthful, polite and considerate.

Mrs. A. B. Dresser, whose duty is to

visit the older girls, said that the ideal is to secure a home where the girl shall be considered a member of the family and feel that she is one of the household. That ideal cannot always be obtained, partly because not enough people can be reached who are willing to take girls as members of their family, and partly because some of the girls are not such as to warrant their being taken in that way. As soon as a girl is fourteen and through school, she is expected to earn her own board and clothing and be at no further expense to the department, unless in the case of a protracted illness. When a girl goes for the first time to a free home she is furnished with an outfit of clothing, and teeth and eyes are put in good condition at the expense of the department. Some girls want to do other work than housework. These aspirations are encouraged where they seem justified, with the result that girls under the care of the department have taken courses at training schools and business colleges.

Miss McBride, a trained nurse whose duty is to visit sick children, said that among the children the improvement effected by fresh air, wholesome food and pleasant home surroundings was very marked. Even the defective children are greatly helped. Great pains are taken in choosing the homes for defective children and even these show great improve-

ment. One boy who, when six years old, could not use his right hand or foot is now able to attend kindergarten. A girl thirteen years old who could not use her hands a year and a half ago is now able to dress herself, help a little in housework, and take care of her own garden.

Sumner D. Seavey, the superintendent of the House of Reformation at Rainsford Island, said that while the bad traits of the boys may be hereditary, environment and lack of proper training are more largely responsible. The fact that less than six per cent of the boys in his charge are boys who have had to be returned on account of bad behavior encourages him to believe that the efforts have not been wasted.

There were interesting exhibits of the work done at both schools under the charge of the department. There were shoes made at the Rainsford Island shop which supplies all the shoes used at both schools and at an outside institution. There were pieces of sloyd from the Parental School; and the specimens of composition and numbers from that school were surprising when it is considered that all the inmates are supposed to be truants, the least amenable of boys to that kind of education. There were also shown samples of the outfits provided for the children placed out by the department.

School of Philanthropy Endowed.

[From *Co-operation*, Chicago.]

John S. Kennedy of New York has endowed the New York School of Philanthropy, setting apart for its maintenance four and one-half per cent bonds of the Provident Loan Society to the amount of \$250,000. This is good news for the entire country, as it at once makes permanent an institution which promises to become a powerful factor in placing the profession of the administrator of charity upon the plane occupied by other recognized professions. The school is to continue under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society, though Mr. Kennedy seeks to assure a broad interest by adding to the committee in immediate charge of the school representatives of other influential charity organizations and of Columbia University. It should be added that this plan is in entire harmony with the policy already adopted in the conduct of the school.

It will be remembered that Mr. Kennedy some years ago erected the beautiful United

Charities Building, which has become New York's charity center, and which is now the headquarters of about twenty philanthropic societies. The building was presented to four societies, but provision was made for moderate rentals to all others which could be accommodated. Mr. Kennedy has been a generous giver also to the Presbyterian Hospital of New York. It is doubtful, however, whether either of these previous examples of his enlightened liberality contains the potentiality for wide usefulness to be found in the endowment of the school of philanthropy.

Rhode Island State Board.—The thirty-fifth annual report of the Board of State Charities and Correction of Rhode Island which is a board having control of the state institutions, has been issued. This report, which covers the year 1903 and was made to the legislature of 1904, contains illustrations and valuable data with relation to the work of the state institutions of Rhode Island.

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School Play-grounds in San Francisco.

The San Francisco Local Council of Women has recently urged the Board of Education to open the yards of the public schools as children's play-grounds after school hours. The old idea by which school grounds were considered sacred to lawns and hard-wire fences is giving way on every hand to gravel and common sense. "The play as well as the study of the children must be considered when plans of architects are submitted," says the *San Francisco Call*. And in discussing the situation that journal calls attention to the fact that, prior to the Spanish American War and the impetus it gave commerce and industry in California, there was no lack of open space in San Francisco, even in the more thickly settled districts, where boys and girls could play without danger from vehicles. Since then, there has been a gradual filling of the empty lots until now every available foot of ground within convenient distance of the business center is occupied. The yard of one San Francisco school, the Hamilton Grammar, has been free of entry throughout the afternoon, so that the idea of open school yards is not entirely new in San Francisco, and the results at that school emphasize the position the *Call* takes in maintaining that the fact that a majority of existing school yards are disproportionately small, only makes imperative resistance that adequate playgrounds be attached to the school buildings of future construction.

Standard of Immigration Exclusion Higher.

A visit to Ellis Island, the Nation's Gateway, through which more than half a million aliens were admitted in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, involves so little formality and such a trifling expenditure of time for the New Yorker that the uppermost feeling of one

who is interested in the problems of immigration and who makes the visit, is one of surprise that he has not made this sooner and oftener. Another impression made upon the mind of one who has seen the immigration station under previous administrations is that the present standard of exclusion is higher than in earlier years and that, however much remains to be done, there is no doubt of the positive value of the tests which are now applied.

The enormous contrast in the mere physical appearance of those who are in the one enclosure awaiting deportation, and in another where emigrants who are likely soon to be landed, or temporarily detained awaiting friends, or to meet some merely technical and trivial requirement, furnishes a useful object lesson in the value of the exclusion laws. The most disquieting feature of the situation is the very large proportion of assisted immigrants who are, nevertheless, not excluded by any positive requirements of the present law. There is, in the existing statute, a provision that an assisted immigrant must show affirmatively that he does not belong to one of the excluded classes. If the assumption underlying this provision were extended to the exclusion of all whose passages are paid by others except members of their families, the result would be a very drastic and very wholesome reduction.

A suggestion contained in the annual report of Commissioner Williams in reference to the physical condition of emigrants, is also an excellent one. His suggestion is, "that in all instances in which the United States Marine Hospital surgeons who conduct the medical examination at the immigrant stations certify in writing that the physical condition of an immigrant, dependent for support

upon his own physical exertions, is below a certain standard to be designated by them by some appropriate term, whether this be 'low vitality,' 'poor physique,' or some other similar expression, or that he is 'senile,' such immigrant should be excluded, subject to certain reasonable exceptions." Commissioner Williams also has a kindly feeling toward the illiteracy test, his idea being that while illiteracy does not of itself render an immigrant undesirable, yet much of the immigration which is undesirable on other grounds consists of persons who are illiterate, and that the immediate practical effect of an illiteracy test would be to exclude a large number whom we are obliged to admit under existing laws, but who are very undesirable additions to our population.

In response to a personal inquiry, Commissioner Williams states that he does not consider it practicable to apply exclusion tests at the place of original departure. The obvious hardship to the individual involved in exclusion after arrival at Ellis Island or other United States port entry suggests at once to those who become interested in the subject for the first time, that through the co-operation of the United States Consuls, or otherwise, investigation should be made before immigrants have started from their homes. Mr. Williams contends, however, that no plan can be devised to accomplish this laudable purpose. It would be necessary, he thinks, to have Ellis Island stations scattered throughout Europe with their facilities for investigation and careful scrutiny. Of course, no foreign government would countenance such inquiries, and our own government could not meet their expense. Superficial inquiry relating to many of the physical conditions of immigrants is possible, but a thorough inquiry as to their liability to become public charges would be impracticable. This is his position.

E. J. Brundage, the newly installed president of the Board of Commissioners of Cook County, Ill., has expressed strong opinions regarding the wrangle over placing the consulting

and advisory physicians of the County Hospital under civil service rules. Originally the dispute was started between doctors of opposing medical schools on the ground that favoritism towards a certain school was being shown. Mr. Brundage takes occasion to criticize sharply the attitude of most of the attending staffs of the hospital in so far as they consider their work there primarily of a clinical nature. He accuses doctors of neglecting cases not possessing unusual interest, leaving their care to internes even when the complications are serious. On the other hand he declares that in interesting cases group after group of students have been brought to a bedside, sometimes as many as twenty groups, one after the other. Mr. Brundage has announced that "there will be no bedside clinics while I am in office."

In a recent address he said:

Some of the very men who as physicians are urging a permanent staff at the hospital have been in the institution only four times in the last year. I have said to these men that if they go on the staff permanently they will perform the duties they are supposed to perform there or get out. They have neglected patients and the internes have prescribed for them to keep them from dying. As I said before, it is the fight of the colleges. I am in favor of science and its encouragement, but while I am president there will be no offering of these unfortunates on the altar of science.

An instance of the difficulty experienced by a state board of charities in influencing counties to maintain proper standards in the accommodation and care of the county poor is given at some length in the *Times* of Glens Falls, Warren County, New York. The County Board of Supervisors received from the State Board of Charities a report on the Warren County almshouse by one of the state inspectors. This report is thus summarized in the newspaper:

The inspector finds fault with the discipline of the home, and says that the inmates, especially the men, have such an easy time that they do not keep themselves or their quarters in a tidy condition; then the ventilation was not exactly what it should be; the records of the inmates are not as complete as the inspector thought that they ought to be; he also found bugs

*Exportation
of
Ellis Islands.*

*Clinics in
Cook County
Hospital.*

*"Right or Wrong
Our County."*

in some of the beds; the color of the cement in the basement floor did not suit the inspector, and he said that it looked dirty; he also called attention to the fact that there is no fire hose available for use in case the barns should take fire, and recommended the purchase of additional hose and a hose cart.

After the report had been read the superintendent of the poor made a little speech in which, while apparently acknowledging the truth of the statements alleged to have been made by the inspector, he seems to have exercised, at the expense of the inspector, a considerable amount of the dry humor with which rural citizens are so amply supplied. The typical supervisor would seem to think more of the opinion of the superintendent of the poor, who has probably never seen an almshouse except the one he runs, than of the opinion of a trained inspector, employed by the state to visit all almshouses throughout the state for the purpose of giving each county the benefit of expert advice and of the experience of other counties in solving the many problems of poverty. So it is not to be wondered at that the article should conclude as follows:

The expressed opinion of the members of the board is that the conduct of the county home is satisfactory to the officials of the county and to the citizens. Supervisor Weinman, who is the committee in charge of the repairs at the home, said: "When we think anything is necessary to be done we do it; if we don't think it necessary, we don't do it, and we don't care what the inspector says."

What if there is danger that the barns will take fire for lack of hose and a hose-cart, what if the beds are infested with bedbugs and the inmates live in unclean quarters and breathe unclean air, what if the discipline is defective and the records imperfect and the institution run in a way that would not be tolerated if it were owned and controlled by a private corporation instead of by the county—what does it matter, so long as the supervisors are satisfied?

But are not these supervisors, and the people they represent, citizens of the state as well as of the county? As citizens of the state they have contributed to the establishment and support of a state board of charities to do the work which, as citizens of the county, they have held up

to ridicule. "We do the best we can," says the superintendent, but if that best is so much poorer than the best of other counties, Warren County would better inquire what peculiar local conditions make it impossible to maintain the reasonable standard required by the state authorities. That this standard is reasonable is obvious to anyone familiar with the almshouses in New York and with the work of the State Board of Charities, and it is certainly not creditable to any county that the effort of the state to cooperate in the improvement of local conditions should be received in the spirit exhibited by Warren County.

Communications to "Charities."

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

The Catholic Church and Bohemian Immigrants.

Your number on the Slavs in America furnishes much information to those who are interested in the religious and moral welfare of these people. We are glad to see the attention of the public directed to this subject. But the articles on the Bohemians by Miss Alice Masaryk and Miss Nan Mashek were severely criticized by the Bohemian Catholic paper of Chicago, which is ably edited by the Rev. F. Kohlbeck, a competent judge of Bohemian affairs in this country. In the interest of the many readers of your excellent magazine who might be misled by some of the statements in those articles, would you kindly allow me to make an important correction?

In both articles it is stated or implied that intelligent Bohemians conversant with the history of their country naturally turn away from the Catholic Church; that the Catholic Church has been the enemy of Bohemian liberty and national aspirations; and this is given as a reason why there are so many freethinkers and infidels among the Bohemians in this country. Your Catholic readers will not agree to this assertion. There are many excellent Bohemian Catholics in Europe and here that are more conversant with the history of their fatherland than their freethinking brethren. The Catholic Church as such can never be the enemy of true liberty and just national aspirations. As regards Bohemia, we will not discuss the question of John Huss and the Hussite excesses. Suffice it to quote the words of Palacky, the greatest authority on Bohemian history. Although a Protestant, and admitting the occurrence of occasional scandals in the church which Catholics are the first to acknowledge, he candidly says: "I am convinced that the Catholic Church, during the whole time of her existence in Bohemia,

has wrought incomparably more good than evil."

Can any one deny intelligence to those that agree with Palacky? And how can Bohemians agreeing with him be naturally *hostile* to the Church? No, the past history of the Catholic Church in Bohemia is no justification for apostasy, but only a pretext. The true reason is the weakening of religious convictions brought about within the last thirty years by iniquitous school legislation and forces similar to those at work in France at present. Hence many immigrants, when suddenly deprived of the protecting influence of Catholic environment and example, are too weak to withstand the temptations which beset them at their arrival here, or to bear the sacrifices which the conditions of the Catholic Church in this country demand. Thus many fall into religious indifference, which is negative, and from this state drift into positive or even violent infidelity. Economic conditions among the poorer classes in our cities also foster a tendency to socialism in its worst forms, because people without religious restraints easily fall into these errors. This is the more to be deplored as the Bohemians possess many natural virtues, which counteract to some extent the infidel influences that continually surround them.

We maintain that the Catholic Church always has been, and always will be the most potent factor for the moral welfare of the Bohemian people.

J. G. KISSNER, C. SS. R.,
Pastor of the Bohemian Catholic Church,
323 East Sixty-first street, N. Y. City.

[It is not within the province of CHARITIES to enter into religious discussions. At the same time, the church as a social institution and religion as a large factor in human motives, enter into movements of emigration and problems of assimilation in a very definite way. In these aspects—as in the conflicting interpretations put upon political history—the contributors to the Slav number of CHARITIES were quite untrammelled in expressing opinion. Not only were the writers of different racial groups, but included among their number a Presbyterian minister, a leader among the Friends, priests of the Roman Catholic Church and the Greek Catholic Church, a Congregational minister, etc. The foregoing letter is published in the same spirit, and must be considered as closing, rather than as opening up, consideration of this phase of the Slav immigration in these columns.—EDITOR OF CHARITIES.]

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

The Agricultural Distribution of Immigrants. I read your magazine with much interest, yet every time I open its pages, or reflect upon the problems of immigration, the unemployed in cities, orphans, etc., I feel the necessity of impressing this

fact upon all the individuals and organizations engaged in ameliorative work.

Good homes and steady employment at fair wages await every diligent and worthy man, woman, or child. These homes and this employment are offered by the farmers of America. They are crying aloud as never before for help—for experienced help if it can be had, or for inexperienced help if the better grade is not available. Probably a million homes could be found for girls or young women who are willing to do housework and be one of the family among the farm homesteads of the United States. Many thousands of farm homes would welcome a girl or boy to be brought up in habits of thrift, industry, and, in most cases, would give the child or youth the same care and much of the affection that they would lavish upon a son or daughter. As for grown men among immigrants or for those who are turned out to work in their vocations, the farm demand for such help is practically unlimited, provided only that the man is willing and eager to learn.

There is no better place for the above class of people to improve their condition, to get a start in life and to become good citizens, than to get jobs on American farms or country homes. Of course the sick, the shiftless and the lazy are not wanted, but outside of these undesirables, I want to emphasize again the unlimited market that exists among American farms for help. It is easy also to reach this market. Simply spend a few cents in advertising in the agricultural papers in the section where employment is desired, a connection will be established with many desirable families or farmers in want of help. Each penny thus invested will often accomplish more direct and lasting benefit for those it is desired to have employed than each dollar expended in some other forms of charitable work or uplifting endeavor.

It is not my desire to criticize the methods of charitable work or the cost of those methods, but simply to point out the great void that is waiting to be filled with men, women, and children who are willing to work, and to show how simply and economically this market for labor can be reached. No argument is needed to sustain the statement that the farms and homes of rural America furnish by far the best environment for employment.

HERBERT MYRICK.

Editor *American Agriculturist* Weeklies.
(*Orange Judd Farmer—American Agriculturist—
New England Homestead.*)
Springfield, Mass.

Notes of the Week.

Another Tuberculosis Dispensary.—On Monday of this week one more special dispensary for the treatment of tuberculosis was opened in New York city, the dispensary of the New York Throat, Nose and Lung Hospital at 244 West Fifty-ninth

street. Milk, eggs and medicine will be given away to those who cannot afford to buy them, and at present the four physicians who are in charge of the dispensary will do such visiting in the homes as may be necessary until the number of patients shall require a regular visiting nurse. In addition to medical aid, it is announced that the treatment will be as follows:

First, Hygienic and Dietetic Treatment. The education of the patient. He is instructed as to his diet—when, how, and what to eat, and how it should be prepared. He is taught how to breathe, sleep, ventilate his rooms, bathe, and clothe himself day and night and at various seasons. And, most important of all, he is taught how to protect not only others but himself against reinfection by promptly destroying the expectorations and maintaining his home as a modern sanatorium.

Second, The Mechanical Treatment. The unfoldment and expansion of the lungs by the systematic and regular use of the pneumatic cabinet. Regulation of daily out-door exercise. Gymnastic and respiratory exercises to develop the muscles of the chest and shoulders. Hydrotherapy and massage to promote nutrition.

Preventive Charity Emphasized.—A housewarming of the home of the Hebrew Day Nursery, the Daughters of Israel, and the Maccabees of Baltimore at 1200 East Baltimore street, was made the occasion December 15 for a series of interesting talks on preventive charity, the speakers being Mrs. John M. Glenn, Justice Charles W. Heuisler, and Prof. Jacob H. Hollander, of Johns Hopkins University. Mrs. Glenn emphasized that in order to really reach children the home must be reached. "The Utopian idea," said Justice Heuisler, "is a home for each boy. Aim above the target and you may hit the bull's eye. We won't fail."

London School of Philanthropy.—The London School of Sociology and Social Economics opened its session for 1904-5 at the United Service Institution, on October 24. The inaugural address was given by James Banar, chairman of the executive committee of the school. The general course of study provides training in practical work simultaneously with the study of theory, by means of lectures, classes, and reading, and is planned to extend over two years, though a shorter course, extending over only one year, is arranged for students who cannot devote a longer time to the work. The session is divided into three terms. During the Michaelmas term, from October to December, courses of lectures have been given by E. J. Urwick on *London and Londoners*, with special reference to such questions as home life, housing, parental responsibility, civic duty, distress and mutual help. Mr. Urwick will also hold a course of classes on *Theories and Methods of Social Improvement*, intended especially for beginners, and

a second course introductory to the study of sociology. Students are able to attend C. S. Loch's lectures at King's College on *Poor Relief in Relation to Recent History and Present Condition in France and England*. Classes are held also by Miss E. A. Pearson on economic questions, and by Miss Margaret Sewell on social legislation. The special courses for relief officers and others interested in poor law work will be continued during the session.

Employment Bureaus and Relief Societies.—In the report of the executive committee of the United Hebrew Charities, New York, for the year ending September 30, 1904, the discontinuance of the employment bureau of the society is noted. The employment bureau will be continued by the Independent Order of Benai Berith, 106 Forsyth street, and the United Hebrew Charities will continue an employment agent to secure work for applicants. The society thus follows in the footsteps of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, which after five years of experience discontinued the Cooper Union labor bureau. These two experiments would seem to indicate not that free employment bureaus are unnecessary, but that they cannot apparently be operated successfully as a bureau of a relief society.

The Black Death and the White.—"We are wiser and cleaner than in those earlier centuries when the black death held Europe in bondage and carried off one-fourth of its people," said Dr. Charles L. Green of St. Paul, at a recent tuberculosis meeting in the People's church of that city. But the present white scourge, according to Dr. H. M. Bracken, secretary of the State Board of Health, another of the speakers, manages to kill 2,000 human beings in Minnesota each year, 250 of them in St. Paul. The meeting was one of those which is stirring up interest in the tuberculosis movement throughout Minnesota. It was presided over by Dr. Samuel G. Smith, president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Juvenile Court Number.—The January magazine issue of CHARITIES published next week will be a special Juvenile Court number for use in forwarding legislation. Several of the articles will have distinctly permanent value. Judge Harvey B. Hurd, who framed the pioneer Illinois law, sets forth the minimum principles to be stood for; Dr. Helen Page Bates has made use of the resources of the New York State library to prepare a digest of Juvenile Court law; Prof. Charles R. Henderson summarizes the results of the investigation carried forward by the National Prison Association. Those interested in the movement can secure copies in quantities at a reduced rate by addressing CHARITIES before the date of issue.

The Broadening Sphere of Organized Charity¹

WHY IT INCREASINGLY EMPHASIZES PREVENTIVE AND CONSTRUCTIVE SOCIAL SERVICE

Robert W. de Forest

The Associated Charities of Washington is one of 154 societies in the United States professing substantially the same philanthropic creed, and preaching and practicing the same form of philanthropic effort. Some are called "charity organization societies," others, "associated charities," still others by related names, but all belong to the same brotherhood, and in the literature of philanthropy are generally classed as charity organization societies. They vary somewhat as to scope, because each adapts itself to the needs of the particular community in which it exists, and to the development of charitable activity in that community; but their essential purposes are the same. They represent a widespread national and indeed, as respects English-speaking countries, an international movement which people are beginning to call "scientific charity"; that is, love for our fellow men guided in its expression by knowledge and experience. They are directed in large part by men and women of strong religious conviction, but their work is severed from all questions of religious belief. Otherwise they might be suspected of proselyting. They make knowledge, founded on investigation, the basis of their action. They seek to obtain the appropriate relief for all kinds of human need. They foster harmonious co-operation between all existing forms of charitable effort. They are the natural evolution of the charitable impulse, that instinctive desire to aid our less favored fellow men which is the honorable mark of higher civilization, applied, with our present-day greater knowledge of social problems, to the increasingly complex conditions of a modern city and the multiform industrial development of the times in which we live.

The older societies of this large and increasing brotherhood have been in existence for about twenty-five years—no great age measured by the span of human

¹ An address before the Associated Charities of Washington, November 18, 1904.

life, but longevity itself measured by the progress of charitable knowledge during that period. They have been developing and changing with the development and change that has taken place in the social system of which they form part, and with the more general acceptance of fundamental principles of true philanthropy. The trend of that development and change is enlargement of scope.

Therein some think is their strength. Therein others may think is their weakness. I am one of those who think that this enlargement of scope makes for strength. Social effort which cannot grow plays no lasting part in human progress.

But this growing, this expanding quality of some of our charity organization societies raises a fair question—a question that is frequently debated in their inner councils. Is it a tendency to encourage or a tendency to discourage? Is it well proportioned upbuilding, resting firmly on the original foundation which is broadened and strengthened as it is called upon to support the greater superstructure, or is it specious enlargement above on a foundation which gains no increasing, and perhaps even loses something of its original sustaining power? Is it a natural growth toward greater strength, or a scattering of effort over too large a field tending toward ultimate dissipation of force?

The initial scope of most charity organization societies may be briefly summed up as follows:

Investigation of applicants for relief so that aid may be given with knowledge of their condition and surroundings.

Treatment of those who are helpless, not by more doles, but according to the charity organization motto—"Not alms, but a friend."

Material relief that is adequate and continued until disability ceases, when material relief is found to be the need. Co-operation among all charitable agencies. No overlapping.

Typical Lines of Growth. The lines of growth and expansion which have taken place in later years are well illustrated by the activities of the New York Society and of your Washington society. Our New York society (I speak of it first because I am most familiar with it) has developed the following distinct lines of effort:

A plan for small savings, known as the Penny Provident Fund, which operates as a sort of conduit to the savings-banks, and has on deposit at the present time about \$100,000.

A philanthropic pawnshop known as the Provident Loan Society which is conducted as a separate corporation, has had ten years of remarkable growth, and is now loaning upwards of \$5,000,000 a year.

Housing reform, which in New York is tenement-house reform. On the initiative of the Tenement-house Committee of the society, President Roosevelt, then governor of the state of New York, appointed the Tenement-house Commission. This commission formulated the new tenement-house law and an amendment to the New York city charter which created a tenement-house department. This legislation was enacted, and the new city department has now been enforcing the new law for nearly three years.

A committee on the prevention of tuberculosis, which has been the centre of an educational propaganda on this important subject for nearly two years.

A training school for philanthropic work, which held last summer its seventh summer course and is conducting this winter its second winter's course.

Your Washington society, like our New York society, has taken up your particular housing problem, the war against tuberculosis, the promotion of parks and playgrounds, and other activities of a like character.

The Childhood of Altruistic Development. If you will stop to think, you will note that none of these later forms of activity are directed, as was the case with the earlier forms, to the alleviation of particular kinds of individual suffering or want. They are all intended to remove causes of suffering and want before the actual suffering or want occurs.

I know no better way of judging the

evolution of charitable societies, whether for better or worse, than to apply the same test or reason which we would apply to our own individual altruistic development, call it of head or of heart as you will. This audience is made up of all ages, but every one, however young he may be, has some background of experience and reflection. Think back to your first experience in practicing what you called charity—that is, love for your less favored fellow man. What is your first remembrance of philanthropic impulse? What did that impulse lead you to do? I suppose my own experience may be deemed fairly typical. I will therefore use it. My own first charitable impulse was in the case of a pale forlorn woman who came to the basement door of my father's home to beg for food. I chanced to go to the door instead of the servant. I heard her plea. I went to the kitchen, took what remained of the family breakfast, and gave it to her. She went away murmuring blessings on my head, and I ran upstairs to tell my mother what I had done, with a new and extremely pleasurable sensation somewhere, in that place which I have heard called the "coccles" of the heart. You have each of you done the same thing and experienced the same sensation.

I do not recall such acts of indiscriminate relief giving by way of reproach either to myself or to you. They represent the first stage of altruistic development. That woman may have gone back to her tenement and used this breakfast, and others she obtained just as easily, to feed the group of vagrant men whose messenger she was, and sustained them for their nightly debauch. Or she may have displayed her easily gotten meal to the other women in this tenement and tempted them from honest work to beggary. But suppose that she needed this food, and with it was able to feed herself and her children and her husband, who by no fault of his or hers was ill and unable to work? How much good did I do upon the last and most favorable hypothesis? I tided over one day. That was something, but that was all. The next day brought the same hunger. I did not give enough to support that family until its breadwinner was well again. That

would have been adequate relief for that particular family, and would have made the family self-dependent until the illness recurred. I did not remove the cause of illness, which if it affected that family once would probably affect it again, and more important still, would affect other families.

Such indiscriminate, individual, temporary relief marks the childhood of most charitable effort. To that period belong the "Good Monks" and the "Ladies Bountiful" of medieval times, who passed around the loaves each day at the castle gate.

Many people, even in this enlightened time, and in this our own enlightened country, are still in their childhood period. Such miscalled "charity" brings no shame to children. The impulse is right. Children are not expected to reason beyond it. But such "charity" does bring shame to mature men and women who are expected to regulate their impulses by reason.

The Youth of Charitable Effort. There came a time with me, and there came a time with you, when we stopped to think before we gave to this woman at the door. Questions raised themselves in our minds. Is she perhaps, we asked ourselves, the purveyor for vagrants or criminals, so that in giving to her we are simply supporting them in their life of vagrancy or crime? Suppose she really needs? May we not by giving to her without any return of work or effort on her part not only undermine her self-dependence but undermine the self-dependence of her neighbors who are now working for their bread, but who, by seeing how easily she obtained bread without work, may be tempted to follow her example? How can we help her so as not to harm them? On the same hypothesis, may she not need friendly counsel as well as food, and may she not need more of either or both than we could give?

We must find an answer to such questions before we can act intelligently. How? Either you and I, or our sister, or our friend, or someone, must go to her home and ascertain the facts.

In the old village surroundings of a hundred years ago, even in the more recent but still remote small city surround-

ings of fifty years ago, you and I could go, or a sister, or certainly a friend could be found to go, and after they had gone and reported back we could act with knowledge. But with tens and hundreds of thousands, all strangers to us, crowded together in a single city, we have not been able single-handed to find even the "someone" to go on our multiplying errands of mercy, or neighbors enough to help us aid when we knew aid was needed.

Investigation, which alone can give knowledge, the assembling together of different charitable persons and agencies toward a common end—that is, co-operation—marked what may be called the youth of charitable effort. That period found its expression in the charity organization movement, with its revulsion against indiscriminate almsgiving, its emphasis on aid of personal service, its insistence upon ascertainment of fact before action, and upon action being directed toward a permanent change in the condition of the individual or family.

I do not mean that the world waited to be wise in charitable ways until charity organization societies were formed to instruct it. The fundamental principles of charity organization are as old as Holy Writ itself and have been repeatedly acted upon. But the charity organization movement first marked broader knowledge and concentration of effort upon something like a national scale. These societies were an effect, not a cause, but cause and effect have been working together ever since they were established to enlarge and to broaden their sphere of influence.

The emphasis in the early stage of the charity organization movement was laid upon helping the individual or family—case work as it is technically called. Permanent self-dependence of the individual or family, or if age or disability made self-dependence impossible, then permanent support somewhere and from some source, were the ends which it sought to attain. And in attaining these ends it used the friendly visitor in preference to any mere dole giver, and sought to combine and coordinate resources of the community.

But you and I have not been able to arrest the action of our minds or halt our charitable effort at the point where they

have found suffering, and let us say removed it from the individual in whom it existed. Our thoughts have inevitably traveled from the single individual toward the great mass of individuals; from the individuals in the singular number toward individuals in the plural number, and particularly toward that great number of individuals who, though not yet suffering, are always on the verge of need, and with some change of condition may be pushed over the brink.

Returning to the case of the poor woman. Let us suppose we have provided food for her and for her family, not for a day, but for all the days that may have to elapse before the breadwinner has recovered his health to take up his work, and that the family, so long as he remains able to work, becomes self-dependent. But suppose, as is usually the case, the sickness recurs, and with it recurs the old need. Our reason inexorably compels us to take a step further back in causation, and ask ourselves whether the cause of that recurring illness, which itself is the cause of want, cannot be removed. How infinitely more effective, how infinitely more far-reaching, to strike at the cause of sickness which will inevitably affect many, than to remove the want it has produced which as yet may only affect one.

Such a course of reasoning marks the maturity of charitable effort, to which we are more and more attaining. It is a maturity which the charity organization movement has attained, even if it only counts twenty-five years of existence. It is a maturity which leads inevitably to those lines of action which our New York society and your Washington society are following in dealing with the housing problem, the tuberculosis problem, the inculcation of provident habits, and the like. These lines of effort are known as preventive work. This is a somewhat technical term. Let me illustrate it:

Take the familiar case of the poor man who fell among thieves on the way to Jericho. The "childhood period" of charity might have contented itself with giving him water to assuage his thirst or simply binding up his wounds. The "youth" of charity would have done all

this, and done besides this what the "Good Samaritan" did in taking him to the inn and providing for his treatment until he became well. The "maturity" of charity would have neglected none of these things, but would have laid its emphasis in driving the thieves off that Jericho road and policing it, so that no more "poor men" could be similarly maltreated.

Another illustration of preventive work met my eye in a newspaper only a few days ago. It relates to the Japanese army medical corps, and is in a paper read at St. Louis by Dr. L. L. Seaman, an American army surgeon. I read an extract:

"Too much praise cannot be bestowed upon the medical department of the army and navy for their splendid preparatory work in this war. The Japanese are the first to recognize the true value of an army medical corps. Care of the sick and wounded consumes but a small part of their time. The solution of the greater problem, preserving the health and fighting value of the army in the field by preventing disease, by careful supervision of the smallest details of subsisting, clothing, and sheltering the units, is their first and most important duty. The capacity for detail is something phenomenal; nothing seems too small to escape their vigilance, or too tedious to weary their patience, and everywhere—in the field with the scouts, or in the base hospitals at home—the one great prevailing idea is the prevention of disease. The medical officer is omnipresent. You will find him in countless places where in an American or British army he has no place. He is as much at the front as in the rear. He is with the first screen of scouts with his microscope and chemicals, testing and labelling wells so the army to follow shall drink no contaminated water. When the scout reaches a town, he immediately institutes a thorough examination of its sanitary condition, and if contagion or infection is found he quarantines and places a guard around the dangerous district. Notices are posted so the approaching column is warned, and no soldiers are billeted where danger exists."

I need not multiply further illustrations to point out that preventive work marks the maturity of philanthropic effort. To remove the cause of social disease is tenfold, no a hundredfold, more effective than to remove the disease itself when it has begun to show itself. Its removal not only relieves the suffering of the one who is stricken, but saves from it many others who would otherwise in-

evitably become its victims. Such effort may not bring the immediate blessing which the poor woman uttered and which immediately warmed that indefinite region in our hearts to which I alluded, but it will bring a greater blessing from a greater number, which should warm the more definite regions of the head.

Preventive work may lack the attraction of the personal touch, but it has the attraction of a new and mighty social force which influences communities, not mere individuals, for betterment.

Will the extension of our effort into the broader sphere of preventive work make us less sympathetic, less open to the appeal of individual suffering, and less ready to relieve it? Will the "Good Samaritan" of to-day be so intent on "driving the thieves off the Jericho road" as to leave the "poor man" bleeding and helpless where he found him? I think not.

I think it will only make him more tender, because to the original impulse of pity—the fresh impulse of childhood which propels to action from pure love, without any sense of personal obligation—will come the added impulse of social duty. Whose fault was it that the Jericho road was not patrolled? Whose fault was it that the thieves were permitted to wound and rob without even pursuit or punishment? In New Testament times, the times of the great Roman empire, the protection to travel on that road may well have been one of those things that should be "rendered unto Caesar because it was Caesar's," but in these times of the great American republic, when the people rule, they are things that pertain to the people; that is to you and to me.

What was pure charity in the days of Caesar—love without duty—may now be nothing more than plain duty, even, if we are ready to ignore the love.

In a Wood-yard¹

J. S. Whitney,

Philadelphia

The old New England saying, that quieted discussion, was "Let's stop talking and saw wood!" When discussion was desirable no doubt the practice was reversed. The writer having been for some years connected with the financial part of the wood business of a charity organization in one of our large cities, has thought that his observation of the working of this form of public utility may be useful.

It is a very simple "proposition" to open a house provided with all the necessities of shelter and food to every applicant who appears to be unable to obtain these in the usual way but who will consent to work a few hours in return for them. But a number of "problems" soon arise. Men come

"in such a questionable shape
As bids us pause."

There are those who "have been on a spree," with shame enough left to want

¹ This is one of a number of studies bearing upon the problem of homeless men, which will be published this winter in CHARITIES. —Ed.

to hide from family and friends until presentable. There has been a domestic quarrel, and some one finds it desirable to leave home temporarily. A runaway lad from his home elsewhere has got to the bottom of his pocket, and "comes to himself" as an applicant for a night's lodging. And the professional tramp, always looking, without hope, for work, seeks a place where he can rest and refit. Among all these comes the honest and unfortunate workingman, temporarily without home, means, or work—the one having the most natural claim on our hospitality.

Now, if all these are to be admitted on equal terms, do we not to a degree encourage helplessness, instead of self-helpfulness, and so become a misfit as a charity organization? And does not this indiscrimination tend to repel the very men we want to help?

Every one can see at once that something besides the open door is necessary in our House of Mercy. There must be a man, an intelligent, sympathetic one,

beside the door to open it, and often behind the door to keep it shut. And one would suppose that the right of an individual to refuse aid to a street beggar of suspicious breath or manner, would be conceded to a corporation also.

But the public must be restrained, and which thereby commutes with conscience in many individual applications, would soon make large refusals on our part good cause for refusal of *our* applications. To a certain extent this is right. A shelterless man on an inclement night, is not a subject for investigation, then, but for shelter. The Good Samaritan might have found on inquiry that his beneficiary was in two senses a companion of thieves, but he dismounted from his ass, as he would no doubt from any theory on the subject, *without* inquiry.

So that, while sifting is necessary, it must be so done in each case that a good account can be rendered. The helplessly drunk need not be considered, as they are proper subjects for the police stations or the hospital. But all who "have been drinking" are not necessarily drunk. Many a man who needs food finds it easier to quell hunger and fatigue by a glass of beer or whiskey, than by the same money's worth of food. The line should not be drawn at drinking, but at the condition of the man.

Then as to those who are not homeless, but have friends or family in reach. If the applicant comes early in the day, he may be wisely disposed of before night; and in any case inquiries can be started which in a few days may help him permanently.

This remark applies, also, to the sick or disabled, and especially if they are strangers in the city. Also to the roving young fellows, not averse to work, but who want to see something of the world beyond their original locality. Many an honest workman is a true journeyman, in the old sense as well as the modern.

Then there are the true tramps. We gradually come to know the type, in its reappearance individually, although these as well as many less shameless, otherwise, give new names in their seasonal migrations. What these men need, more than shelter, and as much as food, is to learn

to work, and, therefore, they should have work in the yard all the time they remain. This is not unjust, although it prevents their going out to look for a job, since they would never see it. They should be paid, however, a small sum, preferably in clothing, for all time beyond the regular stint, and proportioned to their earnestness in working. This might awaken a latent sense of self-help in some, while in others the rigorous condition of labor for lodging would relieve the yard of their support. Certainly it is not just that they should be on the same footing as those who are really looking for work.

In brief then, to conduct a wood-yard of the kind in view, so as to do the greatest good to the greatest number, the first requisite is a manager, who shall know not only whom to receive, but also whom to retain, for how long, and for how much, and what kind of work in each case. This requires tact and energy in investigation, kindness and firmness in the use of results, and freedom from rigid rules of managing boards. He must have that ready perception that characterizes the skilled physician, who depends as much on his own insight as on formal question and answer, for which, indeed, there is often no time. His knowledge of the men as they do their work, may often help them into permanent places elsewhere; and even without any immediate objective benefit, yet "a word spoken in season"—a word of advice, sympathy, encouragement, "how good is it!"

I have said nothing of the financial side of the wood-yard business, because that should always be subordinate to the humane side. The charity wood-yard is not carried on to make money, except for its operatives. Yet there is as much, or more, obligation on the manager (who is really handling a trust fund) to keep up prices, to keep down expenses, and to extend sales, as if he were expected to make dividends for important stockholders.

And here he will meet a peculiar dilemma. While wise charity requires that the number of hands shall be limited to those needing her help, her sister prudence, who carries the purse, demands

that the output of the plant be as large as possible. As machinery can be used only to provide more work for manual labor, (as the steam saw to prepare wood for splitting) we are, through this divergence of method in our ministering angels, always trying to reduce our supply of labor and at the same time to increase our total output!

But there need be no deadlock if it be always borne in mind that the wood

is sold not as an end, but as a means. And the ideal wood-yard will finally go out of business and sell no more wood, because by exterminating its working force, it will have "sawn off the limb it sat on."

For, if carried on in a spirit inspired by this hope, the wood-yard may become not only a shelter and refreshment for the body, but a stimulus and incentive for the soul.

IN MEMORIAM.

[From *Co-operation*.]

Elizabeth Urquhart is dead, and many there are who mourn.

You, reader, will not recognize her name as that of any noted dress reformer, woman's club leader or saloon destroyer. She is not listed in *Who's Who*. The Chicago society columns, I dare say, never had so much as a line about her.

Still Elizabeth Urquhart is famous. Her's is the fame that never perishes. It lives, it will ever live in hearts made better, wills made stronger, hopes made sunnier through the influence of her example.

She lived in a basement. She died in a basement—only nine months after her "Rawbert went away." She always told him and her friends that she would not tarry long after he left earth. In this basement that glorious life was lived. A devoted pair they were, ever smiling upon each other and both upon the world, that sweetest of smiles, that with sorrow and heartache tinged it softly. Verily a Scotch laddie and lassie, though both had come near the sixtieth milestone.

Robert had been private secretary to a wealthy lumber merchant some years before. The merchant failed in business. Robert's savings invested in the concern went with the rest. He felt crushed to earth. What happened then Elizabeth never told me clearly, but I gathered from her statement, "the lad did not assuage his sorrow joost recht," that he made too free use of the cup.

Anyway, later he went into the roofing business and at that he worked hard up to some eight or nine years ago when the great blow fell. He became paralyzed in the lower half of his body. Speech and hearing left him also. Here now was a helpless cripple—a man of two hundred pounds, to be cared for by a mite of a woman weighing not over ninety-five pounds.

Of course the meagre bank account could not long bear the onslaught of doctors' and medicine bills. Elizabeth had to work for bread and she took up her burden with the joy of love. She sewed and she washed, and with it her "Rawbert" got all the care he seemed to wish for. He was lifted about and rolled in an invalid's chair and fed with a spoon.

Soon after they moved into the basement the neighbors began to learn of this odd, happy Scotch pair. To the rough Irish women the devotion of Elizabeth seemed inexplicable. One dared to venture the suggestion of Dunning Poorhouse for the "oold mon." Elizabeth crushed her with a sermon on wifely duties. "Have ye no heart in your boosum?" she asked. Charitable relief she would not ask for, but friends secured it in the quietest way and tendered it in the softest manner. And still, even with her own great burden at home, she found time to minister to the needy round about her. Once when the writer came to her post-haste in response to a call from a neighbor who thought she was very ill, she waived him gently away from her bedside, telling him he "had better have a mind to that puir Mrs. Boorns around in the alley, whose hoosband ran away and left her with four bairns." And Elizabeth's illness at this time was the beginning of the end. Robert had "gone away" but two months before.

Elizabeth and Robert had two fine roosters as pets. Their names were Rhoderick and Geordie, true Scotchmen, both of them. She had baptized them, she said. One day while on a visit I saw they were looking pretty blue, nesting disconsolately behind the kitchen stove. Elizabeth seeing the question in my face, explained that the "ploomers soddered the pipes yesterday, and I vow to you, dearie, that Rhoderick and Geordie picked up the pebbly drippings. It was queer to see them sadden down then. They had soomthing pretty hard on their stoomicks, so I gave them both a dose of castor oil. I think they're getting better." Then she laughed tenderly, the laugh of joy on a background of sorrow.

She was ever sunny, ever hopeful, ever strong. She fought the good fight, not with grim men and joyless determination, but calmly, serenely, with a look ahead.

One such, found by the charity worker, braces him with new courage, commands him to be merry in his well-doing.

Elizabeth Urquhart! A heroine in times of peace! A martyr among the lowly! "Of such" also "is the Kingdom of Heaven."

E. G. LUES.

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*A New Piece
of Social
Machinery.*

More and more it is seen that the child presents the opportunity for the most effective social work—the child as the member of a family. Stern necessity led the community to deal first with adults—prisoners, vagrants and paupers. As the care of these classes passed from the stage in which it was carried on simply for the protection of the community, to that in which the welfare of the individual was also concerned, it speedily became evident that we were undertaking the work at the most difficult point. With the children we would be more successful.

The striking fact, however, is that in our work with children, instead of devising new agencies carefully adapted to the new work, we made use with only slight modifications of the machinery which had been developed for dealing with adults. The juvenile reformatory was for many years simply a child's prison. Only by slow and difficult processes did it become an educational institution. Similarly, all the cumbrous and almost unworkable machinery of the courts and the codes was applied to the disposition of children's cases. The complicated procedure designed to protect the adult in his right to a fair trial before he should be deprived of his liberty, was followed in the case of the child, forgetful that the child's greatest rights are those of being understood, protected, and cared for.

But in due time a better sense of proportion was gained and a piece of new social machinery has been devised, still called a "court," but having little in common with that from which it takes its name. The Juvenile Court, with which by happy circumstance the probation system has been linked, is undoubtedly one of the great contributions of the past de-

cade to preventive social work. Following the marked success of the pioneer court under Judge Tuthill, in Chicago, the movement has spread and is spreading with a rapidity hitherto unknown in practical movements for social betterment. Partly by its inherent virtues, and partly by a skilful promotion, the juvenile court or the probation system, or both, have speedily found place in the statute books and in the judicial machinery of a score of states. CHARITIES receives more inquiries concerning this subject than any other, with the possible exception of the warfare against tuberculosis.

Juvenile court legislation will be put forward in states north and south, east and west before the winter is over. Movements are under way in Minnesota, Michigan, Texas, Nebraska, and North Carolina. The subject was discussed at the recent State Conference of Charities in Massachusetts, where the reform movement in dealing with children was of earlier growth. President Roosevelt commented upon it in his message, referring to the success in Denver and Chicago, and a bill is now before congressional committees. The chief object of the late visit to this country of Dr. Joseph Maria Baernreither, privy counsellor to the emperor of Austria-Hungary, was to study the juvenile court and probation system in this country. A special court has been established in Toronto, Canada, and in Ireland, the Philanthropic Reform Association, of which Lord Meath is president, has brought about a separate court in Dublin. Australia is ever quick to adopt progressive ideas, and an initial juvenile court instituted at Adelaide has offered an example followed in New South Wales and New Zealand. In England, the Committee on Wage-earning Children, the Howard Association, and

others—notably Florence Davenport Hill, author of *The Children of the State*—have taken up the matter, a recent Liverpool paper, received by Miss Putnam from Miss Hill, stating that such a project in Manchester is gaining ground.

*The
Contributions
to this Issue.*

Judge Harvey B. Hurd, of Chicago, who drafted the juvenile court bill of Illinois after which so many others have been copied, states the essential principles, as he sees them, of juvenile court law and gives a list of important decisions bearing on its theory and validity. The actual product of the movement throughout the country is set forth with painstaking exactness in a digest of statutes relating to juvenile court and probation systems, prepared by Helen Page Bates of the New York State Library. This digest, together with its citation of statutes and its tabular statement of the essential features of these laws on sixteen important points, will be welcomed by every student of the juvenile court movement. It is important to remember, although perhaps not dwelt upon in any of the papers published, that while probation, as applied to adults and as the term is usually accepted, is applied only after conviction of crime, under the Juvenile Court Law of Illinois and other statutes copied from this law, the probation system becomes available for any child needing its protection without conviction of any offence, and, in fact, without even an implication that the child has been guilty of wrongdoing.

A number of the concrete problems in the administration of a juvenile court and probation system are presented by Prof. Charles Richmond Henderson of the University of Chicago. Professor Henderson's paper is both a statement of existing practice throughout the country and of his opinions based on his investigations. These studies, involving comparisons of enactment and administration in various states, are supplemented by very complete expositions of the methods and spirit of one of the best known juvenile courts—that of Denver—by Judge Ben B. Lindsey, and of the probation system built up to meet the needs of a great city, by Julia C. Lathrop, of Hull House, Chicago.

Judge Lindsey describes in detail and discusses the law of 1903, known as the "adult delinquent law" which, so far as we know, does not exist in any other state, although at present it is widely discussed. In Chicago, Baltimore and New York, for instance, it is being advocated. It is an effort to place the legal responsibility for his acts upon the person who causes a child to offend. Judge Wilkin's practice in holding parents economically responsible is of pertinent interest.

The probation system is one which, to an unusual extent, depends upon efficiency of administration. "Probation" may be an agency of the highest possible value, or it may, like charity, cover a multitude of sins, especially sins of omission. It all depends upon the personality and fidelity of the probation officer. That extremely efficient probation work is being done in many places and by many individuals is beyond question. What we have lacked hitherto, however, has been a sufficiently concrete description of just how a probation officer views his work, just what he does, just what forces he brings into play. The work is highly individual, to be sure; but so is that of the agent of a society which assists the poor in their homes, or of a society which places children in families, both of which have been set forth in more than one paper with such detail as to be of the greatest value to all beginners in these lines. A somewhat similar service is performed for the probation system by Miss Lathrop and Lucy F. Friday, of Baltimore.

The advocates of any new plan must always be prepared to meet the question of cost. The fate of a reform bill often hinges on the ability of its friends to convince a legislature that the measure proposed is economically justifiable. For this reason a paper on the economics of the Juvenile Court, by Frederic Almy, of Buffalo, will doubtless be quoted in many legislative halls before the sessions of 1905 are closed.

The Economic Side of Parental Responsibility.

ROBERT J. WILKIN

There are something like 5,472 children in institutions in the Borough of Brooklyn—children committed for being dis-

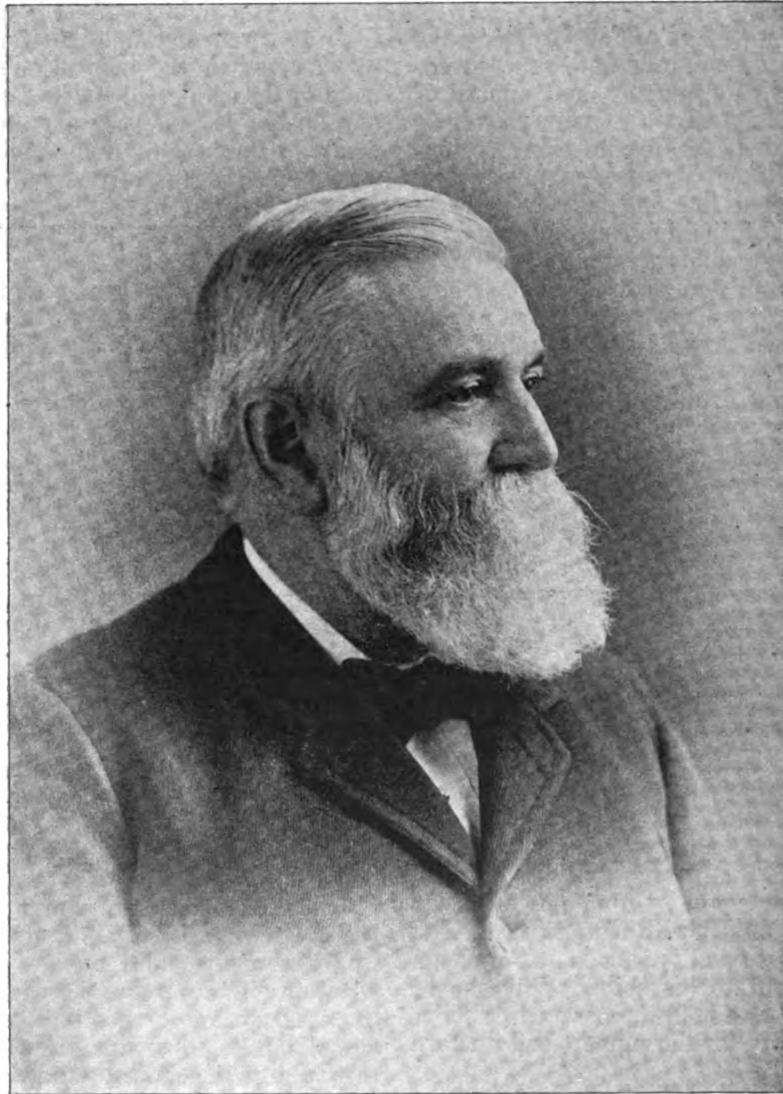
orderly or delinquent 844, for being destitute, 4,628. Many of the latter were "put away" because they belonged in the former class.

Under the system of former years, the parents of the children were relieved entirely of the care, nurture, and support of their offspring; and in many instances, instead of their making an effort to prevent commitment they were the very ones that instituted the proceedings so as to be relieved of the support and responsibility. These children when placed away for that reason were deprived of the rights of a home, were prevented from having the individual instruction they could have from an individual parent, from the benefit of personal contact with the trials, the temptations, and the good effects of an individual home, from the opportunity of learning the complex responsibilities and advantages of life in the tenement districts; and were placed in institutions where these advantages were kept from them. It does not seem necessary to enlarge on these propositions. Space permits me only to state conclusions. Why should not the responsibility for caring for the child be kept attached closely to the parent? To be sure, in some instances the parent is a positive detriment and harm to the child; but really in only a few cases, comparatively, have the courts been called upon to remove the child entirely from the parent and prevent the parent from again gaining possession or coming in contact with his offspring. The law recognizes and is jealous of the rights of the parent to his child. Why should not the law also hold the parent to a strict accountability for the support and nurture of his child?

An effort has been made along that line. Chapter 921 of the New York Code of Criminal Procedure, which was amended by Chapter 13 of the Laws of 1903, provides that whenever a child shall be committed to an institution, pursuant to any provision of law, the parent may be examined to ascertain his ability in whole or in part to contribute to the support of such a child, and an order may be made by a court or magistrate, after examination, directing that he, the parent, shall make a weekly payment for such purpose. A violation of the order incurs a penalty.

The objections urged against this measure are: first, that as the parent contributes toward the support of the child, he also has a right to direct how the child shall be cared for, and therefore that he interferes with the institution's management of the child while in its care; second, that in the case of poor parents the payment of any sum from their already straightened means further increases their poverty, and affects the children who are not in institutions, to the very small benefit of the city or county.

The answer to the one is, that the more interest the parent takes in the child, the better for the parent, the child, and society. The answer to the other is, that it is presumed that the legislation will be carried into effect by an intelligent, careful magistrate, and that in the case of a family where poverty really plays an important part, no order should be made that would take from an already impoverished family one penny toward the support of a child in an institution. But this would apply in comparatively few cases, and while the amount of money collected may be small, the effect, I believe, from a well-considered application of the law, is a benefit to all the parties interested. It preserves the self-respect of the parent, as he in contributing to the support of the child is thereby prevented from being the parent of a pauper; it preserves the relationship between the parent and child, for the parent is at all times interested in the care the child receives in the institution; it encourages the parent to visit the child; it encourages the parent to renewed efforts to secure the discharge of the child at the earliest moment, as thereby the parent is relieved of the payment of money; many times it punishes the parent, by a sort of continuous fine for his neglect or wilful connivance at the offense the child has committed; and it in a way compensates the state for the expenditure incurred in caring for the child. The sooner the child is removed to normal home or family surroundings, the better for the parent; the better for the child; the better for the institution whose charitable activities may be applied more fully to those who need its care; and the better for the public.



Parvin Tufts

For an account of the pioneer work in the field of juvenile probation done by Col. Tufts, see Miss Putnam article, page 300.

Juvenile Court Law

MINIMUM PRINCIPLES WHICH SHOULD BE STOOD FOR

Harvey B. Hurd

Chicago

I. *Parens Patriæ*—foundation of power of state—"It is the unquestioned right and imperative duty of every enlightened government in its character of *parens patriæ* to protect and provide for the well-being of such of its citizens as by reason of infancy, defective understanding, or other misfortune or infirmity are unable to take care of themselves. . . . The performance of this duty is justly regarded as one of the most important of governmental functions and all constitutional limitations must be so understood and construed as not to interfere with its proper and legitimate exercise." Humphreys Ads. McLain, 104 Ill., 378.

II. Jurisdiction in cases arising under the act should be given to a court having common law chancery powers—not a criminal court. It is not desirable that a new court be created, even if the constitution will allow of it. A court of general jurisdiction is preferable, has better judges, and is not likely to fall into police court ways. Requiring children's cases to be heard in a separate room, to be known as the juvenile court room", a separate record to be kept to be called the "juvenile record", and the sessions of the court at which children's cases are heard to be called the "juvenile court", does not indicate an intention on the part of the legislature to create a new court.

III. That the law in dealing with infants should be apparent from the age specified, as "not above sixteen", as well as the other provisions of the act such as the custody, education, care to be bestowed, guardianship, etc.

IV. The act should specify the conditions which call for the interference of the court, such as dependency, neglect, delinquency. What constitutes dependency, neglect, delinquency should be defined as clearly as may be. Including under the head of delinquency, petty crimes, breaches of the peace, violation of city ordinances and the like does not

necessarily put the child on trial for such offense. The prosecution is not a criminal one. The very object of the law is to waive the right of the state to punish criminally a child under the age and circumstances stated. This it does upon the same policy that the state fixes an age under which a child shall not be found guilty of any crime or misdemeanor. The common law and some statutes fix the age at seven, the statutes of Illinois and Colorado at ten. The policy of the law is to avoid branding the child as a criminal. On the contrary, it would by applying parental methods, bettering its surroundings and influences, lead the child into a better life—make of it a good citizen.

V. It is well that the act provides for a jury, when demanded or at the will of the judge; though, in my opinion, the authorities are clear that no jury is required in this class of cases.

VI. One of the most essential parts of the law is that providing for probation and the probation officer. The probation officer is the right arm of the court. He, or she (most probation officers are women) keeps the court in touch with the child, finds out and puts the court in possession of the facts the court must know to act intelligently, and applies its discipline; in short, it is through this officer that the court exercises the parental care of the state.

VII. The law should be quite explicit as to the power of the court to control the custody of the child. While the practice should be to keep the child at home with its parents when this can be done in justice to the child and consistently with the interest of the state, there are many cases where the disposition and habits of the child, the surroundings of the home, and in many cases the habits of the parents, are such that the child ought to be taken away and placed elsewhere. The power of the court

to do this should be ample and clearly expressed. Some of the most distressing cases are of drunken and criminal parents, or where the children are used for criminal or immoral purposes, begging, stealing, etc. In such cases, the power of the court to take the child away from the parents altogether is absolutely necessary to the well-being of the child.

VIII. The putting of destitute and neglected children in approved family homes where they can be treated as being on an equality with the other members of the family, educated, and fitted for the duties of life, should be encouraged in all proper cases. It will sometimes be found that even the worst delinquent can be saved by this means.

IX. If the powers of the court are properly expressed, they will be such as to enable the court to utilize the services of all the public and private institutions and societies for the care of dependent neglected, and delinquent children, giving them the legal status and powers they have before most stood in need of. It will unify and systematize the entire child-saving work of the state, without discriminating against any society or institution engaged in the work. Whatever many be expressed in the law or left out of it, its success or failure will in any case depend upon the spirit and intelligence of those intrusted with its administration. While very much will depend upon the judge even more will depend upon the probation officer. He (or she) it is who comes in personal contact with the child, and in the majority of cases with the parents and associates, where practical good common sense goes for so much. With this and a kindly interest in the welfare of the child the probation officer will soon gain a footing with both child and parent most essential to success. When they become satisfied of the genuineness of the probation officer's interest in them, his visits are most welcome and he becomes their confidential friend and adviser, furnishing them with the practical wisdom in their affairs, the lack of which has most likely been the cause of their child going wrong. The probation officer often does a great deal for the child through his own aspirations and the aspirations of the

parents for their child. As Judge Heuissler says in his remarks upon probation work:

The work must be carried into the homes and the heart of the boy and of his people. Not the offense alone must pass under the observation of the court, but the temptation, the lack of opportunity, the bad examples—all the inducing causes of the offense must be discovered, and when discovered rooted out. The youth must be ruled with kindness and suggestion; be made to understand the meaning of home and law and necessary discipline. He should be told that he is but a child to-day, he is the man of the coming morrow. His quickening intelligence, his hopes, his ambitions must be appealed to, and his response is almost certain.

The voice of pity and compassion must reach him in his home, and reach his parents also in his home. Down to the very depths of that home must it go. The probation system must recognize that in the moral as in the material world the rain and the sunshine of pity and compassion is for the roots of the plant as well as its flowers.¹

For the convenience of those drafting a bill or looking up the subject, I add a list of cases bearing on the validity and theory of the juvenile court law:

- Wis. Ind. School, etc. *vs.* Clark Co.; 103 Wis., 651.
 Farnham *vs.* Pierce, 141 Mass., 203; 55 Am. Reports, 452, note p. 456.
 Milwaukee *vs.* M., 40 Wis., 328; 22 Am. Rep., 702.
 Prescott *vs.* State, 19 Ohio State, 184; 2 Am. Rep., 388.
 State, etc., *ex rel.* Olsen *vs.* Brown, 50 Minn., 353; 16 L. R. A., 691 and note.
 State *vs.* Brown, 50 Minn., 353; 36 Am. So. Rep., 651.
 Reynolds *vs.* Holm, 51 Conn., 472.
In re Farrier, 103 Ills., 367.
 Humphreys *Ads* McLain, 104 Ills., 378.
Ex parte Nichols, 110 California, 651.
 Jerrold *vs.* State, 116 Ind., 98.
 State *vs.* Haley, 52 Vt., 476.
 Hughes *vs.* Daly, 49 Conn., 34.
 Whalen *vs.* Olmstead, (1891) Conn., 15; L. R. A., 593 and note.
 Bonus Petin, 17 R. I., 573.
Ex parte Crame, 4 Wharton, 9.
 Roth *vs.* House of Refuge, 31 Md., 329.
In re Bart, 25 Kan., 308; 37 Am. Rep., 25b.
 Board of Children's Guardians *vs.* Chutus, 139 Ind., 268.
 Richards *vs.* Collins, 45 N. J. Eq., 283; 14 Am. Rep., 726.
 People *vs.* Merclen, 25 Wendell, 73; 35 Am. Dec., 653 and note p. 653.
 People, *ex rel.*, *vs.* McKilverington, 100 Tenn., L. R. A.

¹ CHARITIES, November 3, 1908.

Digest of Statutes Relating to Juvenile Courts and Probation Systems

Helen Page Bates

New York State Library—Sociology Section

The juvenile court law passed in Illinois, in 1899, was the first unification in that state of the laws relating to dependent, neglected and delinquent children. The bill was carefully prepared and the statute both in form and contents well adapted to local conditions. Many of its provisions—in some instances the entire law—have been transplanted into other states, so that if the main features of the Illinois law are considered in detail, we will have the framework of most of the similar laws enacted elsewhere.

Scope of Law. The application of the law is wide in extent and the classes of children specifically designated. All dependent, neglected and delinquent children under sixteen, not inmates of state or private institutions, come under its provisions.

In the class of *dependent* or *neglected* children are included those that are destitute or harmless or abandoned; dependent on the public for support; without proper parental care or guardianship; habitually begging or receiving alms; living in houses of illfame or with vicious or disreputable persons; those whose homes are manifestly unfit places for children; also children under ten peddling or selling any article on the street, or singing, playing or giving any public entertainment. The Iowa law of 1904 includes, also, "children aiding or accompanying any person engaged in giving street entertainments."

A *delinquent* child was construed to mean any child under sixteen violating any state law, or village or city ordinance. But the Illinois law, of 1901, extended this class to include many more: children associating knowingly with thieves or immoral persons; growing up in idleness; frequenting houses of illfame; knowingly patronizing policy shops; also incorrigibles. *Incorrigible* is a much over-worked word in juvenile court circles—

a vague term which frequently means a persistent runaway, or more often a child that will not obey. When a parent is particularly anxious to be rid of a child this is the inevitable complaint. I remember well the first incorrigible I met. A woman of immense proportions, weighing probably three hundred pounds or more, brought into the court a tiny boy of six—so small that the court could not see him from the bench until he was placed on a table. The charge was incorrigibility and so utterly absurd was it that the court broke down with laughter. The Colorado law of 1903 enlarges the scope of the term *delinquent* to include children visiting saloons, pool rooms or bucket shops; night wanderers; strollers about railroad yards; children jumping on moving trains; also those conducting themselves immorally around schoolhouses and using obscene language.

The states that have adopted juvenile court or juvenile probation laws¹ have followed Illinois in the main in giving to the terms dependent, neglected and delinquent the same significance. The Colorado law remains the most inclusive in scope as to delinquents.

Probation System. Nineteen states have a system of probation in force at the present time—California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Utah and Wisconsin, also the District of Columbia. Of these Connecticut, Kansas, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Rhode Island and Utah have the system of probation only, without a specific juvenile

¹ No attempt has been made to compare the laws relating to minors in various states aside from the general statutes establishing juvenile courts and probation systems. The New York provisions on this subject scattered through the Penal Code (title 10, chapter 3) are probably fully as explicit as those mentioned above, and in many other states the laws on this subject are as comprehensive as those cited.

TABLE I—PROBATION OFFICERS

State	Appointing Power	Appointment	Compensation	Term	Scope
CALIFORNIA: 1908, ch. 86.....	Courts with original jurisdiction in criminal actions	Permissive	No salary	Pleasure of court	Criminal cases over 16
1908, ch. 48.....	Judge of superior court of county holding juvenile session	Permissive	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
COLORADO: 1908, ch. 86.....	County Court—In counties of 100,000, appointee to be approved by state board of charities and corrections	Permissive	Salary	Pleasure of court	Juvenile delinquents and adult delinquents
CONNECTICUT: 1908, ch. 126.....	Judges of district, police, city, borough, town courts	Mandatory	Per diem	Pleasure of court	All criminal cases, juvenile and adult
	Judges of superior courts and criminal court of common pleas	Permissive	Per diem	Pleasure of court	
DIST. OF COLUMBIA: U.S. 1901, ch. 847	Board of Children's Guardians to designate employers	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of board	Under 17
ILLINOIS: 1899, p. 181.....	Juvenile court	Permissive	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
INDIANA: 1908, ch. 287.....	Juvenile court where established; or judges of circuit courts			Pleasure of court	Delinquent boys under 17, and girls under 18
IOWA: 1904, ch. 11.....	In counties of 50,000 (7) In counties under 50,000 Judge of district court	Mandatory Permissive	Per diem No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
KANSAS: 1901, ch. 106.....	Courts of summary jurisdiction	Permissive	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
MARYLAND: 1908, ch. 611.....	Supreme bench of Baltimore city	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
1904, ch. 514.....		Mandatory	Salary	Pleasure of court	
MASSACHUSETTS: 1891, ch. 366.....	Justice of each municipal, police or district court	Mandatory	Salary fixed by court and commissioners	Pleasure of appointing power	All criminal cases, both juvenile and adult, brought before app't'g court
MICHIGAN: 1878, ch. 171.....	Appointment by governor of an agent of state board of charities and corrections, in each county	Permissive	Per diem	Pleasure of governor	Delinquent boys under 16, and girls under 17
MINNESOTA: 1899, ch. 154.....	Judges of district court on nomination of state board of corrections and charities		Salary	Term, 2 years	Delinquents under 18
1908, ch. 270.....	In counties of 50,000 (3)	Mandatory			
1901, ch. 102.....	Judge of district court on nomination of state board of control of state institutions		Salary	Term, 4 years	Delinquents under 21
MISSOURI: 1901, p. 135.....	Judge of criminal court; or judges of city circuit court in cities of 350,000 (1) to appoint on nomination of state board of charities and corrections	Mandatory	Salary	Term, 2 years	Under 16
1908, p. 218.....	Judges of circuit court in counties of 150,000 (2)	Mandatory	Salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
NEW JERSEY: 1900, ch. 108.....	Judges of court of quarter sessions of peace of each county	Permissive	Salary fixed by appointing court	Pleasure of court	All criminal cases, both juvenile and adult, brought before app't'g court
NEW YORK: 1901, ch. 372.....	Justices of city courts having original jurisdiction in criminal actions	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of court	Over 16
1908, ch. 618.....	Justices of city courts having original jurisdiction in criminal actions	Mandatory	Salaried women probat'n officers in New York city	Pleasure of court	Under 16
1904, ch. 508.....		Permissive			
1901, ch. 627.....	Police justice of city of Buffalo	Permissive; number not to exceed 5		Pleasure of court	
1902, ch. 549.....		Permissive; number not to exceed 10		Pleasure of court	
OHIO: 1902, p. 185.....	Court of insolvency of Cuyahoga county (Cleveland)	Permissive	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
1904, p. 621.....	Courts holding juvenile sessions	Mandatory	Salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
1904, p. 551.....			Per diem	Pleasure of court	
PENNSYLVANIA: 1901, ch. 186.....	Courts of quarter sessions of peace in counties, also courts ofoyer and terminer and general jail delivery	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
1903, ch. 906.....	Courts of quarter sessions of peace in counties	Mandatory	No salary		
RHODE ISLAND: 1899, ch. 864.....	Board of state charities and corrections	Mandatory	Salary fixed by state board	Pleasure of state board	All criminal cases under 16 charged with misdemeanor
UTAH: 1908, ch. 124.....	Courts of summary jurisdiction; or courts holding juvenile sessions on nomination of incorporated society for dependent and neglected children	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
WISCONSIN: 1901, ch. 90.....	Judges of state and county courts of record—In counties of 150,000 (1)	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16
1908, ch. 359.....	In counties of 65,000 (3)	Mandatory	No salary	Pleasure of court	Under 16

¹Quarterly reports to Connecticut Prison Association; annual reports to governor
²Report to juvenile court and to State Board of Charities
³Monthly reports State Board of Prison Commissioners
⁴Quarterly reports to State Board of Corrections and Charities
⁵Quarterly reports to State Board of Control of State Institutions

court statute, although in most instances the separate trial of juvenile offenders is authorized and advocated. In California, Connecticut, Massachusetts and New York, probation may be applied to both juveniles and adults tried for minor criminal offenses.

The appointment of probation officers is generally optional. In almost every instance, the first law enacted by a state simply authorizes a particular court in a county containing some large city to appoint one or more probation officers. But on trial the probation system gains in favor. To-day in twelve of the states their appointment is mandatory on the part of the courts in certain counties or cities, at least so far as the chief probation officer is concerned. The tenure is generally at the pleasure of the appointing power. Minnesota forms the exception; the law of 1899 fixed the term at two years, but changed it in 1903 to four years.

The opinion current at first in regard to salaries set toward prohibiting the payment of probation officers by state, county, or city, or from any public source. The later the enactment of the laws, however, the more frequent the exceptions; among the states awarding fixed salaries are Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Jersey, Ohio and Rhode Island, the salaries generally being graded according to population of the county. Iowa, Kansas, Pennsylvania, Utah and Wisconsin still adhere to the method of raising money by private subscription. The position of Illinois is somewhat peculiar. Paid probation officers are not provided for by statute, but the mayor of Chicago can appoint men as policemen and then detail them to the juvenile court as probation officers. In addition there are volunteers and others whose salaries are paid by philanthropic organizations, making altogether a large corps of officers for Cook county. Baltimore and Cleveland made no provision for payment in their laws of 1902, but in those of 1904 have changed to regular salaried probation officers. New York, in 1904, authorized paid women probation officers in certain courts in New York city. The positions taken with respect to probation work and the

duties of probation officers are discussed by other writers in this number.

In Massachusetts¹ and Michigan the principle of the probation system was recognized and approved far in advance of the other states. In Massachusetts, statutory provision was made as early as 1878 and 1880 for establishing the office of probation officer in any city or town of the state, the power being given to the local authorities to make appointments and fix salaries. The law of 1891 was a general revision of preceding acts on the subject. The power of appointment was then transferred to the courts, the salaries being fixed by the latter with the approval of the county commissioners. In Michigan there are no probation officers, technically so-called, but there is and has been for over twenty years a State Agency for Juvenile Offenders which in its powers and duties much resembles that of probation officers to-day. In 1873 the governor was authorized to appoint an agent in each county for the State Board of Charities and Corrections to have charge of delinquent boys under sixteen and girls under seventeen paroled by the court; also of dependent children committed to institutions or placed out in families. A definite compensation was given for each case investigated and reported upon to the court. These county agents also assist in finding employment for juvenile offenders on discharge, and report regularly to the state board. The later amendments of this law have changed only in minor features the original act of 1873.

The Juvenile Court Proper. The juvenile court movement which had its inception with the enactment of the Illinois law in 1899 has made rapid progress in the five succeeding years. Pennsylvania and Wisconsin introduced juvenile probation and juvenile court laws in 1901, Baltimore, New York city and Cleveland in 1902, California, Colorado, Indiana, Missouri, New Jersey, New York state and the city of Brooklyn

¹ In Massachusetts the supervision of the probation service is vested in the board of commissioners of prisons to whom monthly reports are made. In Connecticut the Connecticut Prison Association prescribes a uniform series of blanks to be filled out by the probation officers. These send in quarterly reports to the association, also annual reports to the governor. In Minnesota quarterly reports are required by the board of control of state institutions.

State	Jurisdiction	Appointment of Juvenile Court	Salary	Scope
CALIFORNIA: 1908, ch. 48.....	Superior court of county, justices' courts, or police courts, when having more than one judge	One or more members to be designated as juvenile court		Dependent, neglected, truant, and delinquent children under 16
¹ COLORADO: 1908, ch. 85..... 1908, ch. 86.....	County court to have original jurisdiction of all criminal cases against minors	County judge, or district attorneys of judicial districts may appoint deputy to serve as judge; in county of 100,000 county judge may direct appointment of deputy, at salary not to exceed \$2,000		Delinquent children under 18
1908, ch. 94.....	County court to have jurisdiction of adults, responsible for delinquency of children			Parents, guardians or others contributing to delinquency of children
ILLINOIS: 1899, p. 131.....	Circuit and county courts to have original jurisdiction	Circuit judges, in county of 50,000, to designate one or more members as juvenile court		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16
INDIANA: 1903, ch. 287.....	Juvenile court in county with city of 100,000, or circuit courts in other counties to have jurisdiction in all cases involving custody or legal punishment of children, except probate jurisdiction	Circuit judge, or in county with city of 100,000, judge of juvenile court to be 40 years old, and a parent, elected as any state officer by county for 4 years.	\$2,500	Dependent, neglected children, truants in county with city of 100,000 and delinquent boys under 17, and girls under 18
IOWA: 1904, ch. 11.....	District court to have original and full jurisdiction	District judge		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16
MARYLAND: 1902, ch. 611.....	Magistrate of juvenile causes to have exclusive jurisdiction in all cases of minors under 16 where jurisdiction given to any justice of peace of Baltimore city	Governor with consent of senate to appoint additional member of supreme bench of Baltimore city to be known as magistrate of juvenile causes	\$2,100	Minors under 16
1904, ch. 521.....			\$2,500	
MISSOURI: 1908, p. 218.....	Circuit court in counties of 150,000 to have original jurisdiction	Judge of juvenile court to be designated from members of circuit court		Neglected and delinquent children under 16
NEW JERSEY: 1908, ch. 219.....	Court of common pleas of county to have jurisdiction	Judge of common pleas of county		Delinquent children under 16
NEW YORK: 1902, ch. 217..... Penal code title 10, §291, ¶7.....	Police courts or courts of special sessions may hold separate sessions in cases of trial or commitment of children			Children violating any provision of penal code
1908, ch. 331.....	All courts shall hold separate sessions in cases of trial or commitment of children; where possible to be held in separate court-room known as children's court			Children actually or apparently under 16 violating any law
1902, ch. 590.....	Court of special sessions of first division in city of New York to supersede city magistrates in trial and disposition of children; to hold separate children's court	One or more justices of special sessions of first division designated to hold children's court of New York city		Children under 16 charged with misdemeanors
1908, ch. 150.....	Court of special sessions of second division in Brooklyn to supersede city magistrates in trial and disposition of children; to hold separate children's court	One or more justices special sessions of second division designated to hold children's court of Brooklyn		Children under 16 charged with misdemeanors
1908, ch. 378.....	Court of special sessions of city of Albany to hold separate session for juvenile offenders	City recorder		Children actually or apparently under 16 charged with misdemeanors
² OHIO: 1902, p. 785.....	Court of insolvency of Cuyahoga county (Cleveland) to have original jurisdiction	Judge of court of insolvency		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16
1904, p. 561.....	Courts of common pleas, probate courts, insolvency and superior courts where existent, to have original jurisdiction	One member to be designated from the several courts to serve as juvenile judge		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16
PENNSYLVANIA: 1901, ch. 185.....	Courts of oyer and terminer and general jail delivery, and county courts of quarter sessions of peace of several judicial districts of state	One or more members designated as juvenile court		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16
1908, ch. 205.....	County courts of quarter sessions of peace of several judicial districts of state	One or more members designated as juvenile court		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16
WISCONSIN: 1901, ch. 90.....	Any state or county court of record	One or more members designated as juvenile court		Dependent, neglected and delinquent children under 16

¹Annual report by court to state board of charities and corrections
²Annual reports to board of state charities

in 1903, and Iowa and Ohio in 1904. The introduction of the probation system, where not incorporated in the juvenile court law, generally precedes its establishment. From probation it seems an easy step to a children's court.

Meaning of Term.

Precisely what is meant by a juvenile court there is difficulty in determining. The inference that it signifies a special court or judge to try all kinds of children's cases is, with respect to most states, erroneous. There are certain states that have the separate features of a juvenile court law and yet lay no claim to one, and *vice versa*. The Connecticut law of 1903, establishing a probation system, makes no mention of the trial of juvenile offenders other than that 'if practicable the trial shall be held in chambers.' Yet this statute by those most directly in touch with its workings is referred to as the juvenile court law. The Buffalo juvenile court was one of the first in the country and the first in New York state. A previous statute of 1892 authorized the trial of children by police court separate from the trial of other criminal cases. In 1901 an amendment to the Buffalo city charter was passed, by which the police justices were enabled to appoint probation officers. The juvenile court shortly followed and was in successful operation two years before the passage of the two laws of 1903, which made possible the establishment of juvenile courts throughout the state. The transferal of the juvenile court of Buffalo to a separate building apart from the police court was a voluntary act by Judge Murphy, not required by law. There is a juvenile court in operation in the city of Atlanta, by virtue of a municipal ordinance passed in 1904. The judge presiding over the police city court simply tries the juvenile offenders at a different hour, though in the same place where adult criminals are tried. Massachusetts, on the other hand, by a law of 1874, provided for a separate trial of minors apart from criminal cases, and this is not referred to as a juvenile court law. Judge Lindsev says that Colorado carried on a juvenile court for four years under the school law of 1899. To a non-judicial mind, it surely is an

intricate matter to gain a clear idea as to the essential features of a juvenile court from comparing the various statutes in force at present, and Judge Hurd performs a real service in his explicit statement in this issue.

In some states, children's cases may be brought before any one of several courts, no one having exclusive jurisdiction. California, Ohio and Wisconsin have authorized certain county and city courts to designate one or more members of each court to form a juvenile court—so there may be several juvenile courts in a certain political division with divided jurisdiction. In the largest number of states, however, the county court already has jurisdiction of minors. In establishing a juvenile court, one or more judges will be designated from the county court to hold sessions for juvenile offenders in succession. The children's court of New York city, for instance, has three judges serving in rotation terms of four months each.

In Colorado, Iowa, Missouri, New Jersey and Cleveland, the juvenile court consists of but one judge. His duties are only in part, often in small part, confined to children's cases, but he has undivided jurisdiction of all children's cases brought before that special court. This is of the greatest value. In an instance of a child placed on probation, the court continues the hearing from time to time extending over a period from three months to three years; it is most important that the judge who is cognizant of the circumstances of the probationer, should continue the hearings and not hand the case over to another judge handicapped by ignorance of previous conditions.

The supreme bench of Baltimore city was enlarged by adding a new member, appointed by the governor with the approval of the senate, to serve as magistrate of juvenile causes and to be vested with the same powers in jurisdiction of minors as was previously exercised by the other magistrates of the supreme bench. Indiana is trying the unique experiment of creating a juvenile court in the county in which Indianapolis is situated. The statute requires that the presiding judge be elected like any state officer at the general election held in November of the

TABLE III—CUSTODY OF DEPENDENT, NEGLECTED AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN

State	Jail Detention Prohibited	House of Detention	Transfer from Magistrate's Court	Separate Court Room	Commitment by Court	Compulsory Support of Children	Supervision of Juvenile Institutions
CALIFORNIA: 1908, ch. 48.....	Under 12	City or county to provide suitable place outside jail or police station	To juvenile court		No provision relating to religious preferences	No support decree	Superior court of county or city and county, to appoint board of visitors to institutions
COLORADO: 1903, ch. 85.....	Under 14	Room or house of detention to be maintained in county of first class			No provision	No support decree	Annual certificate of approval to be issued by State Board of Charities and Corrections; institution to report annually to board and juvenile court on demand
CONNECTICUT: 1908, ch. 128.....	Under 16	Board to provide suitable place outside		If possible in separate chambers	No provision		
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA: U. S. 1901, ch. 847.....							
ILLINOIS: 1869, p. 181 1901, p. 141.....	Under 12	City or county to provide suitable place outside	To juvenile court		According to religious preference	In whole or in part	Agent for paroled children; county boards of visitors; annual certificate of inspection from State Board of Public Charities; institution to make report and financial statement to board
INDIANA: 1908, ch. 237.....	Under 14	County to provide suitable place or commit to institutions with approval of State Board of Charities		Separate court room			
IOWA: 1904, ch. 11.....	Under 17	City or county to provide suitable place outside	Immediate transfer to district court	All unnecessary persons may be excluded from court room	According to religious preference	In whole or in part	Board of Control of State Institutions to visit, approve and supervise institutions; annual report (January) to board
KANSAS: 1901, ch. 106.....	No confinement in jails prior to trial	Municipality to provide place of detention		If possible, separate room for hearing, or two hours' interim and room to be cleared			Supervision by State Board of Charities; annual report and financial statement to board
LOUISIANA: 1902, ch. 186.....	No confinement with adult criminals			Children not to be tried at same time with adults			
MARYLAND: 1908, ch. 611 1904, ch. 521.....		Place other than station-house designated by magistrate of juvenile causes			According to preference of parents or guardian		Probation officers to investigate and report on institutions to court
MASSACHUSETTS: 1877, ch. 210 1882, ch. 187.....	Under 12 in custody of State Board			Separate trial apart from criminal cases			
MINNESOTA: 1908, ch. 387.....	Under 14	Separate place of confinement in cities of 50,000		Court to clear court room			
MISSOURI: 1908, p. 213 1901, p. 195.....	Under 16	County to provide suitable place outside, or commitment to association having care of neglected children		Juvenile court room to be provided	According to religious preference	In whole or in part	Annual report, by associations to State Board of Charities and corrections

TABLE III—CUSTODY OF DEPENDENT, NEGLECTED AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN—Continued

State	Jail Detention Prohibited	House of Detention	Transfer from Magistrate's Court	Separate Court Room	Commitment by Court	Compulsory Support of Children	Supervision of Juvenile Institutions
NEW JERSEY: 1903, ch. 219.....	No provision	Court may determine disposition of child pending trial		No provision	No provision	No provision	No supervision
NEW YORK: 1892, ch. 217, or Penal Code, title 10, § 291, § 7..... 1903, ch. 331..... 1903, ch. 613.....				Children may be tried separately Children must be tried separately as far as practicable, in separate room, known as children's court, to be used exclusively for children			
OHIO: 1902, p. 785 (Cuyahoga county).....	Under 12	City or county to provide suitable place outside	Transfer of children under 12 to juvenile court		According to religious preference	In whole or in part	Board of State Charities to visit and supervise annual report to board; annual certificate of inspection; annual report to board; agent for paroled children
1904, p. 561.....	Under 12	City or county to provide suitable place outside	Transfer of children under 16 to juvenile court	Special court room			
PENNSYLVANIA: 1901, ch. 185..... 1901, ch. 297.....	Under 14	House of detention in cities of 100,000 [4]		Special court room to be provided	According to religious preference		County boards of visitors; annual report to Board of Public Charities; inspection and supervision by State Board of Public Charities; annual report and financial statement to board; agent for paroled children
1903, ch. 205..... 1903, ch. 8..... 1903, ch. 98.....	No child to be confined in jail or police station or any institutions with adult convicts pending hearing No confinement in police station with adults	County to provide room or building					
RHODE ISLAND: 1899, ch. 064.....	No confinement in jail pending trial	Certain correctional institutions designated		Separate trial	No provision	No provision	Inspection and supervision by county commissioners; annual report and financial statement to commissioners Juvenile court to appoint board of visitation; to report on institutions; annual report to State Board of Control by institutions
UTAH: 1903, ch. 124.....	Under 14	Municipality to provide suitable place of detention	To be transferred to juvenile court	If possible, in separate room for hearing, or court room cleared and two hours interim	No provision	No provision	
WISCONSIN: 1901, ch. 90.....		Suitable place to be provided by local authorities pending trial			No provision	No provision	

NOTE.—Many states have very complete provisions covering this subject, but no attempt has been made to compare these outside of the general laws establishing the juvenile courts and probation system.

even numbered years. The temporary incumbent of 1903 and 1904, pending this fall's election, was appointed by the governor. Eligibility to the position of juvenile judge is there quite restricted; only a man of forty years of age and a parent is open to nomination. In Colorado, the centralization of children's cases is carried still further. By the laws of 1903 jurisdiction was taken away from the justices' courts and the police courts and centered in the county court. All criminal, chancery, and civil jurisdiction is vested in the court necessary for determination of cases of juvenile delinquents. The truancy and child labor laws are also enforced in the same court. But the special distinction Colorado has won is the enactment of an adult delinquency law, the only one so far by which parents, guardians, and others may be arrested and fined, or placed on probation, compelled to report to the court like juvenile probationers, for in any way contributing to the dependency, truancy, or delinquency of minors. These adult offenders are tried before the county court,

but not at the time of the juvenile delinquents. Thus every possible case affecting the welfare of the child is determined by the county judge who has at command all the available data bearing on the case.

In two states the juvenile court laws require that annual reports be made by the courts. The juvenile court of Denver reports annually to the State Board of Charities and Corrections and the court of Cleveland to the State Board of Charities. In these reports the name of probationers are not to be inserted.

Georgia, Louisiana and District of Columbia should also be represented in the juvenile court movement. New Orleans and Atlanta have juvenile courts in operation, but these were not established by acts of the legislatures, but by local ordinances. The juvenile court of Washington was not mentioned in the United States statute providing for appointment of a probation officer, but was put into effect by a voluntary arrangement between the judges of the city police court.

CITATIONS.

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| CALIFORNIA.
1903, ch. 43, Feb. 26. | Establishing juvenile court and juvenile probation. |
| COLORADO.
1903, ch. 35, Mar. 7.
1903, ch. 94, Mar. 7.
1903, ch. 86, Mar. 7. | Establishing juvenile court and juvenile probation system.
Adult delinquency law, making adults responsible for delinquency of children.
County court to have original jurisdiction in all criminal cases against minors. |
| CONNECTICUT.
1903, ch. 126, May 22. | Establishing probation system for both adults and juveniles, and separate trial of juvenile offenders. |
| DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,
U. S. 1901, ch. 347,
Mar. 8. | Provision for appointing probation officer. |
| ILLINOIS.
1899, p. 181, Apr. 21.
1901, p. 141, May 11. | Establishing juvenile court and probation system. |
| INDIANA.
1903, ch. 287, Mar. 10. | Establishing juvenile court and probation system. |
| IOWA.
1904, ch. 11, Apr. 7. | Establishing juvenile court and probation system. |
| KANSAS.
1901, ch. 106, Mar. 1. | Establishing probation system and general framework for juvenile court law. |
| MARYLAND.
1902, ch. 611, Apr. 11.
1904, ch. 514, Apr. 8.
1904, ch. 521, Apr. 8. | Establishing juvenile court and probation system for city of Baltimore. |
| MASSACHUSETTS.
1891, ch. 356, May 28. | Revision of law relating to probation system. |
| MICHIGAN.
1873, ch. 171, Apr. 29. | Establishing state agency for juvenile offenders. |
| MINNESOTA.
1899, ch. 154, Apr. 11.
1901, ch. 102, Mar. 28.
1903, ch. 270, Apr. 18. | Establishing juvenile probation system.
Extending age of juveniles under probation.
Appointment and supervision of probation officers. |
| MISSOURI.
1901, p. 135, Mar. 26.
1903, p. 213, Mar. 23. | Establishing juvenile probation system.
Establishing juvenile court and probation system (repealing 1901, p. 135) |
| NEW JERSEY.
1900, ch. 102, Mar. 23.
1903, ch. 219, Apr. 8. | Establishing probation system for both adults and juveniles.
Establishing juvenile court. |

NEW YORK.	
1901, ch. 372, Apr. 17.	Establishing probation system.
1901, ch. 627, May 1.	Appointment of probation officers in city of Buffalo.
1902, ch. 549, Apr. 11.	Establishing children's court of New York city.
1902, ch. 590, Apr. 14.	Establishing children's court of Brooklyn.
1903, ch. 159, Apr. 14.	Provision for separate trial of children's cases in children's court: amending 1892, ch. 217.
1903, ch. 331, May 6.	Appointment of probation officers: amending 1901, ch. 372.
1903, ch. 613, May 15.	Appointment of probation officers.
1904, ch. 508, Apr. 29.	
OHIO.	
1902, p. 785, Apr. 18.	Provision for establishing juvenile court and probation system in Cuyahoga county (Cleveland).
1904, p. 621, Apr. 23.	
1904, p. 561, May 5.	Establishing juvenile court and probation system.
PENNSYLVANIA.	
1901, ch. 185, May 21.	Establishing juvenile court and probation system. Declared unconstitutional, and reenacted in five separate laws in 1903.
1901, ch. 297, July 2.	
1901, ch. 205, Apr. 2.	
1903, ch. 7, Feb. 26.	
1903, ch. 12, Mar. 5.	
1903, ch. 65, Mar. 26.	
1903, ch. 98, Apr. 3.	
RHODE ISLAND.	
1899, ch. 664, May 23.	Establishing probation system for juvenile delinquents.
UTAH.	
1903, ch. 124, Mar. 23.	Establishing probation system for dependent and neglected children.
WISCONSIN.	
1901, ch. 90, Mar. 26.	Establishing juvenile court and probation system.
1903, ch. 97, Apr. 20.	
1903, ch. 359, May 20.	

The Economics of the Juvenile Court

Frederic Almy

Buffalo

At the last national conference of charities Secretary Spalding of the Massachusetts Prison Association spoke thus: "We are accustomed to say to the members of the legislature, Will you save men, or will you save dollars? The legislature often decides to save dollars, but it loses the dollars and loses the men also. Whatever you do, impress upon those who have charge of the public purse-strings the fact that you save *both dollars and men* by the probation system."

Proof that the probation system, even with paid probation officers, yields an immediate cash saving for the taxpayers, (in addition to the future, contingent saving which is the familiar plea for most of the vast expenses of modern charity) will win over any legislature. A few might hold out for old-fashioned severity of punishment for adult criminals, but not for children.

The arguments for the economy of adult probation do not apply fully to juvenile probation. In counting the cost with the adult criminal we must add to his prison maintenance what he could earn outside at his work. We must consider also the frequent need of charitable support for his family, with the dangers of pauperism if the breadwinner loses his

job temporarily, or perhaps permanently, on account of the prison stigma.

The earnings of juveniles, and the dependence upon them of their families for support, are trifling as compared with adults. On the other hand, with the juvenile criminal the direct cost to the taxpayer for his confinement is greater, for the educational methods of reformatories cost more than the mere custody of most adult prisons.

Proof of the economy of probation for the adult is on the whole doubly proof of its economy for the juvenile, for in addition to the saving on account of the larger immediate cost for juvenile confinement, it is admitted that the contingent future saving from reformation is greater with juveniles. They are more susceptible than adults to good influence, either in a reformatory or on probation. No one doubts that the percentage of juvenile probationers who are reclaimed for society is greater than the percentage among adults. If we figure also the cost yearly to society of a confirmed criminal life it is plain that it saves public money to reform criminals as young as possible, on the score of time as well as of probable success.

Students of the economy of probation

and parole will find that the pamphlets issued free of cost by the Massachusetts Prison Association¹ are invaluable. Juvenile probation is sweeping the country, but the economy of adult probation is not widely appreciated. Massachusetts has not even yet any entirely separate juvenile courts with different judges and buildings,² but is far ahead of other states in its use of probation which is the essential principle of those courts. In 1880 a law allowed, and in 1891 another law compelled, the appointment of a salaried probation officer in each municipal, police and district court in Massachusetts. In 1898 this was made permissive for the Superior Court also, which deals with more serious offenses.

A strong statement of the economy of probation was made by the district attorney of Norfolk and Plymouth counties in 1899. In 1898 the Superior Court appointed a probation officer for these two counties. The cost was \$1,200 for salary, or with expenses \$1,400. In Plymouth county twenty-two convicted criminals were placed on probation. "Of these six had to be surrendered by the probation officers, two have wavered some, and fourteen have met all our hopes." The fourteen would have received an average sentence of nine months, which at fifty cents a day would have cost the taxpayers \$1,890. In Norfolk county eighteen were placed on probation. "One only has disappointed me." The seventeen in Norfolk county would have received an average sentence of eight months, costing at the same rate \$2,040. Probation therefore, in this case, cost \$1,400 and saved \$3,930, or nearly three times its cost. The absolute, net saving to the taxpayers on an outlay of \$1,400 was \$2,530, and as has been shown, the probation had still greater indirect and future savings in wages and in reducing the probability of future crime by these same offenders. The criminal who passes out of the prison doors to meet "a month whose days are years" and who changes restraint for sudden freedom, with the world against him, has no such chance of employment or reformation as the man whose

outside life has not been interrupted except by the constant fear of imprisonment if he does not redeem his character. Crime is not a continuous performance, but even with the worst criminal is occasional only, in weak moments. Confinement is continuous and dangerous, and especially with adults the good influences are not so frequent as on probation where steady work, steady saving, temperance and regular habits can be compelled.

In 1903 the salaries of all the probation officers in the lower courts of Massachusetts aggregated \$70,000. 8,140 criminals (of whom 1,199 were juvenile offenders) were placed on probation. The Massachusetts Prison Association estimates that if these had all been sent to prison the average term would have been, at the least, three months, and the saving in food only, at a dollar a week each, would come to \$105,820, a very large surplus over the cost of probation. This saving is absolute and immediate. Note, also, that the cost of imprisonment is figured at only a dollar a week instead of fifty cents a day as above. If the earnings of the probationers are estimated at only five dollars a week we have an additional saving of \$529,100, or a total saving of \$635,000 at a cost of \$70,000. In the same year the Superior Court probation officers took on probation 1,255 persons at a cost of about \$7,000. The saving at the same rates was \$16,315 for cost of imprisonment, and \$81,575 for earnings, or, in all, fourteen times the salaries of the probation officers.

Suppose we scrutinize these figures. The higher court shows the greater saving although the estimated term of imprisonment and the estimated wages of employed outside are both especially moderate when applied to this court. For felonies the average term would be more than three months, and probably the higher grade offenders would also earn more than five dollars a week. The district attorney lately quoted said that his Superior Court probationers would have had terms of eight and nine months. He also put the cost of confinement at fifty cents a day instead of a dollar a week. The actual cost in Massachusetts in 1903 as stated by the Prison Association is fifty-

¹ 56 Pemberton Square, Boston.

² As long ago as 1877 a Massachusetts law required that children should be tried apart from adults.

two cents a day.¹ If this figure had been used the saving in prison cost would be more than trebled as compared with the figures just given. In the matter of earnings also we are told that a single probation officer in Lynn collects wages to the amount of \$4,000 a year in cases of non-support.

Two criticisms of the figures of the Massachusetts Prison Association may be suggested. It is unfair to assume either that all those placed on probation would otherwise have been committed, or that all those placed on probation would behave so well as to escape subsequent imprisonment. (As to the latter point, however, not all who are released after imprisonment behave as well as to escape subsequent imprisonment.) With adults guilty of felonies, in the higher courts, nearly all would have to be committed if there were no probation. With more petty offenses, in the lower courts, and especially with children, which alone concerns us directly in this paper, many would be fined and many more dismissed on suspended sentence. Of course this is true even with probation, but this gentler alternative would often be used by a judge, especially with children, where commitment would never be thought of. Probation even increases the number of arrests, for with this recourse policemen will often arrest children to whom a mere court rebuke is a farce and for whom imprisonment is much too severe. There is no true tally between the number put on probation and the increased number of commitments without probation.

The correction of the figures on this account would reduce the economy of probation, but would probably still leave a balance in its favor on the mere score of present imprisonment, without regard to future improvement or outside earnings.

The figures are suggestive rather than conclusive. There is no clear statement of a prison budget reduced by probation but only arguments that probation must reduce it. This is so also in Denver where the cost of probation is elaborately dis-

cussed though the Denver figures are far from clear. As to the recurrence of criminals in prisons we are told that more than sixty per cent of those committed to Massachusetts county prisons in 1902 had been there before, and yet this was after many years of a compulsory probation law. What percentage had formerly been on probation is not told. Of the children on probation in New York during the first ten months of the court, seventy-five per cent completed their time satisfactorily and were discharged. With only seventeen per cent was commitment to institutions necessary.

The Massachusetts Prison Association gives figures from which it claims that on the whole crime is decreasing, and one cause of this is said to be the extended use of the probation system. This is important when they add that the total annual cost of crime in Massachusetts is figured at five and one half million dollars. This is for the police force, the criminal courts and the prisons, with no allowance for property stolen or destroyed.

A very important consideration, not to be lost sight of, is that in most juvenile courts there are volunteer probation officers working in association with one or two paid officers. This of course considerably increases the economy.

The arguments for the economy of probation before imprisonment apply almost equally to parole after imprisonment. For both moral and financial reasons alike the term of imprisonment should be lessened as much as possible by both probation and parole.

In their study of war the Japanese have found that the number of deaths from disease within the ranks of the attacking army is usually much greater than the deaths in battle. They have given their medical experts powers approaching those of the military generals, and have shown that the deaths in camp can be largely avoided. In penology the attacking force has been the institution, with its confinement and disgrace, and many experts now believe that the prison, the penitentiary, and even the reformatory, cause more vice than they cure. They can hardly be done away with, but their harm can be limited by both probation and parole.

¹ "If the cost of state and county prisons (\$1,165,041 a year) is divided by the average prison population (8,144 in 1908) the average cost per prisoner per annum is found to be \$180." This equals fifty-two cents a day.—Massachusetts Prison Association, No. 18, 1904.

Juvenile Courts

PROBLEMS OF ADMINISTRATION

Charles R. Henderson

Chicago

After the essential working principles of the juvenile court movement have been accepted, the devices for promoting success have still to be invented and developed through experience. The suggestions of this paper have grown out of a correspondence¹ carried on with judges and probation officers who have helped to forward this agency, and are part of the result of the experiments thus far made.

The procedure of the court is a primary factor in the administration of the law. The juvenile court has not yet entirely sloughed off the marks of its origin in the criminal courts, and has not yet become frankly an agency in our educational system. It is even crippled by its history. The Prussian law in 1901 actually changed its name from the "force law" to the "guardianship law," a change significant, although the idea of education was already fixed in the older statutes.

The Judge. The judge should serve continuously. An essential difference between ordinary civil and criminal courts on the one side and juvenile courts on the other lies at this point: usually a decision goes on record and the case is ended; but when a child comes under the care of a judge, the case is merely begun. The judge who acts as receiver for a corporation must attend to it continuously, and one who accepts the guidance of a youthful citizen cannot let go until his educational task is achieved. Where various judges take turns the "procedure is irregular, the practice cannot be the same, the knowledge of the individual boys who are on probation and who return to the court to report, cannot be familiar to the judge who probably sees the boy only once."

The Form of Trial. The form of trial must carry out consistently the purely educational principles of the court, and any suggestion of an old-fashioned criminal trial should be

¹This study was made in connection with a report made to the National Prison Association, October, 1904.

avoided. There should be as little formality as possible, and the parental idea should be dominant. There seems to be still a little of the obsolete conception left adhering to the statement of one of the wise judges who are so patiently trying the new experiment: it is "best to recognize all the constitutional provisions of a criminal trial, but modifying them so as to fit the case of the juvenile—his right to a speedy trial, to be confronted with the evidence, and to preserve other safeguards, while at the same time the purely formal is kept in the background." The protection of all personal rights is, of course, a vital matter, but the forms of the criminal court too much suggest the discarded notion that children are criminals, exactly the notion we are seeking to expel.

The Jury. Is a jury desirable? In some states a jury must be kept at hand, because in certain cases the law requires it. But most of the correspondents think a jury is worse than useless. The employment of a jury increases the cost of administration; it excites the hunger for publicity and notoriety in adventurous boys; it involves a formal criminal procedure; it seriously interferes with the moral and educational influence of judge and other officers of the court.

The Lawyer. What is the function of the lawyer in a juvenile court? On this point there is some difference of opinion, but all agree that he should not appear to plead a case as if it were an ordinary criminal trial. The chief probation officer in Chicago (Mr. McManaman), who is himself a lawyer, says: "The lawyer is necessary, not to act as a prosecutor or to represent the defense, but to assist the probation officers in the many questions and the work that arise from day to day."² But occasionally a

²Dr. H. H. Hart writes: "The present plan pursued in Cook county of having the child's interest represented by the attorney, who is also chief probation officer, is excellent. I would have this function performed in other counties by the state's attorney, who should, however, be fully instructed."

judge clings to expressions which indicate that in case of some offenses he is still working the old machinery of vindictive punishment. Judge Wilkin, of Brooklyn, expresses the opinion that a conscientious lawyer may be useful in protecting a child from the cruelty of selfish parents and bringing out facts material for a sound decision of the court. Judge J. Henderson has occasionally appointed an attorney to "look up cases." But Judge Lindsey's declaration goes to the root of the matter: "Lawyers are necessary in criminal cases. A child's case is not a criminal case, it is not convicted of crime, nor sent to a criminal institution, except in capital cases."

The Probation Officer.

Probation officers are agents of the court and, therefore, should be appointed by the judge.¹ When the judge is elected by popular vote and is frequently exposed to secret demands from party or faction, he needs some sort of protection; and this is especially true when salaries are given to the probation agents. The Colorado law, which gives a veto power to the State Board of Charities, seems to offer a method of rescuing the movement from the clutch of the spoilsmen.

In order to secure reliable service of persons of ability who give their whole time to the court, a proper salary must be paid. When only occasional service is demanded, a per diem payment seems to work very well. Where an agent of the court accepts responsibility for only one or two children who are near him and easily watched it is not necessary to make any payment; but regular salaried officers are necessary to follow up such voluntary service unless the judge has the leisure to do it. In New York city no salaries are paid juvenile probation officers, but associations with large incomes accept responsibility and report to the court. In Cleveland the voluntary officers do not require payment, but the chief probation officer looks

¹ In the city of New York, boroughs of Manhattan and Bronx, they are appointed by the justices of the Court of Special Sessions, First Division, who sit in rotation in the children's court. In Cleveland they are appointed by the judge from a list approved by the chief probation officer, who is a paid employé of the court. In Indianapolis the judge appoints. In Philadelphia the court has authority but follows recommendations of the New Century Club committee. In Brooklyn the judge consults representatives of denominational societies engaged in child-saving work.

after details and records, and takes care of lapsed cases. In Philadelphia the probation officers are paid only \$600 out of private funds. In Indiana the judge may order pay for one or at most two officers at the rate of \$3 per day. In Baltimore three officers may be appointed by the Supreme Bench of Baltimore city (*i. e.* the aggregate judges), and their salary is \$1,200 per annum. In Colorado the law provides that, in cities of over 100,000 inhabitants, not to exceed three probation officers may be appointed, at a salary of \$1,200 per year each for two such officers, and \$1,500 per year for the chief probation officer, with an expense account of \$1,100 a year, to be paid under the direction of the court. The great success of this court is in no small part due to the substantial financial provisions of the law.

Source of Payment.

Quite as important as the amount of salary is the source of payment. The paymaster holds the reins. If the state is really in earnest in this matter, and if the law is intended to make the juvenile court a permanent factor and not merely a tolerated experiment, then the law creating the court should carry with it the pecuniary means of making it a living fact and power. On this point the testimony of Judge Lindsey is forceful and explicit:

Considering that Denver, like Chicago, has hundreds of thousands of dollars invested in jails, criminal courts, and hundreds of thousands to make up the salary lists of deputy sheriffs, jailers, and policemen, and considering that over half of the criminals are among the young men, that at least one-fifth of all arrests (possibly eliminating common drunks) in the cities of this country are among the boys, it would seem a very short-sighted and inconsistent policy in providing for their protection and the prevention of crime, to refuse the expenditures of public moneys therefor, and at the same time continue to increase the appropriations into the hundreds of thousands for the conviction and punishment of those who are criminals largely because of neglect in youth by the home and the state.

The weight of opinion favors the public assumption of this burden. From Cleveland it was said: "Like any court it should be a public charge. We have tried both plans." (Mr. Shurtleff). Judge

McLeod asserts that charity is too uncertain. Judge Heuisler (Baltimore): "This payment is made by the city, and is properly so paid because the work of the court and the probation officers is public work and not the burden of private and voluntary charity."

The evidence shows that when reliance is placed on private charity the salaries are too low to command the best talent, and so unreliable as to cause grave anxiety to the court. At the same time, as we are directly informed, this money has been raised largely at the expense of the recognized charities.

Further, in Chicago, where the state law makes no provision for payment of probation officers, the failure to secure sufficient funds from private charity and other resources has compelled the court to employ sixteen policemen as probation officers. In all countries it is generally agreed that such work should not be given over to policemen. Their social function makes them agents of repression in relation to crime, and for this work their professional training prepares them. But for school playgrounds, vacation schools, and probation service we require an entirely different kind of training. Furthermore, it defeats the fundamental object of the juvenile court to connect it so closely with the forms and agencies of criminal law. And if the danger of politics threatens the usefulness of the probation officer, the appointment of policemen to this service introduces the evil in one of its most objectionable forms.¹

*Classification
of Children.*

The devices for helping the children and for preventing their lapse into evil ways are numerous and varied. Benevolent invention has been stimulated by the opportunity presented by the juvenile court, and all the existing organizations for child-saving work have been utilized.

It would be impossible to reproduce here the manifold methods which have

¹ But the employment of paid probation officers by no means excludes the use of the benevolent service of citizens who are willing to become responsible, without payments, for one or more children under the direction of the court. In several states the voluntary officers have been found very helpful allies of the regular corps of paid officers. But this irregular and occasional service requires the most careful organization and supervision, and for this purpose a busy judge needs the assistance of salaried helpers.

been so ably described and explained by several writers.² Medical examinations are frequently desirable in public schools and in juvenile courts in order to discover these and related defects. Institutions must be established for various groups of defectives, with a discipline suitable to the common needs of large numbers. Those who are older and more hardened must not be permitted to have access to the younger and innocent children and so spoil them by evil example and suggestion. The little children who are simply neglected, cruelly treated, starved, tempted by unfit parents, need protection and guardianship of societies, homes and families. If the fault of the juvenile offender can be traced to any adult person, then, as under the Colorado law, that mature and responsible person should be compelled to perform his duty and give security for better behavior.

There are some young persons, though few, who reveal at a very early age the precocious signs of the criminal, and these traits may come out in more pronounced way at puberty or later. In such cases the parental school, the farm colony and the industrial school (once called "reform school") may be wisely used until the storm is over and good habits are established. Experience in Pennsylvania and elsewhere shows that even in the case of delinquent children charged with serious offenses, it is not always necessary to send them to an institution. Dr. H. H. Hart is not alone in saying: "I would recommend the establishment of machinery for boarding-out a considerable number of delinquent children at public expense without commitment to any institution." The great majority of "delinquent" children cannot be distinguished by any personal traits from "neglected and dependent" children. Mornay Williams's suggestion that a detention home should be used as a quarantine measure to discover inherent defects and the requirements of individual children is eminently wise. The agents of the court must keep the more troublesome waifs under observation long enough to know what can be made of them.

For the most part, especially in

² See department: *Among Prints and Publications*, page 367.

cities, the court can employ all the existing agencies for helping children and youth; and with the extension of probation work it will be found necessary to have an urban central organization for direction and co-ordination of all the various co-operating persons and societies. The Juvenile Court Conference in Philadelphia held in November, 1904¹, is an illustration of the tendency toward such federation of settlements, homes, orphanages, boys' clubs, child protection societies and charity organization societies.

There is a distinct danger that the ancient evils of the "short sentence" method will creep into the administration of the juvenile court. Already evidence is coming in on this point. Usually the causes of delinquency have been at work for a long period of years, often for generations, and it is unreasonable to expect quick returns for ameliorative labor. Time is an essential factor where brain structure must be rebuilt and new habits formed, new associations made. The whole enterprise will be wrecked if this principle is ignored. The danger is especially urgent when the court is pressed with new cases and has not enough assistants to care for its wards, nor money enough to secure necessary help. If thorough work is not done there will be a reaction in the public mind and the cause will suffer from obstructive measures. No child should be discharged from the judicial control until its social surroundings and personal conduct are known to give assurance of an honest life. This may require a year or even seven or eight years of guardianship. The risk of loss and the reward of success are both so great as to require the utmost patience and continuous watch care.

The courts are part of the judicial organization of the commonwealth; they are not local institutions either in the origin of their authority or the effects of their activity. Their probation control of children and youth is in large part a substitute for the state industrial or reform school. If they fail the effects of the failure are felt throughout the state. Furthermore,

¹ CHARITIES, November 19, 1904, p. 159.

the experience of the civilized world has demonstrated the weakness of local administration without central supervision and control. Leontine Lincoln said at the second Massachusetts state conference: "Protection alike to those who receive, those who administer and those who provide, demands the establishment of a strong central authority, with power to inspect, to investigate, to supervise, to co-ordinate methods and activities." In Massachusetts the state board has only supervisory powers in relation to institutions, but in the case of unsettled poor, neglected, and dependent children and younger juvenile offenders it has executive powers.²

The Colorado law provides that the State Board of Charities and Corrections shall have a veto power in connection with the appointment of probation officers. The judge of the court appoints these officers, submits the selected names to the board, and this body must within thirty days reject or confirm the choice. The purpose is to keep "politics" from interfering with such appointments and to secure high class of service. The plan has been successful.³

In the Indiana law approved March 10, 1903, very considerable powers of direction are given to the Board of State Charities, a body which has the confidence of the people. Institutions in which wards of the court are placed must be approved by this board (Section 3). The probation officer is required to report his disposition of a child placed in his charge not only to the judge, but also to the board (Section 6). All associations or individuals receiving children are supervised by the board and must have its approval in order to act as guardians (Sections 8, 9). The boards of children's guardians, created in counties for the protection of children, must report to the board (Act of 1901, Section 8). This body supervises and controls county associations which care for dependent and neglected children, and has an agent of its own who travels over the state, selects family homes, places children and supervises their care, with the powers of a guardian (Law of 1877, Sections 8-10).

² CHARITIES, November 19, 1904, p. 160.

³ Report from Denver, p. 41.

The Development of the Probation System in a Large City

Julia C. Lathrop

Chicago

In discussing the probation system, it must be confessed at the outset that, as usual, we are indebted to Massachusetts for the idea; whether it sprang forth full-fledged there, or whether it grew up slowly from the English precedent of the ticket-of-leave, is not now the question. Visitors to the French Exposition of 1900 may remember the charts of a Paris society which undertakes for children in that city functions similar to those exercised by the probation officer. The eagerness with which nearly twenty states have followed the action of Illinois and Colorado in passing juvenile court laws, the interest in juvenile courts shown by official visitors from foreign countries, all indicate that there is a bad conscience the world round as to the public treatment of neglected children, and that there is a general effort to find out and to practice a more excellent way than that of fine and imprisonment.

I shall try only to outline the history of the probation system in the large city I know best, Chicago. Local circumstances have conditioned its growth; among them are the limitations imposed upon the law by the Illinois constitution, the lack of public provision for children awaiting trial who cannot be sent legally to jail or police station, and the failure of the law to provide salaries for probation officers.

One of the earliest evidences of the concern of Chicago citizens for children within the grasp of the law was the organization of a school within the county jail for boys who were held there awaiting trial or the action of the grand jury. This school was at first due to the efforts of one woman, Mrs. Dennison Groves, but after a short time its support became so burdensome that she applied to Mrs. J. M. Flower, through whose influence the Chicago Women's Club assumed the maintenance of a teacher. While the school doubtless benefited the boys, its greatest value was in the increased publicity given to the plight of young lads

who were detained often for months, to be discharged at last freed from the accusations under which they were held, but weighted with the moral injury of the jail life and associations. At the Bridewell, too, were many young boys sent from the police stations to "lay out fines" for all sorts of offenses from flipping cars and snow-balling, to burglary, or even more serious crimes. The superintendent at that time, Mark Crawford, did much by reports and addresses to increase the public discontent. One story of his became a campaign classic. Two young brothers, both pickpockets, were sent to the Bridewell repeatedly; the elder was noted for his skill; the younger was good-natured and stupid. On the verge of any great public holiday, some one always came to the Bridewell, paid the heavy fine for the elder and released him so that he could practice his business among the crowds; but there was never any speculative friend to pay the fine of the younger lad, who always remained his full time just because he was poor as a pickpocket and comparatively harmless to the public.

About ten years ago an effort was made under the leadership of Mrs. Flower to secure a special law for children in Illinois. She went to Massachusetts and carefully studied the work of a Boston probation officer. On her return, a bill for the care of delinquent children was drafted at the instance of the Chicago Women's Club, which contained provision for a separate court and for probation officers, but it was a compulsive measure, and as such was open to question as to its constitutionality. The effort was abandoned temporarily and as time went on public attention was increasingly aroused to the inconsistency of the situation. The Chicago Women's Club continued the maintenance of the jail school, and was largely instrumental in securing first a special manual training school, and later separate housing for the boys in the Bridewell. The injury by repeated short

sentences imposed on the same child by various justices without reference to the history of the case, and without any common knowledge or means of knowledge on the part of the justices, was much discussed in the press and in public meetings. The State Conference of Charity of 1898 urged legislation and appointed a committee, while at the request of Mrs. Flower and other members of the Chicago Women's Club, Judge Hurd drew up the bill which was later adopted by the Chicago Bar Association, and known as the Bar Association Bill. This bill for the care of dependent, delinquent, and neglected children became a law in 1899, embodying, as it did, provisions which had been urged by the State Board of Charities, and which had been in part presented before several preceding legislatures, although lacking some provisions essential to a complete code; notably a provision forbidding the presence of children in a poorhouse, adequate state supervision for children placed-out in families, and a provision enforcing adult responsibility.¹

The judge and the machinery of a court of record were provided by the law, together with the appointment of probation officers. But no payment of salaries to them was mentioned. There were two reasons for the failure to provide salaries; first, the fear that if a large expense for salaries were entailed, the bill itself might be defeated; and second, the danger that the officers might be political appointees, if paid from public funds.

*Pioneer Work
in
Probation.*

When the law went into effect July 1, 1899, Mrs. Flower and Mrs. Alzina P. Stevens were present at the first session. Mrs. Stevens was a resident of Hull House, and had been doing volunteer probation work in its neighborhood. In the legislature of 1899 she had led to success the effort for a truant school for Chicago and she was also deeply interested in the protection of working children. Her ripe wisdom, her recogni-

¹ It permits police justices to send cases to a juvenile court instead of compelling such action and thus avoids the constitutional difficulty previously encountered. The hearty willingness of the police justices to give up their jurisdiction and the effectiveness of this permissive legislation is an interesting instance of the power of an active public sentiment to enforce law.

tion of the profounder causes of juvenile delinquency and their interdependence, as well as her tact and simple goodness, made her an ideal probation officer, and her untimely death, after a year's service in the court, was a deplorable loss. Mrs. Flower secured from friends the payment of a salary for Mrs. Stevens. It was immediately evident that a large corps of probation officers were a *sine qua non* of effectiveness, and Mrs. Flower interested various persons who contributed the support of four or five officers for the first two years. At the same time societies, such as the Children's Home and Aid Society, the Visitation and Aid Society, and the Bureau of Personal Service, which bring cases into the court, or into whose care children are given by the court, sent representatives who were made probation officers. Various individuals, interested in special cases or willing to volunteer occasional services, were also made probation officers, and in addition the mayor of Chicago directed that two policemen from each station be detailed to act as probation officers in their respective police districts. The necessity for an increasing corps of paid probation officers assigned to stated districts (living in those districts when practicable) has become increasingly evident, and in the effort to meet this necessity, the Juvenile Court Committee has developed gradually from the efforts of Mrs. Flower and Mrs. Stevens. The committee is now a legal corporation, it gathers funds to pay the salaries of fifteen officers of whom four are men and eleven women. These officers are approved and appointed by the judge, and hold their places subject to his power of removal. There is a chief probation officer who is, in fact, an attorney, detailed from the law department of the city and paid by the city. He is present at the sessions of the court, supervises the presentation of the cases and the care of the records, and is expected to advise and direct probation officers.

The Illinois law provides that a child under twelve years shall not be detained in a jail, or station-house, but does not designate further the manner in which such children shall be detained. When the law went into effect, as there was no public provision for their care, a society

known as the Illinois Industrial Association assumed the care of boys awaiting a hearing, and was paid one-half by the city and one-half by the county. In 1903 the Juvenile Court Committee succeeded this association and now carries on the Detention Home for Children, at 625 West Adams street. The expenses are nearly met by the city and county, and the committee pays the balance.

Our greatest material difficulty is the lack of a large and suitably equipped building in which the sessions of the court could be held and which could afford shelter and adequate separation for the various classes of children. The present detention home is over two miles from the court-house, and is too small. According to our experience, the sessions of the court should be frequent—daily if possible—so that the period of detention be no longer than is necessary.

As to statistics, it may be interesting to know that in the two years previous to the opening of the juvenile court, there were 1,071 boys under sixteen years of age in the county jail, while since then, up to January 1, 1903 there were seventy. In the court year of 1904, there were 1,805 delinquent cases in court. Of these, 715 were paroled to officers, forty were returned a second time, and one a third time. In the four years of its existence, the court has heard over 12,000 cases of children. There are still children's cases occasionally heard in the public courts, but the bulk of them are withdrawn. The detention home, in the year ending November 1, 1904, received over 2,600 children, dependent and delinquent. The number of children paroled to each officer varies from 50 to 150, according to the size and newness of the district. It is clear that no one can be expected to exercise much more than the somewhat humorously designated "official parenthood" over most members of such a brood.

It will be seen that the Chicago method is hardly a "system" so far as its mechanism is concerned. It is rather a series of contrivances which have grown up to meet the situation as necessity demanded. In practice it works well in many ways. The public has confidence in the value of the probation officers, and in the com-

mittee, and contributes the money for salaries and for the home. There is no political complication, or interference in the appointment of officers, and certainly the personnel of the staff shows a very high order of ability and unselfish devotion. Yet it may be fairly suggested that the work of the court lacks the co-ordination and power that it might have were the responsibility less distributed. The city, the county, and the volunteer society are all working amicably and disinterestedly, but with some loss of effectiveness. In my own opinion it is clear that a juvenile court, like other courts of record, should be maintained by public funds. Freedom from political interference should be secured by the application of a merit law to govern appointment of officers, or rather to secure suitable persons to nominate to the judge; and above all by the demands of an active public interest. There would still be need of the aid of private societies and individuals in caring for individual cases, and in supplementing the work of the paid staff of probation officers. Such taking over by the public of work begun by private effort has a good precedent in the introduction of the kindergarten in the public schools.

*The Human
Basis
of the Work.*

Recently the representative of a foreign country was investigating the subject of juvenile courts in order to make a report to his government. In discussing the general confidence and pride in the new panacea, he said smilingly that in one community five separate persons had confidentially assured him that each was the originator of the law. It is when seven cities claim the honor of being Homer's birthplace, that scholars become sure that Homer was born in none of them, but rather represents a rich and cumulative aggregate of human tradition and aspiration. We must all recognize that in a juvenile court and a probation officer, we have the result of a slow and halting development, which has at last produced the most delicate, subtle, and flexible application of law touching individuals which has yet been made. No other court has just such summary powers, no other officer of court exer-

cises such intimate functions. For these very reasons no other law could be so cruelly travestied if administered in bad faith, or even stupidly.

If, as we are told, twenty states have passed laws creating such courts in the last five years, that is rapid work. We must take care that we do not permit ourselves to consider them as accurate, mechanical contrivances, like a voting machine, or a moral *selbstfahrer*, which will perform their functions by carefully elaborated plans, leaving us free for the more agreeable task of evolving new plans to be applied by other mechanical contrivances, to duties which still demand personal pains and attention. On the contrary, in just so far as the organization of these courts is complicated, in the same measure must their human expression be maintained at the highest possible level, and this entails lavish and constant pouring forth of the finest trained energy and wisdom.

There is a more interesting aspect of this matter. Thus far we have spoken merely of the mechanism. What is the actual public service for which the machinery exists? What is the human basis?

I do not know how to present this human side more directly than by referring to the daily experiences of probation officers, and I am indebted to various officers for much illustrative material. One of them thus describes a case of the sort which certainly cheers to further effort. She says:

A delinquent girl was arrested for stealing from her father. It was her first offense, and she was paroled to me. Subsequently I found she had a stepmother who beat her and abused her. The stepmother and the father drank. The child, although not quite thirteen years old, had worked nine months in a saloon on Canal street, waiting on a free lunch counter; her father had taken all her earnings and failed to provide her with even necessary clothing. She had never been a day in school and could not speak a word of English. I brought her back to court with a statement of what I had learned. The court changed the order, giving her to me to place in a family home, which I did. The woman in whose home she lived afterward told me that the child knew nothing of the ordinary comforts of life—an hour's persuasion was necessary to induce her to undress before retiring. She was placed in school; two months later she was ex-

amined and passed for the second grade. She is exceedingly bright. I visited her frequently, talked with and advised her. She is treated as a daughter of the family and recently told me her new home was a perfect heaven. She had thought every one lived as her parents did. She is still in school, speaks English well, is a good, useful girl, and in the two years I have known her has not done the least thing in any way discreditable.

This was a comparatively simple situation because the parental neglect was so flagrant that the child could be summarily removed from the home. It brings out the questions of adult responsibility which are so important, yet so frequently ignored. The saloon-keeper who was illegally employing the child, the parents who profited by her toil, should not have been allowed to escape legal penalty. It is precisely at this point of enforcing adult responsibility for juvenile delinquencies, that we must all recognize the superiority of the Colorado law. A father and mother were brought into the Chicago court with six young children. Both parents drank and were openly immoral. Then the spectacle—extraordinary, but unfortunately not unusual—was presented of the six children being committed to various charitable institutions, entirely without expense to the parents, while the parents left the court room free of all responsibility.

The work of the probation officer is constructive and remedial. As one of them says:

The officer gets some very bad boys (some not so bad), who bear deep scars of social abuses, and large abrasions caused by daily contact with a very rough world, all of which have to be erased and healed over. It can't be done by "don't do this and don't do that."

Again an officer of usually shrewd and sympathetic observation says, in speaking of Chicago conditions:

The boy of foreign parents with his life necessarily largely on the street, becomes more sophisticated than his non-English speaking father and mother, and may quickly outgrow their influence at fourteen and fifteen. There is a lack of sympathy, a defiance of authority, and then a final rupture when the boy leaves home to go to some other city, or to stay in his own city, sleeping in alleys or cheap lodging-houses, or making up the population in large measure of philanthropic homes and

*The Work of
Civic
Assimilation.*

clubs for newsboys. The task of dealing with such boys can be performed, if at all, only with a deep insight into the problem of adolescence on the one side, and by a rehabilitation of the child's family life, which really places the probation officer not over the child, but over his parents.

The records of the John Worthy School (the boys' department of the Bridewell) show that while approximately three-fourths of the boys are American born, only about one-fourth of the parents are American born. This fact reenforces the observation of any probation officer in the foreign quarters of a great city, and reminds us again that by some cruel alchemy we take the sturdiest of European peasantry and at once destroy in a large measure its power to rear to decent livelihood the first generation of offspring born upon our soil. As a rather cheerful instance of the probation officer in charge of the family, one may quote the following, in which the parents are delinquent and the children dependent:

The six children, ranging in age from six months to eleven years, were sent to institutions, and the parents paroled to me. They both drank, the woman much more than the man. I found their home without any of the necessities. They slept on an old spring without mattress or quilt. The man was working steadily, earning \$15 per week—living in four rooms with scraps of furniture for one, at a \$10 per month rental, three months in arrears. The man modified his drinking habits, the woman took the pledge, and after three months the home was fairly decent and the judge gave back the three youngest children. The mother then had to celebrate by breaking her pledge. Since then I have had her before the court three times for instruction. I took the man into the county court, and he was ordered to pay me for the support of his family \$10 per week, which he has done and I have spent it. They now have six rooms, clean and fairly comfortable, and next week I am going to ask the court to give them the other three children on trial. They have been doing well for some time, and to accomplish this it has taken eighteen months' time and 139 visits.

Who can say there is not a celestial patience expressed in this little record—as yet so incomplete—so plainly anticipating long-continued interest in the future for any ultimate success.

*A Field for
Rare Social
Usefulness.* Unquestionably the most useful service of the officer is performed outside of the court, for children whose names never ap-

pear on its records. As an officer becomes known in the district, frequent applications are made by distressed parents, or annoyed neighbors, and as an officer says: "Keeping children out of court is very interesting work." Sometimes very simple expedients are needed. The probation officer's home becomes headquarters for her boys, and is frequently the scene, not of formal reporting, but of the pleasantest social intercourse. It is often a haven of refuge. An officer says: "In every probation officer's house there is a guest chamber, though it is only a corner and a bamboo screen, and a certain Robert occupied such a corner in my house for many nights interrupted by commitments to various homes and institutions." Thus far, perhaps, Robert is an "unsuccessful case," and perhaps always will be, but there is a system of calculation which makes the efforts put forth in his behalf seem worth while. Keeping children out of court and making provision for the children's play and exercise are doubtless most conveniently managed by those who live in the midst of their districts—perhaps in a settlement, which can afford many resources in the way of clubs, parties, country holidays, gymnasium classes and athletics.

The appeals to "do something" about a boy are frequently on behalf of children over sixteen years of age, the legal limit for bringing cases into the juvenile court in Illinois. A mother calls at one of the settlements, asks for Mr. B., a probation officer in residence, says that her son is impudent and won't work; she and the younger boy work, and the older boy must work or leave home. The officer calls and finds a not-half-bad fellow who is perhaps a user of cocaine. He is seventeen, too old for legal parole in the juvenile court, but just the type of boy to be influenced by an older man of tact and wisdom, and the probation officer takes on another "outside case." Perhaps he will fail, but it's worth trying.

Doubtless there must be the arbitrary age limits set, at least until we admit the general application of the parole principle. But if the experience of the probation officer with families goes for anything, it justifies the wisdom of paroling adults. While it is well to insist upon the separa-

tion of the child from the adult evil-doer, we shall only find ourselves involved in a maze of feeble sentimentality if we ignore the precocity of criminal tendencies and the early maturing of certain forms of criminality. The first-rate pickpocket must be young, slender, agile. The abnormal child with criminal taint has the callous of long experience. On the other hand, many an under-developed neglected lad of eighteen or twenty has as much right to the chance offered by probation as have the younger children.

The probation officer is necessarily familiar with the operation of the various laws for children, the child labor law, the compulsory education law with its provision of the truant school, the juvenile court law itself; and if there be failure or lack of correlation, he is keenly aware of it. Especially in Chicago the need of adequate regulation of newsboys and other street-trading children is apparent to the probation officer. For instance, in a certain district the probation officer chances to know of three boys not at home for seven days; they have slept in some one of the various "newspaper alleys." A police officer, when appealed to, says: "O, I know the boys are there, but if I arrest 'em and take 'em to the station, some one comes from the office of the paper and says: 'I know that boy. He's selling papers for us—waiting for extras.'" Such conditions destructive to mind and body suggest some of the reasons why the John Worthy School boys are, on an average, five years below grade, and why in every physical test, they are many points below the average schoolboy. A little paroled lad gave the list of his recent "places" the other day. He had worked in a tailor's shop, printing shop (as errand boy), telegraph office, candy factory and bakery—all in twelve months, never more than sixty days in any one situation, leaving if he was "put out by the boss," or if he "got mad." He had learned a certain sharpness, and that familiarity with the seamy side of the town which had nearly undone him. He was typical, pert, charming, quite undisciplined by school, or work, or home. In fact, at whatever point one considers the history of the paroled boy, an overwhelming array of problems is presented. They run a long

gamut from the question why more than seventy-five per cent of paroled children live in rear tenements, to the most obscure aspects of criminal psychology.

If one were to undertake to sum up personal impressions of the development of the probation system, as exemplified in Chicago, it might be said that it is too soon to begin to muddle our minds with superficial statistics of results. We can hold fast to the sound principle which substitutes human interest and preserving care over individuals, for the costly and unproductive system of fine and imprisonment. A generation hence may be able to trace a line of genuine constructive effectiveness. In detail, perhaps, the mechanism could be strengthened by such means as the following:

1. The enforcing of the doctrine of adult responsibility.
2. The assumption by the proper civic unit of the cost and control of all the officers of the court and of the detention home; always with adequate guaranty against political interference.
3. Extension of the age under which cases could be considered.
4. Formal discharges by the court when justified.
5. The provision of a fund by private benevolence to board out children, temporarily, under probation officers, and to supplement in other ways the officers' efforts when required.

There is no talent too choice to be utilized in the probation system. Officers need vigorous and healthy minds, and quick perception, exquisite tact, eternal patience, gentleness and firmness. They need, too, cultivated and refined tastes, not only that they may express a fine standard of personal behavior, but also that they may have every possible resource within themselves to relieve the daily discouragements of their work. Thus far the work has attracted many persons of this high type. To see to it that by better financial rewards and the stability of the service, the position of the probation officer shall increasingly invite the finest ability, devotion, and training, is the duty of that intelligent public which cannot personally undertake this new branch of public service.



"SNITCHING BEE."

The Boy and The Court

THE COLORADO LAW AND ITS ADMINISTRATION

Ben B. Lindsey

Denver

Of course the law is important. The administrative work cannot well be done without the law. Yet because the administrative work of any juvenile court is so much more important than the law, I shall speak of that first.

Such work must depend largely upon the qualifications and interest of the officers as well as upon the peculiar problems of a particular city. Again, different workers, equally earnest in the cause of the children, may differ as to ways and methods. The vital thing is the relations established with the child. The case from the boy's standpoint must be understood. There was Morris who wanted "an injunction against de cop."¹ He had been ordered off a certain corner where he sold papers; because he was "hopping cars," and to get it ventured into the court in the midst of an important civil suit. From the boy's standpoint he saw nothing but injustice in a procedure which deprived him of half of his earnings in order to satisfy a city ordinance. The justice he sought was no greater than

his compliment to the court. To him it was a place of justice, not a place of fear. He feared the policeman and therefore despised him—before we set him right. If no one heeded the boy and the policeman was (to him) the law and the state, how long before he would despise both. The criminal court for child offenders is based on the doctrine of fear, degradation, and punishment. It was, and is, absurd. The juvenile court rests upon the principle of love. Of course there is firmness and justice, for without this there would be danger in leniency. But there is no justice without love. We want neither brutality and hate on the one hand, nor leniency and weakness on the other.

Certain boys in a bad neighborhood were repeatedly stoning the policeman because he repeatedly ordered them off the lawn of the Union depot, when the "keep off the grass" sign had failed of its terrors. They had been forbidden also to sell papers in the building. Two of the gang were arrested. I enlisted their services in behalf of the court to round up the others who were "in it" but had not been caught. These two in great triumph brought the twenty-four other culprits to my chambers upon a certain night agreed upon between us. How did we do it? By interesting them and getting them into the game of correction. Some of the most successful and effectual work may be done this way. The policeman was invited to be present. He was not a little chagrined to find that his two prisoners had captured the twenty-four additional ones, who had successfully eluded him and the several other officers of the force who had

¹ Such a writ was indeed issued by Judge Lindsey, who called a fifteen-minute recess for the purpose of hearing the boy's case. In the body of the writ, he wrote a note to the officer explaining who the boy was and stating that if he could permit him to go on the cars when not in motion, without violation of the police ordinances, he should be glad. The result was that the boy's confidence was won for the court, and obedience secured from a quarter where it had been long denied to others. The story has been retold many times, the Denver versions, in order that there could be no bad effect upon local boys, many of whom were addicted to "hopping cars," omitting that feature of the incident. This modification was consented to by Judge Lindsey rather reluctantly, and led to the discrediting of the story in certain quarters. The real point was not whether the policeman ordered the boy from off the corner or off the cars. Some were fearful that the treatment of the case would produce lawlessness rather than obedience and respect for the policeman and the law. The results, on the contrary, were a friendly feeling established between the boy and the officer, and the results with the boy have been very satisfactory.—Ed.

been detailed to stop the lawlessness. The twenty-six boys were lined up on one side of the room and the policeman and his friends on the other. I then proceeded to explain why it was that the owners of the station had a right to grant "concessions" to the men who employed the boys with the red caps, to sell papers and carry baggage to the exclusion of others; also why, if they demanded it, they had a right to protection for their lawn; how all of this was justified by the law, which secured the protection of the rights of every man in the enjoyment of his property; how it was not the officer's doings, but the law that required him to perform this duty; how, therefore, they had no real grievance against the policeman—rather their sympathies should be with him. After the sympathetic admission by both the officer and the court that if it were our station and grounds all boys could play on the grass and sell papers there, there was gained for the policeman the sympathy and loyalty of most of them. As "little citizens" interested in a "decent town of decent kids," they agreed not only to "keep off" and "keep out" themselves, but to keep other boys out; and every one agreed "on the square" that he would give any "kid" there leave to "snitch" (tell) to me if any boy broke his word and was not "square." Therefore if any boy did "snitch," no one of them would have a right to say: "You dirty little snitch, you ought to have your face smashed," and with such malediction be forever outlawed from the gang. Thus harmony was effected between their world and ours and we all pulled together one way.

Of course that hour of kindly understanding of things, theretofore vague and undefinable to these street boys, stopped the trouble, and I believe most of them would "lick the kid who would trow us down." Interest is everything in a boy's life. If you want his loyalty excite his interest.

*How the Boys
Enforce the
Law.*

These boys in the juvenile court of Denver in one year did more to enforce our most important laws—those for the protection of the city's youth—such as forbidding the sale to them of dangerous fire-arms, cigarettes, liquor, to-

bacco, immoral literature, and the entering of immoral places, than the police department of Denver has done in ten or even twenty years. And our policemen are better in this respect than those of most cities. The boys prosecuted the offenders in the juvenile court. They did it "on the square," as "little citizens," and without anything offensive in the way of detective work. We owe it to the boys in the juvenile court that a boy almost takes his life in his hands to ask anywhere in Denver to buy "a nickel's worth of cigarettes." All of this, to be sure, is by wise direction of the probation officers and the court in its "administrative work."

When a boy on probation must be sent to the State Industrial School, he is (with very few exceptions, generally because of infancy and exceptional irresponsibility) given his own papers of commitment, and sent alone without surveillance or any promise of reward. During the last year all but three or four of some thirty boys were committed this way. Not one has ever failed to go who was thus trusted. When we started the plan something over a year ago, some officers said in the public press that it was a "crazy notion" and could never be carried out. Of course the purpose is to retain the friendship of the boy for the state, to make him feel that the state is trying to make a man of him and not a criminal, which is the true principle of a juvenile court. Among the boys sent—the trip involves a change of cars—were some chronic little runaways and street "swipers" from ten years old up, others whom officers had captured by force, and still others about sixteen years of age who had been shackled when taken from one jail to another for fear by the police that, because of their supposedly desperate character, they would escape. We have sent some boys, also, to the detention house alone.

*The Boy and
the
Delinquency.*

In the juvenile court we are dealing with human beings at the most important period of their lives—between ten and sixteen—when character is forming and impressions are easiest made for good or evil. The measure of success depends necessarily upon the ability and

interest of the probation officers and court, and be sure with the best of officers there will be some failure; but the jail and criminal court produced more failures. We should make it our business to study and know each particular case, because it will generally demand treatment in some little respect different from any other case. We cannot afford to have any rules that cannot be dispensed with.

This should be borne in mind in connection with our consideration and classification of boys along such lines as these:

1. School boys or working boys.

2. Average boys or difficult boys.

3. (a) Is the child simply mischievous or criminal in its tendencies? (b) Is the case simply an exceptional or isolated instance in which a really good boy or girl has gone wrong for the first time because too weak to resist a strong temptation? (c) Is the child a victim of incompetent parents? Does the home or parent need correction or assistance? (d) What of environment and association, which, of course, may embrace substantially all of the points of special study? How can the environment be improved? Certainly by keeping the child out of the saloon and away from evil examples. (e) Is the child afflicted with what we call "the moving about fever?"—that is, is he given to playing "hookey" from school, or "bumming" and running away, showing an entire lack of ambition or desire to work and settle down to regular habits?

4. If the case is one of a gang or a number of boys doing the same thing, and our subject is the only one "caught," we must get all the others and especially so in mischievous cases like throwing at cars, blocking switches, wiring trolley line signal boxes, or stealing from back porches. Such cases have been known to grow from four caught to forty-four "rounded up" by the boys caught. The boys caught never tell on the others; they are taught to persuade the others to come to us voluntarily for their own good and to help the court. If a few begin to come, as they will if unafraid, all the balance will insist on coming. Too often boys (in the city especially) fear to get caught—not to do wrong. We try to reverse

this and thus generally succeed in stopping the entire trouble. The same "interest" that made the gang lawless will now make them lawful.

5. We insist on knowing the boy (unless it is a "mischievous case" of no great importance) from his heart to his skin, and from his skin back to his heart again. We must know his habits, his home life, not only for the present, but what it has been for years back. If he has been in the saloon or evil places or smokes cigarettes we learn the man or woman who sent him to such places or permitted him to enter them, or sold him harmful things. They must be brought in for contributing to his delinquency. We must, in short, study and know the child just as the skilled physician would study his patient before he prescribes. It may take hours to do this. We keep some cases with us from six months to three years or even longer on probation, depending largely as to time on the home, the particular child, and the environment. A twelve-year-old fatherless son of a poor mother who works all day may stay with us a long time, especially if he lives in a bad neighborhood.

*The Boy
and the Judge.*

The judge of the juvenile court, because of his very position rather than because of his personality, if he but shows the right kind of disposition and interest, has the advantage of the probation officer in personal work, especially with the boy. It is for this reason, and because it is to me a study and pleasure of constant interest, that I delight in knowing all of these boys, and becoming, to a certain extent, very companionable with them. It has not been in the court room that I have learned most, but around my table in chambers, or in long walks in the city with some of the boys. Such work teaches a man or woman as much as it does the children. It makes them broader, wiser, and better. I feel under obligations to the "bad (?) kids" for the privilege of working for them and with them, and I thank them for all they have done for the court and the state. It is a work intensely human and full of interesting experiences, stories, and lessons for life, the delight in the telling of which

is unfortunately marred by the fact that you must necessarily speak of yourself and your own work, which is sometimes difficult without being offensive, no matter how unintentional it may be. These stories of the juvenile court afford after all the best insight into the character, method and results of its administrative work. I hope some day to tell them, and in the telling there will also appear the failures, the disappointments, the faults and mistakes that come to all of us in any good work. The test of success is: Is it better than the old criminal court system?—not how many children it corrects or fails to correct.

*The Boy and
the Probation
Officer.*

Our probation system has substantially the good there is in the children's institution and at the same time avoids some of its difficulties (rather than evils). We retain the child in his home and his school, and yet have much the same surveillance over him. For instance, all schoolboys in our court report every other Saturday. The "report" consists of a card from the teacher stating conduct and school attendance. If the boy fails to return to school, he knows that the principal has been supplied with the list of probationers, that the fact will be immediately telephoned to the clerk at the desk in the probation office, and that a paid probation officer will be after him. That desk is in constant telephonic communication with every school in the city and every employer of boys on probation.

Further, there is the "Saturday morning talk" to the boys on a topic of interest to them and intended to help in the building of a strong character, to help to know the right and to do it because it is right; to be strong enough to resist the wrong, not because you will get in jail if you don't, but because it is wrong. Then there are the rain baths, into which we can crowd thirty or forty shouting youngsters at a time, while to their great delight the warm showers come down in torrents. Boys who need it must take soap and water, for cleanliness is insisted upon. There is the juvenile literature, current numbers for all, of *The American Boy*, *Success* and others, to take the place of the "two for a centers" (or dime) novel.

There is cheer and joy for the boy who has a "good" report, as ninety per cent generally have, and sorrow at being "thrown down" by the fellow who can't very well be "square" with a "poor" report, which really, as a rule, only means "whispering in school." Thus is inculcated the motto of the court, "Overcome evil with good"—not with jail or the strap or with degradation. If the boy is reported "poor" he is encouraged to make it "good" next time. If he "comes through the mill" poor again he is placed on the "five o'clock docket," which means that he must see the judge alone in chambers when he comes from the bench at the end of the day's session of the civil court. His school and home life and how he regards his parents and teacher are then brought out. It may be the judge can correct many wrong impressions or make a successful appeal to his sense of loyalty and responsibility. Such an interview has been the turning point with many boys and the beginning of some of the strongest friendships I have had. It may be that the result is that the boy is sent to one of the staff of court physicians—all eminent specialists—and weak eyes, or secret habits, or a forgotten case of epilepsy in childhood, partly recurring, are placed under treatment which may produce reform. If there is inexcusable conduct or disobedience, or failure to report, he may be sent to the detention school and "kept in" all day Saturday and Sunday, or even a week or more. He is here simply put at his studies, exactly as in the grammar school, except that he is not allowed to go out and play. Thus "detention," the only good effect of a jail, is accomplished, while the child is at the same time protected and under uplifting influences. No boy is told he is bad. He did something that was bad, the consequence of which hurt him the most. We despise the evil he did; but we love him. There is firmness, of course, but the firmness (attempted, at least) that commands respect and not hate. Only those cases that cannot be handled in the home, and where the home responsibilities cannot be enforced by the adult delinquent law, are therefore given over entirely to the care of the state and committed.



SUMMER IN A DENVER BACKYARD.

The type of boys who get to the juvenile court. They have rigged up an elevated railway, but it is to be feared their imagination and energies will not rest there.

If the criminal courts and officers thereof would do half so much to recover the boys as they do to recover the property the boys steal, they would do ten times as much to suppress and prevent crime.

The saving in expense to the state by this system for four years in the city of Denver alone, by forcing the home to care for its own and relieving the state, has been over \$250,000, by conservative estimates, and according to that made by the governor to the last legislature two years ago. It not only pays in saving dollars, but more than this, in the saving of character and the citizenship of tomorrow, for ninety-five per cent of our delinquents during this time were corrected without the necessity of any commitment.

*The Boy
and the Law.*

No juvenile court system can be complete unless there is back of it a compulsory school law, a child labor law, an adult delinquent law, and a detention school in place of the jail. These will not all come at once. Let the fight go on in every state until they do come. The gaining of one only emphasizes the necessity of the

others. In Colorado, children under fourteen years of age must be in school the entire year from September to June. They cannot work in any dangerous occupation, and the juvenile court is the judge of what is dangerous. It has a staff of physicians, and the factory inspectors prosecute all their cases before it. Between the ages of fourteen and sixteen a permit may be granted by the juvenile court to work over eight hours if employment is not dangerous. The Humane Society, which is also the society for the prevention of cruelty to children, sees to it that the law is complied with. There are some "exceptions" in both the school law and child labor law, which makes it sane and elastic.

Except in very large cities, I consider it a mistake to provide for a separate court for the trial of children's cases only, and even in such cases the court should be one of general common-law jurisdiction. In the average community a court already established, having unlimited and unquestioned jurisdiction, should be designated as the juvenile or children's court, and separate days set apart for



THE GANG UNDER RIGHT INFLUENCES.

Boys from the Denver juvenile court in the beet fields. Work alternates with fun in their summer camps.

such business. If the work is too much increased thereby, let an additional judge be provided for; but generally this will not be necessary, especially where paid probation officers are provided for. The system here described would be difficult without paid officers, vested as they are by law with all the power of policemen. Since our present system has been in operation we have had little need for voluntary probation officers. With the exception of the addition of three paid probation officers and the establishment of a detention school in place of a jail, the new laws have not in any manner changed the administrative work of the juvenile court of Denver so far as the children are concerned. Our juvenile laws formerly consisted principally of the law providing for the special care of children offenders and their treatment different from adult criminals; an industrial school law of 1882 and 1889, a school law passed in 1889, first permitting parents to be fined for the truancy of their children, and the law of April 12, 1899, (passed about the same time and becoming effective about two months be-

fore the Illinois juvenile law), permitting children offenders between the ages of eight and sixteen years to be charged as "juvenile disorderly persons" instead of being charged with crime for their correction. By sections 4 and 7 of this law, 1899, the county court was made the juvenile court. A paid probation officer was first provided for in 1901. Statutes relating to dependent and neglected children were passed in 1895.

In the winter of 1903 there was passed "An act concerning delinquent children," being, as in the case of Illinois, a compilation of all these laws and embracing the features of that of 1899 concerning "juvenile disorderly persons." The excellent law drafted by Judge Hurd, of Chicago, was used as a model with a number of important additions to the definition of delinquency, and with provision for paid probation officers. The compulsory school law, including that of April 12, 1899, relating to "juvenile disorderly persons" was also amended.

The most substantial change in 1903 was the addition of the "adult delinquent

law" not then existing in any state, which is as follows:

SEC. 1. In all cases where any child shall be a delinquent child or a juvenile delinquent person, as defined by the statute of this state, *the parent or parents*, legal guardian or person having custody of such child, or *any other person*, responsible for or by any act encouraging, causing or contributing to the delinquency of such child shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon trial and conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not to exceed one thousand dollars (\$1,000) or imprisoned in the county jail for a period not exceeding one (1) year, or by both such fine and imprisonment. The court may impose conditions upon any person found guilty under this act, and so long as such person shall comply therewith to the satisfaction of the court the sentence imposed may be suspended.

Under the old law we could bring parents to court with the child for a mere reprimand, but we had no power to impose or enforce any sentence against them. Under the present juvenile laws of Colorado, aided by the adult delinquent law, we can and do bring parents with the child, often making the charge against the parent rather than the child. For instance, in a recent case, a certain father had neglected his boy, knowingly letting him go to a saloon without forbidding it; in fact, encouraging it. This boy often saw men in the saloon drinking, swearing, gambling, and using obscene language. Example is everything in a child's life. In this case the father was sentenced to thirty days in the county jail for contributing to the delinquency of his boy. The conditions imposed were that he spend three days in the county jail, and the rest of the sentence was suspended on condition that the boy be kept out of the saloon, stay at home nights, and go to school regularly. The father went to jail Saturday night and was let out Monday morning, a sadder but wiser man. The effect was just as good as three months in jail. Not only did this boy cease to visit saloons, but the children of other families ceased to do the same thing. The one example had a salutary effect in an entire section of the city. We have often fined fathers and mothers \$25 and costs for various delinquencies of their children. A frequent instance is where children

are on the railroad tracks stealing coal or in the box cars stealing fruit, jeopardizing not only their lives and limbs but their morals as well. It is a short step from stealing coal to breaking into box cars. Then comes the corner grocery, and finally "tapping the till." Before the situation reaches the acute stage we have imposed a fine of \$25 and costs upon the parents. Sometimes we suspend the fine on condition that the child is never again reported by the officer for repeating the offense. Only about two out of one hundred children thus dealt with are brought back for a repetition of the offense. We may insist that \$5 of the fine be paid and the balance remitted on the same conditions. The law is elastic, and there is plenty of opportunity for tact and good judgment which must be used if success is to be attained. We have always in mind the interests of the children, of the parents and of the home. Sentences have been imposed and jail sentences actually served under this law. There has not been a single exception to the judgment of the court or an appeal so far. Several business men of some means have been made to serve as much as fifteen days in jail for selling five cents' worth of cigarettes to boys. I remember the standing of one of these men was such that it seemed to me half the business men in town were after me to release him, but their requests had to be denied.

*The Colorado
Juvenile Court
in a Nutshell.*

It is impossible in the space allotted to tell all the details of the Colorado law and its administration.¹

Many boys are sent to the sugar beet fields from June to September in camps of about fifteen youngsters to one probation officer and a cook, and most of them do well. There is an employment bureau and a "needy children relieved" department. We have the Juvenile Improvement Association, conducting several boys' clubs, and the summer camps and work in the country. The Newsboys' Association and the City Alliance of Workers with Boys all meet at the juvenile court room. We believe we have less serious offenses and troubles among

¹ I have not referred to girls. They are not neglected, but their case is generally so different that the subject requires a special paper.

juveniles than in any other city in America.

It must be understood then that by the juvenile court system of Colorado is meant a number of things,—to wit:

1. The act concerning delinquent children.
2. The act concerning dependent children.
3. The act holding parents and others responsible for the moral delinquency of children.
4. The act holding fathers legally responsible for the physical support, care, and maintenance of children.
5. The compulsory education law.
6. The child labor law.
7. The various statutes providing for the punishment of cruelty to children.

8. That co-operation between schools and officials, whereby all of these laws for the protection of the children of the state are enforced in one court having a complete and unlimited jurisdiction to deal with every aspect of the situation before one judge, with a set of earnest and efficient paid officers for the enforcement of the laws. This court is called the "juvenile court."

9. The active and persistent enforcement of these laws.

10. The administrative work of the court with the boys and girls as well as for them and their work and co-operation with the court.¹

¹ See note on "The Problem of the Children and How the State of Colorado Cares for Them" in the Department, "Among Prints and Publications." The full text of all these laws may be had from the Secretary of State at Denver, Colorado.



The Work of the Probation Officer Among Children

Lucy F. Friday

Baltimore

The probation system with its personal element is the power-house of the juvenile court, and from its dynamos, which are the human hearts of its workers, run the currents which waken dormant powers into activity, and dispel the darkness of discouragement, indifference, and degradation. The judge can give the boy a chance, but the probation officer must teach him how to use it and see to it that nobody prevents him from using it.

The juvenile court of Baltimore has three paid probation officers, one of whom has exclusive charge of the Hebrew children. The court is in session for two hours every afternoon, except Sunday, and all the probation officers are expected to be present at every session. There is thus constant opportunity for consultation. The probation officers' duties in the court room

are varied. He reports to the judge on cases which have been assigned to him for investigation, and when these cases are heard he is called to the witness stand to give testimony. When a case is to be paroled, he is summoned before the judge and the child is placed in his care in the presence of the plaintiff, witnesses and parents. Before the parents and the child leave the court room he takes them separately or in a group, as circumstances may require, into a private consultation room and explains the meaning and aim of the parole. It often happens that here, convinced that there is no sword hanging over his head and won by kind and encouraging words, the child for the first time tells the truth about the offense for which he has been arrested. During the sessions the probation officer also hears

complaints of irate citizens who demand warrants for mischievous boys for trivial, but often annoying, misdemeanors. Usually no warrant is issued until after an investigation has been made, and a visit or two at the home of the offender frequently results in a settlement out of court. Applications from parents for the commitment of their children on the charge of incorrigibility are heard. These cases are investigated before action is taken with the result that the number of commitments has been greatly reduced.

Probationers come to report, to be released at the expiration of their paroles, or to have the period of probation extended: children, both probationers and those who have been released, bring books to be exchanged, seek advice in some difficulty, or, best of all, come just "because"; parents ask for a few moments to consult about an emergency or to beg help in finding employment; employers call to secure the services of the boys and girls in their homes and places of business, or to inquire about the record of a discharged probationer who has applied for a position; in a word, the probation officer must be ready with wise head, sympathetic heart, quick judgment and unwearied patience to be detective, attorney, friend, adviser, and manager of a general information bureau for two hours every day. The remainder of the day is spent in attending to the cases assigned for investigation, visiting the homes of the probationers, looking for employment, consulting with teachers, ministers, physicians, relatives and neighbors, in seeking, gathering together and putting into available form the various materials for the construction of the foundation on which the child and the parents must build after the probation officer's guiding hand has been removed.

It is easily seen that, although the law deals with the child, it is the parents who are often the real probationers. The center of the probation officer's work is the home. It is here that he meets his most baffling and discouraging problems, but it is here also that he most often finds the causes of the child's waywardness, and these must be altered, removed, and replaced by better conditions and new ideals, if he would look for permanent

results from his work. From the home, as the center the probation officer's field extends in all directions. He seeks assistance from agencies already existing, like playgrounds, home and public libraries, clubs, mothers' meetings, etc.; he co-operates with the settlement, the charity organization, the minister, the truant officer; he helps in the search for work, he makes the acquaintance of the gang, and learns their vernacular and their games; in a word he seeks to understand the point of view, to share the experiences and to help solve the problems of the daily life of his families.¹

The results cannot be calculated in figures, nor tabulated in statistics.² They are shown in more regular attendance in school and church, in increased cleanliness, in smaller expenditures in the saloon and more abundant comforts in the home, in reunited families, in aroused ambitions, in awakened consciences, in clearer perception of duty and firmer purpose to perform it, in restraint of passion and in purer lives.

The Work Done for One Boy. On March 11, 1903, Edward, a boy of 14, was arrested for habitually begging on the streets. There was much evidence against the boy, but the parents, a mother and step-father, stated that they did not know he had been begging and promised to see that he stopped it. With a stern warning the case was dismissed.

On April 17, about a month later, Edward again appeared in court, charged with disorderly conduct. With a crowd of newsboys he had been standing at the door of one of the cheap theatres making remarks about the patrons of the place as they entered. This case was also dismissed after the judge had taken the boys into his private room and talked to them.

In June, 1903, Edward was arrested for turning in a false fire-alarm. This was a serious matter and, as there had been several offences of the same kind in

¹ The Cleveland court has organized an employment agency. In Indianapolis the juvenile court officers have arranged for a summer camp on a large seed farm. Some of the courts have boys' clubs, and Baltimore has a juvenile court library, which has proved valuable. Talks about books are effective means of revealing the real child and of cementing friendships.

² As indicative of the success of the work in so far as it can be measured from the records of the cases, it may be pointed out that of 303 children who had been on probation in Baltimore up to March 1, 1904, only 23, or about 9 per cent, had been returned after the expiration of their paroles.

various parts of the city, it was decided to send the case to the criminal court. The boy was found guilty. The penalty is: "Fine \$300 to \$500, or imprisonment in the House of Correction, House of Refuge or jail, not exceeding twelve months, or both." The judge suspended sentence, paroling the boy for twelve months.

The probation officer began by investigating the home conditions. Not all at once, but gradually, the following facts were ascertained: The mother is a niece of one of Pennsylvania's most honored public men; the man whom she calls her husband is a gambler and has been proprietor of a low saloon; she has sunk to his level; her eldest son has recently served a term in the Maryland penitentiary; the son just older than Edward has been in jail; Edward's younger brother has been arrested five times; Edward was sent out to beg by his mother; as he had excellent command of his tear ducts and was a good actor, he often took in \$1.50 per day; he could not read and could write his name only with difficulty.

The probation officer placed Edward in school at once. The first two weeks were a time of severe trial to the boy. Although fourteen, he had to be placed in the first grade with the beginners, which was mortifying. The confinement and the necessity for consecutive mental effort caused him real suffering. He was really ill for two days, but little by little the more regular habits of life began to tell, and he became interested in his work. As soon as arrangements could be made, he was placed with a married sister with whom he has a good home.

The parole began September 15, 1903. By June, 1904, at the end of one school year, he had passed from the first to the fourth grade, and not one complaint for bad conduct or neglect of lessons had been entered against him. On September 15, 1904, when the time came for his release, to the astonishment of the judge, Edward, of his own accord, asked that his parole might be extended one year longer, as he wanted protection in case his mother should try to force him to return home.

Twelve months of steady progress in mental and moral development; trans-

ferred from a home of poverty and vice to one of comfort and purity; facing the future with awakened ambition and a spirit of independence, is his history under the probation system.

Not many months ago, a little boy between nine and ten years of age was accused of stealing a watch and chain. He had never been known to take anything before and he denied the charge; but as he had been in the room where the watch was, he was arrested by the police and taken to the station-house. As his skin was black, he was not placed in the room provided for children, but in a cell next to one occupied by a woman who raved all night in a drunken frenzy. Faint with terror and hunger, for the well-fed matron had not thought it necessary to give him any breakfast, he was questioned the next morning by a detective and a police officer, with rough words and threats, and he told more lies about what he had done with the watch than the blue-coated enforcers of the law could remember when they stood on the witness stand in the children's court a little later. There sentence was suspended and the boy was paroled. In a few days it was discovered that a boarder in the house, who had come there shortly before the disappearance of the watch, was "wanted" in Washington. The real thief was found and the child proved innocent. One day the probation officer said to him: "Georgie, why did you tell the officers all those lies about what you had done with the watch?" "Cause I was scairt," said the child.

"Do you hear the children weeping and disproving,
O my brothers, what ye preach?
For God's possible is taught by His world's loving
And the children doubt of each."

We have learned to isolate patients suffering with contagious diseases, but in the police-station and the court room, we allow children to become morally contaminated by contact with degraded criminals and then we try to cure them by a course of hospital treatment in a reformatory or jail. Is it any wonder that our penal institutions are full to overflowing? "Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles?"

Pioneer Work in American Philanthropy

A Series of Reminiscences by Frontiersmen in Some of the Larger
Humanitarian Movements in This Country

Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES.



CLARA TEMPLE LEONARD.



ELIZABETH C. PUTNAM.



ADELAIDE A. CALKINS.

II.

Massachusetts State Care of Children

Elizabeth C. Putnam

Boston

The able and interesting paper contributed to CHARITIES by Mr. Sanborn¹ gives the early history of the work of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity, established in 1863 at the instance of Governor John A. Andrew, and inspired by the wise counsels of Dr. Samuel G. Howe. In the following pages I shall endeavor to show by what means and to what extent Dr. Howe's far-seeing policy, which was founded on a rare understanding of human nature, has been carried into effect in Massachusetts.

The State Reform School for Boys was established at Westborough in 1848, and the State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster in 1856. Later the State Primary School was established in the buildings of the State Almshouse at Monson with the intention of freeing the children of aliens and state paupers from the taint and stigma of pauperism.

My first acquaintance with the state's work came about through the commitment, in 1874 or 1875, of a very troublesome child, Amelia by name, from a small

¹ *The First State Boards of Charities.* Sanborn, F. B. CHARITIES, November 5, 1904.

private industrial school to the custody of the state board. Having resolved to learn what had become of my affectionate little scapegrace, I made my way from the Palmer station to the State Primary School, and was consigned by the chaplain to the hospitality of the officers in whose dining-room I learned more of the ways of the place than I could have done in half a dozen visits to the superintendent's quarters.

I had been accustomed to a carefully managed private institution, and it was with a heavy heart that I left the State Primary School that day, resolved to follow still further the fate of the little girl who, as I had just been informed, "had been whipped almost every other day" during the year of her stay there, and had just been placed-out in some family.

On the margin of a report I noted five complaints, among which I well remember the bare over-crowded playgrounds; the weak-eyed children mingling with the others; the weak, watery chowder; and the short allowance of twenty minutes for even the nursery children to spend on

their noon meal. The general impression made by that swarm of 450 or 500 children whose average age was under eight years, was that no one child could possibly be treated as an individual; and this impression has been confirmed by one of those former inmates from whom I have since heard of even worse conditions than those which were apparent that summer day.

My next quest was made by climbing the high front steps of the State House and then down again into its basement, to look for somebody who could give me news of Amelia. I was well repaid by finding in his office Colonel Gardiner Tufts who, after ten years' work for the soldiers during the war, had chosen, of two positions offered him by the governor, that which would bring him into helpful relations with children. The Visiting Agency had already been initiated by the Board of State Charities, in order to discover what had become of children placed or indentured from the state almshouses and the State Primary School, and also to report upon boys placed out from the State Reform School. Colonel Tufts, appointed by the governor to the superintendency of the Visiting Agency, had brought into it fresh zest and energy, developing its work by attendance by state agents at trials of juveniles and by probation work, until it received international recognition as the "Massachusetts system of dealing with juvenile offenders." In reporting to Colonel Tufts

about my troublesome Amelia, whom I had taken on indenture, I was invited to take charge of another girl, just approaching her majority, with no known relatives to whom she could turn for protection. The office was found to be a most interesting bureau, with its succession of state wards coming in from the schools or from their places, and I was soon allowed to enlist the help of some of my friends in their behalf. In 1878 Colonel Tufts referred to this very informal attempt to bring the volunteer aid of women to the executive work of the state department as having proved "practical, systematic and effective." The story is told of a German farmer who, when asked how he got the roots out of his rough

ground, answered, "Ve makes it mit Vimmens!" In the report for 1888 of the Board of State Charities, of which Dr. Howe was chairman, we find on page 40 this recommendation: "Next in importance to enlisting the largest possible number of normal families to deal with the vicious and dependent children of the state, is that of enlisting the greatest possible number of women." Our modest efforts, thus brought to the notice of those who had been friends and co-workers of Dr. Howe, were recognized as being in pursuance of his far-seeing counsels, and were mentioned to those in authority perhaps as a possible instrument for carrying out some other of Dr. Howe's projects which, with the exception of the boarding out of state babies under the charge of the Massachusetts Infant Asylum, had lain dormant for ten years or more.

In 1877 the Reformatory Prison for Women, which had been recommended in 1866 by Dr. Howe, had been established through the persistent energy of Miss Chickering, Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, and others. In 1877 Mrs. Johnson accepted the appointment by the governor to be superintendent of the prison and was able to carry out her cherished plans for her prisoners. Mrs. Johnson held this position, with its arduous duties, until her death.

The defects of the State Primary School had been brought to the attention of the legislature, and in 1877 a most effective group of women had been appointed an Advisory Board to report to the Board of State Charities upon the three state schools, the almshouse, and the workhouse. The first appointees were Mrs. Robert C. Winthrop of Boston, Mrs. Adelaide A. Calkins of Springfield, and Miss Georgiana A. Boutwell of Groton. Their first report, presented in October, 1877, called especial attention to the State Primary School with its 520 inmates, of whom the crippled, epileptic, feeble-minded and otherwise defective boys and girls, were thrown together with the rest of school age, without classification, under the direction of one man except during school hours, with but one watchman during the night, and no woman to attend to their personal needs. At sixteen years of age, these boys

and girls were transferred to the adult department, in intimate association with the pauper help. Of these children 114 had been three years in the institution, and sixty-nine were in the hospital, mostly with sore eyes and with only pauper attendance, with the sole exception of the girls' nurse. The last of the Advisory Board's reports was made in June, 1879. Then came the abolition of all the state charities and hospital boards, and the grouping of the three state schools under one board, and of the State Hospital and Workhouse under another, the Visiting Agency alone being constituted a subordinate department of the new Central Board of Health, Lunacy and Charity. The work of that board, except for transfer of paupers and other minor duties, had up to that time been strictly supervisory since then it has become largely executive, there being 3,000 to 4,000 children in its direct custody. Over this work there is no outside independent supervision.

The Up-hill Work of the Advisory Board of Women. Out of the hard, up-hill work of the Advisory Board of Women there had been evolved a higher standard, physical and moral, for the state institutions. In 1879 Mrs. Calkins and Mrs. Anne B. Richardson of Lowell, who had already served on the advisory board of the State Industrial School, were appointed members of the board of trustees of the State Primary and Reform School. Mrs. Clara T. Leonard of Springfield had become an active member of the State Board of Health, Lunacy and Charity. The state board, at the suggestion of S. C. Wrightington (who had in charge the department of visitation of the state minor wards), consented to appoint some of the women, whose services had already been recognized by Colonel Tufts, to be auxiliary visitors under the direction of the state board to visit and to make report to that board concerning the girls and younger boys. Mrs. Leonard, Mrs. Calkins, Mrs. Richardson, Miss Annette P. Rogers, and I met at the State House in October, 1879, to confer with Mr. Wrightington as to a plan of campaign, and in February, 1880, after many journeys about the state and much correspondence, fifty women had been induced to enter

this new field of work, in which the state agents who attended all court cases and visited all the boys had before been the only regular visitors for the girls in the state's care.

The auxiliary visitors, whose traveling expenses were allowed, were invited to meet three times each year; one meeting being held at the State Primary School, where their coming made an epoch in the lives of many of the little waifs, some of whom had been born in that institution, and when placed-out in the world sadly needed just such care as these visitors could give them. For the girls from the State Industrial School, with whom Mr. Wrightington had found it most difficult to cope, the auxiliary visitors were able to render efficient service.

Mrs. Leonard had thrown herself heart and soul into the plan for enlistment of women as auxiliary visitors, and she now turned her special attention to boarding out from the State Primary School the little children, whom she often personally conducted in a buggy to be left with some motherly woman in the Connecticut valley. Earnestly she warned the visitors not to insist too much upon cleanliness, but to find the kind of woman who would take a child right into her heart and make it love her. The trustees of the State Primary and Reform School had appointed Colonel Gardiner Tufts to be superintendent of the State Primary School, where he became known as the "children's friend." He let these children cling about his knees as he walked through the yard; and through his zeal and persistence, many much-needed improvements were carried into effect.

The Beginnings of the Lyman School for Boys. In the summer of 1880 I was appointed to succeed Mrs. Calkins, who had just resigned from the board of trustees of these three state schools. It was then that I began my acquaintance with the State Reform School of which I had heard so much. The beautiful grounds sloping down towards Chauncey Lake and the superintendent's dining-room were a pleasant surprise, which only emphasized the painful contrast when we looked (through a peep-hole) into the boys' quarters, with their narrow cells, tier above tier, opening not out of doors

but onto a corridor; while in the yard which was enclosed by buildings and high walls, the boys, too numerous to play games freely, were pacing round and round. In the original building which happily escaped the fire of 1861, the boys' rooms were square with windows opening out of doors; but this new part had been built when it was decided to receive boys up to seventeen years of age, and they were often in a state of mutiny, sweeping their dishes off the table, and then were punished by imprisonment in a strong room or in stronger cells in the basement. To get rid of the older boys, and thus to restore the school to the conditions so earnestly recommended by its generous donor, Mr. Lyman, and to move all the boys into open houses, such as had already proved so successful for the better boys, soon became the aim of our board; but the change was not effected until 1884 when the Massachusetts Reformatory at Concord was opened, thus making it possible to ask for legislation limiting the age for commitment to Westborough to fifteen years. Then the beautiful grounds on Chauncey Lake were taken for the insane; and the school, with its new name of Lyman School for Boys, was moved to its present quarters, where are open houses with no enclosed yards, where the boys now go to school in a graded school-house, and where they are taught wood-work and drawing by graduates of Professor Larsen's sloyd school and by a teacher from Pratt Institute, and are taught blacksmithing by a graduate of the Technological Institute, going to and from school and workshops either singly or in squads. The boys of thirteen years or less, unless unmanageable, live and work on a homelike farm in Berlin, seven miles away, until they can be returned to their own homes or boarded in other families. This system of placing the younger boys at board has made it possible to keep them happy and busy until they are able to earn their own living. The success of placing not only infants and other dependent children, but also juvenile offenders, at board in private families testifies to the far-seeing wisdom of Dr. Howe's advice given in those early days of the state board's experience.

In 1894, through the combined effort

of the trustees and the State Board of Charity, the fairly capable children at the State Primary School, after receiving better care than before, had been placed or their places changed without being returned so often to the school. The little ones, the incapables, and the younger juvenile offenders, had been or could be boarded out. The cripples, epileptics, and other invalids were cared for in hospitals, or at board. By this means the number had been so much reduced that the trustees had suggested to the legislature that the institution might be taken for some other purpose. The State Primary School, with its great barracks, its sodden board floors and institution smells, is now a thing of the past; and in its place stand the new brick buildings of the State Epileptic Hospital for Adults.

*The State
Industrial School
for Girls.*

The State Industrial School for Girls, at Lancaster, has undergone fewer changes because the plan was made at the outset, somewhat following that of Mettray, France, to receive small groups of girls in separate family houses, each house being so arranged as to carry on its own daily work. Mrs. Richardson made this school her special charge. When complaint was made that some girl had no desire to become better, Mrs. Richardson used to say, "That is just what we have to do for her—we must make her want to be better." In visiting girls who were in Lowell with their own relatives or in other families, Mrs. Richardson's sympathy was unbounded. After she had for some years been a member of the State Board of Charity, she continued to plead for improvement at the Lancaster school, and when too feeble to move about with comfort made her last visit there.

The aim of this school has always been to develop the capacity of each girl for a better home life than she has ever known. Her interest is roused by music, gymnastics and games, and by sloyd work as well as by book study, while the training in housework of all kinds, in cooking and dressmaking, is so arranged that in eighteen months she may become a candidate for placing-out. As late as 1879 the girls going out to places were made:

conspicuous by wearing red and black checked shawls, then quite out of fashion, but since that time they have been taught to make their own dresses and to help in making their outfits, and they have been provided with inexpensive hats and coats like those worn by other girls.

In a similar way the whole work of placing-out is carried on with more regard to the individual. The girls placed-out on probation are now cared for, as for nearly ten years the boys from Westborough have been, by officers appointed and directed by the trustees. The superintendent of probationers from the State Industrial School, with her assistants paid and unpaid, now have their headquarters in a small office in Boston where girls going to and from their places can be received and from which center their visitors can be carefully instructed as to the dangers and the possibilities in each case, and inspired with fresh zeal and courage.

The admirable preventive work of the state and of private institutions and children's aid societies in providing individual care for wayward girls, has failed to cope with the more difficult cases and when their best efforts fail they still turn to this school to give one more opportunity. Obviously such girls as these must be classified, and the more degraded kept apart from the more innocent, and this classification has been extended through the six houses at Lan-

caster and the two at Bolton, a mile and half away. One group at Lancaster consists of backward girls now under observation and training with a view to the transfer of the decidedly defective to other more suitable institutions.

In these latter days the perception of real defects in brain power has been quickened to that extent that the courts now commit to the Massachusetts School for the Feeble-minded boys and girls who in former days would have been sent to reformatory institutions. The superintendent of this school at Waltham assures me that he has at least twenty pupils who some years ago would not have been distinguished from other juvenile delinquents. The trustees of our reform-schools and other institutions are well aware that double that number are on their hands, unfit to go out to battle with the world, and liable to bring into the world a generation of feeble-minded, illegitimate children. Dr. Fernald's model school, where all is adapted to the child's capacity, and where nothing beyond a child's capacity is expected of that child, has served as an object lesson for teachers elsewhere. With higher grades of intelligence also, there has been a marked progress in the adaptation of methods to individual needs. There is at least food for thought in the answer of the unruly boy who, when reasoned with by his master, answered: "But the trouble is, you do not understand my ways!"

To Country and Cottage¹

THE EFFECT ON INSTITUTION CHILDREN OF A CHANGE FROM CONGREGATE HOUSING IN THE CITY TO COTTAGE HOUSING IN THE COUNTRY

R. R. Reeder

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III

In his address at the one hundred and tenth anniversary of the founding of St. Patrick's church in Washington, President Roosevelt is reported to have made the following statement:

While in this country we need wise laws honestly and fearlessly executed, and while we cannot afford to tolerate anything but the highest standard in the public service

¹ This is the third in a series of papers by Mr. Reeder, the others appearing in the October and November magazine numbers.—Ed.

of the government, yet in the last analysis the future of the country must depend upon the quality of the individual home.

In the movement from congregate to cottage system that is now going on in institutions for dependent and delinquent children in many parts of the country, it is very important to know what constitutes a home; for the purpose of this movement is to give the child a home culture instead of an institutional train-

ing. What then are the essential elements of a good home, that primal institution upon which the future of our government so much depends?

While the concept expressed by the term, home, is a very complex one, and we may not hope to determine all of its elements, yet certain large features emerge into bold relief when we attempt to analyze the concrete whole.

A home is made up of both spiritual and material elements. On the material side the home we would provide for dependent children should have a kitchen, dining-room, sitting-room or living-room, and sleeping-rooms. There may be other rooms—bath-room, library, parlor, etc.—which add to the comfort, convenience, or refinement of the home; and any one of the four above enumerated may do double duty if the house is a small one. In *How the Other Half Lives* Jacob Riis speaks of four families who lived in one room, each family occupying one corner. He says they got on well enough together until one of them took a boarder and made trouble. Concentration in this case was certainly carried too far. Out of log cabins, however, with but one room have come forth many illustrious Americans with excellent home training. Two of our martyred presidents were among them. But in these condensed homes were performed all of the functions represented by the four apartments above-named. For after all, when we say that the essential factors of a home on the material side are kitchen, dining-room, sitting-room, and bedroom, we have in mind the functions of a good home rather than its spatial divisions. Condensing space in these humble homes was only a matter of inconvenience. But to have eliminated function would have resulted in serious loss to the children.

On the spiritual side the home should stand for the three cardinal virtues of love, obedience and service, thus making in all seven factors, four on the material side and three on the spiritual side. Not one of these factors can be omitted without the sacrifice of important ends. If for economic reasons we eliminate the kitchen from the individual cottage, we cut out one of the most important home training schools, whether the cottage be

for boys or for girls. If the cooking is done in a central kitchen for all of the cottages, there is no opportunity afforded for juvenile apprenticeship in one of the most necessary and important functions of home life, the cooking and serving of the family meals. The large central kitchen must have its experienced head cook with adult assistants. Things are done on too large a scale for children's work. They may be employed in the central kitchen for some of the lighter tasks, such as dish washing, waitress services, etc., but the girls from fourteen to seventeen shoulder no responsibilities except for simple and unskilled labor.

No amount of instruction by a teacher of domestic science in the institution school can rank in value with a thorough training through practical experience in preparing, cooking, and serving the regular meals of the cottage from the individual cottage kitchen. The institution girl that must become self-supporting at the early age of seventeen or eighteen, and no less the girl who is to become a successful housewife, should receive this training. If it is not provided in the institution home she will, of course, acquire more or less of it after leaving the institution, but at great waste to those whom she serves and expense to herself in the form of lower wages than skilled labor commands. The preparation and various methods of cooking, serving, etc., of vegetables, meats, cereals, fruits, bread and pastry, the care of the range and kitchen utensils, the careful observation of the various time factors in the preparation of each course, altogether involve a many-sided responsibility which no cooking school is adequate to furnish. It is a simple matter to cook and serve one or two courses made from all new material, compared with the preparation, cooking, and bringing together at an appointed time several courses composing a meal, each of which requires a separate time period, and one or more of which may require a combination with left over portions from previous meals. The ability to do this can be acquired only in a regular kitchen with the responsibility of the peace of the household resting in a measure upon the conscience of the apprentice maids.

But the cottage kitchen is more than simply a training school for the boys and girls who learn to prepare the daily meals in it. In the development of a home feeling and home attachment the kitchen counts for more than any other of four departments above mentioned. Every man or woman reared in the earlier homes of this country and in some of the homes of to-day, but especially in rural homes, retains through all succeeding years sweet memories of the dear old kitchen. How we looked forward to dinner or supper when a course of special interest to us was to be served. The first peas and green corn of the season, which we helped to gather and prepare for the cooking; the apple dumplings, pumpkin pies, doughnuts and gingerbread, in the preparation of which we had some share—even though it was but to make the fire—have never tasted since as they did when we smelled them in the old kitchen and looked forward to a feast with appetites which needed no sauce but opportunity. The children in the cottages of the New York Orphan Asylum began to enjoy the Thanksgiving dinner by nine o'clock in the morning, from which time there was a continuous feast of savor, flavor, or both, until after the one o'clock dinner was served.

"Bob compounded some hot mixture in a jug with gin and lemons, and stirred it round and round and put it on the stove to simmer. Master Peter and the ubiquitous young Cratchits went to fetch the goose, with which they soon returned in high procession. Mrs. Cratchit made the gravy (ready beforehand in a little saucepan) hissing hot; Master Peter mashed the potatoes with incredible vigor; Miss Belinda sweetened up the apple-sauce; Martha dusted the hot plates; the two young Cratchits set chairs for everybody, not forgetting themselves, and, mounting guard upon their posts, crammed spoons into their mouths, lest they should shriek for goose before their turn came to be helped. At last the dishes were set on, and grace was said. . . .

"There never was such a goose. Bob said he didn't believe there ever was such a goose cooked. Its tenderness and flavor, size and cheapness, were themes of universal admiration. Eked out by apple-sauce and mashed potatoes, it was a sufficient dinner for the whole family. Every one had enough, and the youngest Cratchits in particular were steeped in sage and onions to the eyebrows! But now, the plates being

changed by Miss Belinda, Mrs. Cratchit left the room to take the pudding up and bring it in.

"Hallo! A great deal of steam! The pudding was out of the copper. A smell like a washing day! That was the cloth. A smell like an eating-house and a pastry cook next door to each other, with a laundress's next door to that! That was the pudding!"

Verily childhood is the period of keen tastes and appetites. A restaurant dinner served from a central kitchen may do for business men and busy women, but the early home of childhood is seriously incomplete without the kindling wood and kitchen stove, the singing kettle and the odor of the steam cooker, the pantry and cooky jar. If the movement from congregate to cottage system has for its ideal the typical home, why not make the imitation as complete in every respect as possible? To leave the kitchen and dining-room or either of them out of the cottage home is to attempt the play of Hamlet with the Prince of Denmark left out.

But, besides being a training school of the first order and an important center for the awakening of home love and attachments, the kitchen and dining-room provide opportunities of inestimable value for inculcating the three factors above mentioned as forming the spiritual elements of a good home—love, obedience, and service. By service I do not mean simply labor, but rather that helpful assistance and co-operation in the performance of home duties and responsibilities which contribute to the peace, order, and efficiency of the household. In a well-ordered home each child has some service to render to help maintain the unity, harmony and progress of the whole. It is in this sympathetic co-operation that family love takes root and grows. In the training of children everywhere love and service go hand in hand. Where mother and child live in such mutual independence of each other that neither renders service to the other, there is certain to be wanting that confiding love and sympathy which hallows and strengthens the family tie. The less the amount of service rendered by the members of a family to each other and to the whole circle, the looser the family relation. The same principle applies to the larger family

group of the institution cottage. The kitchen and dining-room afford innumerable opportunities for the rendering of those manifold forms of service upon which the tone and quality of the household depend.

As a training school for the virtue of obedience, our third spiritual element of the home, the kitchen is no less an indispensable adjunct of the institution cottage. Disobedience here is not only individual moral obliquity, but it affects the whole family group. To let the fire go out in the range, to serve the cocoa luke warm, to neglect the dampers and boil the stew dry, to burn the roast or over-season the principal course of the meal—all in the face of explicit instructions concerning these points, is to visit upon others the consequences of one's own delinquencies, and, naturally, to incur their displeasure. Nowhere is the oneness of the family interest and welfare more fully appreciated by the younger members of the household than when gathered around the dining-room table. The exchange of confidence and the heart to heart talk which the cottage mother holds with her children at the close of the evening meal endears each to all, draws closer the natural ties of orphaned brothers or sisters who have been placed in such a foster home, and brings upon those who need reproof and correction the group pressure and influence in a most effective manner.

In the New York Orphan Asylum the teacher of domestic science gives her lessons in cooking to the children of each cottage in their own cottage kitchen. The lesson always includes the prepara-

tion and serving of a regular meal of the cottage. It usually begins with an inspection of the refrigerator and a quiz on the best possible use to be made of the left-over portions of previous meals. Having determined this, and the new course or courses necessary to complete the next meal, the lesson proceeds, and the meal is prepared and served under instructions. The manner of serving is a model for other meals served in the cottage. At least two meals a week in each cottage are prepared by school girls who are members of the cooking class.

The boys who are assigned to kitchen work take an active interest in learning to cook. In pantry and dining-room service they are as capable as the girls. The prizes for the fewest breakages, made up of fines from all of the cottages, for the last two six-month periods were won by a boys' cottage. The children of this orphanage, both boys and girls, render ten times as much service in the every-day life and progress of the institution as they performed under the old congregate system, and are correspondingly happier, freer, and more progressive.

By the above method the problem of household economies is squarely met and practically worked out for each lesson. The importance of this training is apparent to all who have worked among the poor in our great cities. Thousands of families descend into poverty and disintegration because the wives and mothers are unable to make economic use of the left-overs from the daily meals. Skill in this direction would drive many a delicatessen store out of business and go a long way toward solving the problem of charity.

Among Prints and Publications

For the reader who wishes to delve intelligently into the practice and development of treating juveniles, by far the best working basis is Homer Folks's *Dependent, Neglected and Delinquent Children*. This book is supplied with copious bibliographies which point to excursions into whatever special field of inquiry may be demanded. Since its publication a group of writers, of entertaining experience and rare insight, have taken up various phases of the boy problem in a way that is bearing fruit in a hundred playgrounds and a thousand clubs—Joseph Lee, Winfred Buck, William Byron Forbush, and others.

Mention should be made also at this time of the proceedings of the educational conference of those interested in children's institutions, held at Portland in June. The volume is fresh from the printers.

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Development in the juvenile court movement has been even more rapid, and a dynamic literature has both followed and led.

The monthly issues of the *Juvenile Court Record*, published by the Visitation and Aid Society of Chicago, under the editorship of

T. D. Hurley and James L. Clark, secretary of the National Conference Committee of Juvenile Courts, has had a definite influence in keeping the subject prominently before the public. Two hundred and forty thousand copies were issued during 1904. Last January an interesting narrative of *Juvenile Courts and What They Have Accomplished* was published from the same office, 79 Dearborn street, Chicago, describing in several chapters in detail the workings of the Juvenile Court of Chicago, and showing the spread of the movement. The pamphlet included the text of the Illinois juvenile court law, and was valuable in its sample pages of blanks—petitions, history sheets, notices, warrants, commitments, commissions appointing probation officers, parole cards, and the like, which are guides for those starting similar ventures elsewhere. Readers of CHARITIES can buy the pamphlet at 25 cents (half price).

Of characteristically stirring interest is the booklet prepared within the year (and already reviewed in CHARITIES) by the probation department of the Juvenile Court of the city and county of Denver.

The issue is brimful of telling anecdotes, illustrative cases and testimonials of detectives, railway officials, school superintendents, editors, and the like, as to the efficacy of the court. The book can be obtained for 25 cents by addressing the Probation Department, County Court, Denver. The Denver court is now preparing a pamphlet giving the Colorado statutes affecting the care of children.

The new Century Club of Philadelphia, which has afforded animating leadership for the Juvenile Court movement in that city and throughout the state, issued in July a little booklet on *What the Juvenile Court Probation System Has Done in Philadelphia*, which sketches the history of the care for children in the Quaker City, the new and the old ways, and some concrete results, which the probation system carried into the homes and with comparatively long terms has been able to effect. Mrs. Frederick Schoff, 3418 Baring street, Philadelphia, is chairman of the committee. Another publication, which proved of great service, was a summary of Juvenile Court legislation.

Last November CHARITIES issued its first special Juvenile Court issue—a number which was so soon exhausted that a reprint was made of the leading articles, and used before a number of state legislatures. The contributors included Judge Charles W. Heuisler of Baltimore, Justice Julius M. Mayer of New York, Mrs. Schoff and Judge Lindsey. Several hundred copies of this reprint are still available and can be had by addressing CHARITIES, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York. Single copies, 10 cents each; and quantities of fifty or more, 6 cents each.

Professor Thomas of the Woman's College, Baltimore, recently issued a twenty-four-page pamphlet on *Social Information* which marks the increased attention being given to this field by the colleges. Beginning with the "best books for beginners," it hints briefly and very readably of the books, periodicals and reports which bear upon the some score of divisions into which the writer blocks off the field of social effort. To give practical bearing to the whole, the student who wants to follow up a course of reading is told how to get his primary references and go at it, and the club which wants to debate on the problems is supplied with a battery of parliamentary texts. But, more especially—and this is a step in the social utilization of the library which sizes up with any yet attempted in the school—the agencies and movements of Baltimore are set forth so that no inspiration from the reading need go to seed for lack of application. That the bibliography ends with one of Frederic Almy's best stories, right out of CHARITIES, is not the worst thing that can be said of it.

Recent mention was made in this department of a bibliography of immigration prepared under the direction of A. P. C. Griffin, chief bibliographer of the Library of Congress. Mention should also be made of a list of works relating to the Germans in the United States, which comes from the same source and deals with both European and American books and pamphlets.

The book of the month, within the field of charities and correction, is easily Prof. Charles R. Henderson's *Modern Methods of Charity*, a volume to which attention can appropriately be directed in this issue and one which will be reviewed at length later.

In advance of the volume of proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction of 1904 there has been printed in the *Conference Bulletin* and also in separate pamphlet form the striking address by Francis H. McLean of Chicago on ideals and methods of co-operation. This is no "cut and dried" presentation of a formal creed, but a searching and most suggestive paper which should be read and studied by every one who has even a latent sympathy for a genuine democracy in their relations between the charitable and the dependent. CHARITIES has a few copies of the pamphlet which will be supplied on request while they last.

The edition of the New York *Charities Directory* for 1905 is now in press. Mrs. Mary E. David is editor. A directory, national in scope and importance, of tuberculosis institutions and agencies, prepared for the national and New York associations by Lillian Brandt will also be out within the month.

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*Congressional
Legislation
for the
National Capital.*

After two years of work and waiting, a satisfactory bill providing for compulsory education has been presented to Congress by the district commissioners. A goodly number of organizations and individual workers have agreed to unite in urging the passage of this measure as the one most fundamental and most seriously needed in the National Capital.

President Roosevelt's incidental suggestion of a whipping post for wife-beaters has so occupied the public mind that his more important recommendations for constructive social legislation have been rather overshadowed. Social workers have been spending valuable time in combatting a whipping post bill recently introduced by Representative Adams, and already endorsed by two of the three district commissioners, who believe that the major objections are eliminated by the provision that the punishment shall be administered in private.

A bill is being strongly urged, providing for the regular establishment of a juvenile court with a judge and meeting place distinct from the local police courts, where separate sessions for children's cases are now held by the police judges, but only through their own voluntary agreement.

Eleven public playgrounds were so successfully conducted last summer by a committee of the Associated Charities that the commissioners are now asking Congress for \$8,000 for the public equipment and maintenance of playgrounds on vacant ground controlled by the public authorities or loaned by private owners.

A child labor bill has been presented, referred to the district commissioners and returned by them to Congress with some modifications. Further, it is hoped that

some Congressional action in the matter of family desertion and compulsory support may be inaugurated as a result of the notable study of remedial legislation along these lines recently completed by a member of the board of managers of the Associated Charities, William H. Baldwin of Washington.

*Housing Legisla-
tion Held Up.*

The present "short session," however, with the order which has gone forth to cut down all appropriations, is not auspicious for prompt and generous legislation on progressive social lines. President Roosevelt's valuable suggestion of "a special commission on housing and health conditions in the National Capital" bids fair to receive no attention whatever this session, unless he himself should give further aid by asking some influential congressman to take up the proposition.

"The suspended animation of the proposed bill for the condemnation of insanitary dwellings," writes Charles F. Weller, secretary of the Associated Charities, "is a striking example of the fact that Washington city can not secure progressive legislation without converting the entire country to its cause." A single senator, from a distant state, is doggedly preventing any action whatever on a very satisfactory bill which is the third proposed to Congress within the last three years. The pending measure is modeled upon successful legislation which New York's highest courts have approved. It was prepared and recommended by the district commissioners, endorsed by the various citizens' organizations and advocated, in several special hearings at the Capitol, by Washington's leading citizens. Last spring this measure was reported in CHARITIES as practically passed. It had been endorsed by both

the Senate and House Committees on district affairs, had passed the House but then, at the last moment, it was held up by a senator whose ground of objection appears to be simply his dislike for the present health officer whom the bill makes one member of the proposed board for the condemnation of insanitary houses. Unless something unforeseen occurs, that so-called "senatorial courtesy" which prevents even the chairman of the Senate Committee on district affairs from interfering with this one senator's sub-committee on this bill, will make action impossible until the bill dies with the expiration of the present Congress.

One of the most conserving elements in modern administrative and business methods is that they are constantly sloughing off in letter-books and reports, a running history of themselves. The inefficient department finds its own statements its most relentless witnesses. Exhibits A, B, C in the case against State Labor Commissioner John McMackin of New York are the reports issued during his own incumbency and in themselves they offer ample grounds for the insistence with which the New York Child Labor Committee is opposing his retention in office.

Comparison in a public way has been made for a given year (1903) between the work of the New York State Department of Labor, under Commissioner McMackin, and the Illinois Department of Factory Inspection, under Mr. Davies. A comparison covering a period of years is even more illuminating. Mr. McMackin took office in 1899. On such counts as the number of children under sixteen at work, the number of convictions under the labor law, and the amount of fines collected, a sustained standard of efficiency is observed in Illinois, while indefinite and retrograde tendencies are observable in New York. In considering these figures it must be borne in mind that during the past ten years a number of comprehensive statutes have been put upon the law books of the two states, so that classes of children which could not be reached legally ten years ago now come within the scope of the law,—and only

ineffectual enforcement can be an explanation of the meagre showing. The following table shows the number of children under sixteen at work in Illinois and New York for the period under consideration. The per cent of children employed in Illinois has been cut in two during the period. The per cent of children employed in New York, which does not cover the children who get their working papers from the Board of Health for employment in mercantile establishments, has remained practically stationary. As the number of children receiving such papers have on given years reached over 20,000, the total per cent for New York is not indicated. It would be even less satisfactory.

	Number of children under sixteen employed.		Per cent of such children of total number of children.	
	New York. ¹	Illinois.	New York. ¹	Illinois
1894.....	12,586	8,180	2.69	6.2
1895.....	13,855	8,624	2.45	4.5
1896.....	12,100	7,340	2.25	3.7
1897.....	11,174	9,259	1.78	3.4
1898.....	13,086	11,845	1.9	3.3
1899.....	15,688 ²	13,646	2.1	3.3
1900.....	16,419	14,256	2.2	3.
1901.....	14,897	19,839	2.3	4.1
1902.....	16,750	19,225	2.2	3.7
1903.....	18,169	2.	...

¹ Not conclusive of those children receiving working papers from the board of health.

² The report for 1899 gives the number at 22,975. The figure quoted is from the revised list of 1901.

When a comparison of prosecutions and fines collected is made, the result is even more damaging to New York factory inspection. The published reports of the New York department show commendable activity in the field of inspection, but a very different administration would result if to this were added a modest increment of that energetic prosecution characteristic of the western bureau. The excuse has been offered by the New York department that it has an inadequate inspecting force, but during the past year its staff of thirty-eight must be compared with Mr. Davies' staff of sixteen. Mr. McMackin has stated that in New York city he has had difficulty in getting the magistrates to convict. His figures show thirty-nine convictions out of 119 prosecutions in 1903. Even though that be a small per cent, it in nowise shelves the responsibility from the factory inspection department when less than 125 prosecutions are compared with the 500 to 1,000

CONVICTIONS				FINES COLLECTED	
Prosecutions in Brackets					
	New York		Illinois	New York	Illinois
1894.....	115	(141)	\$2,480
1895.....	116	(141)	327	2,525	\$1,127.00
1896.....	26	(59)	520	640	886.47
1897.....	2	(2)	535	40	3,572.25
1898.....	12	(17)	1,006	185	8,800.45
1899.....	33	(67)	940	675	13,068.55
1900.....	165	(223)	2,503
1901.....	91	(107)	725	2,010	8,987.60
1902.....	7	(13)	1,198	215	7,537.08
1903.....	39	(119)	1,060	10,375.00

convictions during each of recent years credited to the Illinois department.

So much for a dry comparison of reports. Of the human things they represent—of the conditions they show untouched, and of the morale of the factory inspection force under such administration, a tremendous tome could be written.

The Death of William H. Baldwin.

The Englishman of means and of leisure, who gives largely of both to those things which are making for the bettering of conditions in Britain, has been eulogized for half a century. But America has afforded, perhaps, even more exceptional examples of men who have found time in the midst of efforts which have placed them in industrial and commercial pre-eminence, to give equal measure of thought and keen-sighted abilities to the dynamic social movements of the day. Such a man, in a singularly wholesome sense, was William H. Baldwin who died January 3. A graduate of Harvard in 1885, and one of a number of Harvard men selected by Charles Francis Adams, for service on the Union Pacific, Mr. Baldwin's executive capacity made him, long before his death at forty-two, president of the Long Island Railroad, and director in a score of great enterprises. But the gap he leaves in this business circle is perhaps not so serious a one as that among those who were his fellow workers in some of the sanest, most constructive undertakings of the last two decades in less tangible fields. He was a trustee of the City Club, of the University Settlement, of the national and local child labor committees, a director of the Armstrong Association, and of a number of the Southern educational institutions. He was a member of the Tenement-house Committee of the Charity Organization Society of the city

of New York. Civil service reform found him a staunch supporter. As a member of the Civic Federation he took a keen interest in the labor question, and laboring men generally recognized that his identification with large corporations in no way biased him against their interests. The affairs of the Citizens' Union made large inroads upon his time and as chairman of the Committee of Fifteen, which dealt with the question of the social evil and of social conditions in New York in general in 1900 and 1901, he gave evidence of the even greater portion of service which, in the years to come, could have been counted upon from him. It was as the chairman of the General Educational Board, however, as a member of the Southern Education Board, and especially as a supporter of Tuskegee and Hampton, that his constructive faculty will leave its largest impress.

Why the Comstocks Site?

The action in December of the New York State Commission in Lunacy as to the location of the new state hospital—and not announced until January 11—has been shrouded in mystery. If it be true that the property owned by former Railroad Commissioner I. V. Baker at Comstocks, Washington County, is to be bought by the state for the new institution, it is difficult to explain the choice in a manner which is creditable to the Lunacy Commission.

The insuperable objection to the Comstocks site is that it is far removed from the district requiring relief by the proposed hospital, being seventy-one miles from Albany and sixty-three miles from Troy. The chief reason for locating a state hospital in this part of the state, in a county on the very edge of the state and obviously not central, was to relieve

the people of Albany and Troy from the necessity of sending their insane to the Hudson River State Hospital at Poughkeepsie which is sixty-nine miles from Albany and seventy-five miles from Troy. To subject patients to the discomfort and risk of an unnecessarily long railroad journey to a distant institution and to force their relatives and friends to take a long journey to visit them when far removed from home seemed a hardship that the large cities of Albany and Troy were unwilling to endure. At the public hearing held in November by the State Commission in Lunacy to allow the people interested in the location of the new state hospital to express their views, General Parker and other prominent men of Albany and Troy pleaded for the selection of a site convenient of access to those cities. Before making their decision the commission asked several of the superintendents of the state hospitals to visit the sites under consideration. It is understood that none of them reported in favor of the Comstocks site.

It would be interesting and the public has the right to know what were the arguments that decided the commission to favor Comstocks.

*A Bird's-eye
View of
Anti-Tuberculosis
Work.*

In the *Directory of Institutions and Societies Dealing with Tuberculosis* issued this week jointly by the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society and the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, the attempt is made for the first time to present a bird's-eye view of all the organized work that is being done in the United States and Canada for the care and cure of consumptives and the prevention of consumption. The volume was compiled by Lilian Brandt, statistician of the former committee.

The directory is an attractive book of 270 pages and some sixty illustrations, well printed and bound in a blue linen which has a strictly hygienic appearance and strongly suggests a trained nurse's costume. The book is divided into six parts:

1. Sanatoriums, hospitals and camps.
2. Special dispensaries.
3. The tuberculous insane.

4. Tuberculous prisoners.
5. Municipal control of tuberculosis.
6. Associations for the prevention of tuberculosis, including societies, committees and state commissions.

Part I is by far the most important section of the book, consisting as it does of descriptions and views of the 125 hospitals and sanatoriums in which consumptives may receive treatment, with short introductory articles by Dr. E. L. Trudeau, of the Adirondack Cottage Sanitarium, on the essential features in sanatoriums for incipient cases, and by Dr. Lawrence F. Flick, of the Henry Phipps Institute in Philadelphia, on the essential features in hospitals for advanced cases. These introductory articles supply a standard by which the average reader can judge of the value of existing institutions in many points and they furnish suggestions to persons who are planning new ones. The descriptive list of existing institutions will be a welcome guide to the physicians and friends of consumptives, whether poor or well-to-do. The exact name and location of each hospital and sanatorium is given, the charges and other terms of admission, the number of patients received, directions in regard to applying for admission, a more or less extended description of the situation, and in many instances views of the buildings or grounds. They are arranged according to the states in which they are located, and are in this way very easy to refer to. An index further facilitates reference by classifying them according to the prices charged and according to the stage of the disease for which they are intended.

The section on dispensaries is particularly interesting to charitable workers and physicians who have a large practice among the poor, for it gives the location, office hours, and other details in regard to the thirty-two special dispensaries for the free treatment of tuberculosis. The value of such dispensaries and the important features in their conduct are discussed in an article by Dr. Edward O. Otis, superintendent of the Boston Dispensary.

The rest of the book is devoted to an account of the attempts which are now being made to provide special care for consumptives in hospitals for the insane and penal institutions, with articles by

Dr. J. B. Ransom of Clinton Prison, New York, and Dr. A. E. Macdonald, formerly medical superintendent of the Manhattan State Hospital East; a description of a municipal system for the control of tuberculosis, by Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, medical officer of health of New York city, together with a summary of the measures which are now taken in the principal cities of the country; and, finally, statements of the methods of work and plans of the thirty-eight societies for the prevention of tuberculosis, immediately preceded by an article on the need for such societies, and their function, by Edward T. Devine.

The directory will be of value to every physician and social worker and to every one who comes in contact in any way with persons suffering from tuberculosis. The price is one dollar. Orders may be sent to the Charity Organization Society, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

The Campaign Against Raines Law Hotels.

The occasion seems opportune for an effective attack upon the recognized evils of New York's Raines law hotels. Their offences cry aloud to heaven for correction. Some of them are only disguised cheap lodging-houses, which escape such regulation as is given to other lodging-houses because they are technically hotels. Others are houses of prostitution. A great majority do not conform to the provisions of the law requiring hotels over thirty-five feet in height to be fire-proof. It has apparently been judicially determined that such a hotel may be regarded as a hotel under the excise law, where it is a privilege to be so regarded, but not as a hotel under the building law, where it would be a hardship. The proprietor is, therefore, the lucky grumbler who has a right to declare to the community: "Heads I win, tails you lose."

Senator Raines says that the fault lies with the local county and city administration for not enforcing the existing law. District Attorney Jerome, and in effect the local courts and juries and police department, retort that the law is unenforceable and that the fault is with the legislature. Both sides are right; that is to say, either a strict and impartial en-

forcement of the existing laws, or their modification in the direction desired by Mr. Jerome followed by the enforcement of the new laws, would accomplish the result. Enforcement, of course, requires the genuine co-operation of police, city magistrates, grand juries, and trial courts backed by public opinion. It is in this last item that the rub lies. There is no general public opinion in New York county which calls for the continuous effective enforcement of the present excise law. The lapse of time does not bring such a public opinion into existence. It has had its trial and is locally condemned. Since it is a good revenue producer, and since in terms it prohibits the open saloon on Sundays, it has a strong support from the other counties of the state; and its repeal or any direct modification of its Sunday-opening features appears very remote.

The point of attack is, therefore, the hotel adjunct of what should be called the Raines law saloon. If it is a hotel let it be made to conform absolutely to the building laws affecting hotels. If it is a lodging-house let it be brought under the jurisdiction of the Board of Health, and subjected to rigid sanitary supervision. Only slight changes in the law will be necessary, and the up-state temperance advocates and the local upholders of law and decency should readily unite in this moderate program. The hotels in which gambling, prostitution, or other illegal practices are carried on, and which would not be put out of business by the changes suggested, would remain to be dealt with by the district attorney.

Mr. Riis as an Advance Agent of the Portland Conference.

Jacob A. Riis is on a lecturing tour on the Pacific Coast and was especially commissioned before his departure to herald in every community in which he appears the coming Portland session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. In a personal letter to the editor of CHARITIES, Mr. Riis reports that he has been discharging this duty, favorably interpreting his task in his own characteristic way by announcing the conference as one which will answer all questions raised by his preaching. He expects to see at Port-

land large delegations from Idaho, Utah, Colorado, Washington, and California. The liberty may be taken of extracting another paragraph from Mr. Riis's letter, in the belief that it will increase the desire of the eastern members of the conference to attend the session at Portland.

It is a long way from home out here, but I have never had a more interesting trip. You have done well in choosing Portland for your convention. I doubt if there could be a finer view than the one of the hills and snow covered mountains overlooking the city. I hope that the fair may attract many eastern people for their own good. We need at home to know this great country with its marvelous resources. Until I came here I looked upon the Pacific coast as a kind of back door to the house. It is a pretty big and imposing back door. It is worth coming across the country merely for the sake of being set right as Americans—for the mere sensation of looking east from the westward, as it were. The world grows smaller, and we come so much nearer one another. For me, I have made up my mind that the limitation of the franchise, if any is ever to be, is not in a property qualification, nor even in the so-called educational test, but in a far wider educational test; *viz.*, whether the man has seen his own country or not—whether he knows what it is like. Let us have a man disqualified from serving in Congress till he has made a tour east, west, north, and south and other problems would dwindle beautifully.

Notes of the Week.

Lecture Course in Neighborhood Work.—A lecture course in neighborhood work opened this week in New York with an address Thursday by Kate Holladay Claghorn on the tenement-house population. The course is given jointly under the auspices of Columbia University, the League for Political Education, and the Association of Neighborhood Workers. The lectures are held at the League for Political Education, 23 West Forty-fourth street, Thursday evenings, and tickets may be secured from members of the Association of Neighborhood Workers or from the League for Political Education.

The course is as follows:

Tenement-house Population.—Kate Holladay Claghorn, January 12. Discussion, Dr. Blaustein and Eliot Norton.

Extension of Neighborhood Work in Our Educational System.—Mrs. Vladimir G. Simkhovitch, January 19.

Co-operation in Relief.—Edward T. Devine, January 26. Discussion, the Rev. D. D. Mottet.

The Uses of Leisure.—Felix Adler, February 2.

Housing.—Lawrence Veiller, February 9. Discussion, Lillian D. Wald.

Progress by Legislation.—Florence Kelley, February 16.

The Neighborhood House and Its Functions.—Robert A. Woods, February 23. Discussion, J. L. Elliott.

Public Morality.—F. Norton Goddard, March 2. Discussion, Cornelia S. Bradford and Gaylord S. White.

Labor.—Jane Addams, March 9.

Changes in the Economic Structure of Society.—E. R. A. Seligman, March 16.

Backing Up a Tuberculosis Hospital.—A pleasant incident occurred in connection with the financial troubles which have threatened to put a stop to the tuberculosis work at the Municipal Hospital in Rochester, N. Y. Dr. Goler, chairman of the committee of the Public Health Association, which is in charge of the hospital, was called up by telephone one day and asked if small contributions would be of use, and a few days later he received a check for fifty dollars, representing subscriptions from fifty Jewish citizens of the town, with an announcement that the subscription would be repeated annually. This is a material evidence of the general public interest in the work that has been undertaken for poor consumptives in Rochester and may be taken as an omen that it will not be allowed to fail for lack of funds.

Municipal Art Commission.—Robert W. de Forest and Walter Cook have been appointed members of the New York Municipal Art Commission by Mayor McClellan. At a meeting of the commission this week Mr. de Forest was elected chairman. The appointment of the former tenement-house commissioner under Mayor Low to this post is especially significant of the esteem in which his non-partisan administration of that department is held.

Boston Monday Evening Club.—The regular meeting of the Monday Evening Club will be held January 16. The subject will be "Relief During the Fall River Strike." Speakers, Dr. J. F. Lewis, from the point of view of the State Board of Charity; Miss Alice E. Weatherbee, from the point of view of the Associated Charities; and John Golden, from the point of view of the Textile Union.

New York Monday Club.—The first session of the New York Monday Club for 1905 was held at Clinton Hall, where supper was served and where Benjamin C. Marsh, of Philadelphia, spoke entertainingly of his picturesque experiences as an amateur beggar in European cities and elsewhere. Lillian D. Wald, of the Nurses' Settlement, also spoke.

What Are Factory Inspectors For?

William English Walling¹

The chief factory inspector of the state of New York, head of a force of thirty-four factory inspectors in the field, does not appear to know what factory inspectors are for. In spite of the fact that he has been head of the labor department of the state for six years, that he has had the experience of two generations of factory inspection in Great Britain and two decades of factory inspection in this country for his guide, John McMackin has shown by his public statements and official reports a radical misconception of the function and purpose of factory inspectors and factory laws.

Mr. McMackin was put at the head of a department to which had been given over the enforcement of thirty-four labor laws, protecting not only the health and living conditions, but the very life itself of the working people of New York. He was given charge of these inspectors for one purpose alone; that is to *enforce* laws. He has been provided with a staff as adequate to the purpose both in quantity and quality as that of the other industrial states, and more adequate than that of some of the leading industrial countries.

Mr. McMackin is not enforcing the law. He has practically vetoed the thirty-four labor laws of this state to the enactment of which trade unions, public-spirited citizens, and legislators of New York have given almost a generation of continuous and intelligent effort. He is following a policy which, if continued, can result in one end only—the practical nullification of the labor laws, the continued destruction of the health of the working people by the poisons, dusts, and unsanitary conditions of the factories, the continued loss of the limbs and very lives of the working people from dangerous and unguarded machinery, the restoration of long hours for women and young people in spite of the specific declaration of the law against it, and the continued employment of children in the factories

¹ Mr. Walling, who is a resident of the University Settlement, New York, was formerly a member of the factory inspection staff in Illinois.

against both the spirit and the letter of the law.

Mr. McMackin in his public statements speaks of factory inspection as if it were something new under the sun. He says nothing of the standards set up for factory inspection by other countries and other states, or of the comparatively successful enforcement by other communities with a less adequate and less intelligent force of inspectors and a less adequate appropriation for the work. Having served as factory inspector in Illinois, having attended the conventions of factory inspectors and studied their work in a number of other states as well as in Great Britain, I speak from personal knowledge when I say that Mr. McMackin's interpretation of his duties as responsible chief factory inspector of New York is unprecedented and unparalleled in the history of factory laws. I have had to hear him outline his views with his own lips before I could believe that any man in his important position would confess himself unable to do what others have done and are doing every day with a smaller staff and a smaller appropriation in proportion to their work.

FACTORY INSPECTION IN FOUR LEADING MANUFACTURING STATES.

	Total Employés in Places Inspected.	Total Number Inspectors.	Employés per Inspector.
New York, 1903.....	872,625	38	22,963
Pennsylvania, 1903..	647,427	30	16,600
Massachusetts, 1903..	557,825	26	22,031
Illinois, 1902.....	511,902	18	31,938

It will be seen that Pennsylvania alone of the four states is better provided with inspectors than New York and that Illinois is considerably worse off. Yet in Illinois during 1902, the last year for which the report is at hand, 1,193 convictions were secured against seven for the whole year in New York. More than once when inspector in Illinois I have known an inspector to secure seven convictions in a single day. The fines in Illinois were \$7,537; in New York \$215.

Now, let us be just to Mr. McMackin.

Let us endeavor to understand his theory of the labor laws. Mr. McMackin, it would seem, has been deceived by a phrase. He has assumed against the specific declaration of the law that the chief duty of factory inspectors is to inspect the factories. Such a supposition is in direct contradiction to the whole history of factory laws and the experience of those appointed to enforce them. Factory inspectors exist not to inspect factories but to enforce factory laws. For that purpose a wide and systematic inspection of factories is an essential element, but no other theory than that they exist primarily to enforce the law can justify the appointment of hundreds of inspectors, the expenditure of such large sums on their work, and the vast amount of public agitation that has resulted in the passage of these laws. Factory laws can be fairly well enforced even with the moderate staff of inspectors to which all the leading industrial communities have so far been restricted, if the chief inspector is determined to use his full power to that end.

Only one method has been discovered by which factory laws and other labor laws can be enforced without greatly increasing the expense of enforcement—that of making an example of the more lawless employers. It is shown by the figures above quoted and by the experience of other states and countries that in order to enforce the law, it is not necessary, as Mr. McMackin constantly implies, to haul every employer who violates the law into the courts. If for the 40,727 violations Mr. McMackin found in 1903 (excluding 19,845 of a merely, technical character), he had made a thousand prosecutions instead of 119; if he had known the purpose for which factory laws exist; if he had followed the practical experience and successful policy of other states, it is most likely that during the course of his administration of six years, the total number of violations of the law instead of increasing year by year would now be only a fraction of the number six years ago.

Does Mr. McMackin really suppose, as he states, that the intelligent, energetic and public-spirited individuals and organizations that have led in the campaign for the securing of our labor laws or who have been entrusted in many instances with

their enforcement, were laboring under the delusion that the very moderate force of inspectors now to be found in any industrial community is sufficient to detect and prosecute each and every violation of the law? Mr. McMackin exposed his position when he said a few weeks ago before the Central Federated Union of New York city that he does not believe the laws can be enforced until they are put into the hands of the police. Such a policy would necessitate an industrial police not twofold or tenfold, but a hundredfold of that now employed by the state to enforce its labor laws—a force of not 37 or of 370, but of 3,700 inspectors, if it were to correspond with the city police of the state, and an appropriation not of \$85,000 but of eight millions and a half.

The assumption of those who understand these laws has been that one example set for lawless employers is worth an indefinite number of friendly visits of inspection. Mr. McMackin's inspectors, many of them efficient women and men furnished him by the civil service law, have made 40,000 of these friendly visits. But under his instructions they have brought into court less than one hundred out of the thousands of employers violating the law. Those so carefully selected for examples were in nearly every case the smallest, poorest and most ignorant. Not a half dozen large employers were disturbed.

But this is not all. His cases were either so loosely prepared or so poorly presented that some were dismissed or the "complaint withdrawn" because the defendant, after having committed a misdemeanor against the state and an injury to his own employes, had at last "complied with the orders of the department." Finally when forty-six convictions were secured against these for the most part obscure employers, seven fines were remitted and there was levied a total of \$1,060 against the remaining thirty-nine. A simple arithmetical calculation will show that it costs an average of about two and one-half cents to be caught breaking a labor law in the state of New York.

Among numerous excuses Mr. McMackin has offered for his novel and amazing interpretation of the function of the inspectors of factories is one that

might seem to have some force in this state. It appears that some of the courts have not allowed the evidence of the factory inspector to prevail against that of the employer. If this is true, Mr. McMackin would not have any assurance of winning his cases except when re-inspections had been made—of course by another inspector. Such corroborative testimony should be sufficient and prosecutions might advisedly be held until a second investigation had been made. According to Mr. McMackin's own report the total number of re-inspections was 2,174. Had he converted 5,000 or 10,000 of his inspections into re-inspections, the experience of other states shows that he should then have been able to secure convictions in at least from 1,000 to 2,000 cases. His actual record in 1903 was thirty-nine. Mr. McMackin, it would seem, has left at least nine-tenths of his principle duty undone.

How are we to account for the refusal of the labor commissioner to enforce New York labor laws? One explanation suggests itself. As labor commissioner Mr. McMackin is head of three bureaus: the Bureau of Arbitration, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Bureau of Factory Inspection. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, in the hands of experts, has done

excellent work both before and after Mr. McMackin's incumbency. It seems possible that Mr. McMackin, laboring under a fatal misapprehension of the duties of his office, has turned the factory inspection bureau also into a bureau of statistics. Mr. McMackin is "elated," to quote from his last report, because his report shows that 100,000 more employes were found at work in the places inspected than during the year before. Members of his staff say that he calls in almost half of the inspectors from their field work several months before the end of the year to do office work on the statistical report of the factory inspection done.

As a bureau of factory statistics the bureau of factory inspection has been a success. As a bureau of factory inspection it has been an almost total failure. Is the \$85,000 which is appropriated principally for the enforcement of the labor laws to be squandered on the work of mere inspection and statistical reports, while the untold sickness, accidents, long hours and child labor caused by the non-enforcement of the law flourish and increase? Or will the state of New York, which has enacted some of the best factory laws in the Union, secure the appointment of a chief of factory inspection who knows what the factory inspection is for?

The Slavic Races in Cleveland

Magdalena Kucera¹

The Slavic races in Cleveland number one-fourth of the population and include Bohemians, Slovaks, Slovenes, Poles, Croats and Russians. The most numerous are the Bohemians, Poles, and Slovaks.

Of the Bohemians there are about forty thousand. Like other foreigners they choose to live in groups and have three large settlements. They are among the most intelligent and progressive of our immigrants. Nearly all of them have had a common school education and their record as useful citizens is one to be proud of. They strive to own their homes and many of them already possess comfortable, attractive houses.

¹ Miss Kucera is a nurse, Bohemian by birth.

The Bohemians have representatives in nearly all the trades and professions, the younger generation, especially, turning to law, medicine and business. There are thirty doctors, twenty lawyers and many successful business men who have an established reputation for honesty and fair dealing. In the department of education they are also doing their share. Several of the young women are school teachers, one being on the teaching staff in one of the high schools, another a member of the Board of Examiners, a third, in the training school for teachers.

In politics they belong chiefly to the two great parties. For a dozen years or more some of the best men in the city council have come from the districts

settled by Bohemians. Others have held responsible positions in the administrative work.

In religious belief they are mainly Catholic. A small number have become Protestants, but many have drifted into indifference and agnosticism or positive atheism. The Catholics have five large churches and parochial schools connected with them, while the Protestants have four mission churches and their branches.

Like all foreigners the Bohemians bring with them their customs and retain them for a long time. They like their beer and as the best beer in the world is made in Bohemia this is not surprising. Music and dancing they are also very fond of; it seems to be a part of their very nature.

Next to the Bohemians, in point of numbers, come the Poles. They were attracted to Cleveland during the strike at the rolling mills in 1882, and made a settlement in the vicinity of the mills. Most of the men are common laborers, and, on the whole, they are industrious and law-abiding. What was said at the time of McKinley's death about the prevalence of anarchy among Poles, does not apply to those in Cleveland, as it is rare to find an anarchist; even the socialists are not many.

In religion the Poles are the Irish of the Slavs. The people are largely influenced by the priests, and their children, to a large extent, are educated in the parochial schools. Protestantism did not

take root among them because of the absence of any middle class, there being only two classes, the lords and the serfs. The Poles have doctors and lawyers of their own, and publish two weekly papers in their own tongue.

Unlike the Poles, the Slovaks amalgamate readily with the Bohemians. There are about ten thousand of these grouped in four or five centers. Naturally of a simple and honest disposition, they show also in their characters the effect of the oppression and persecution they have suffered from the ruling race of Hungary. This oppression may partly account for their comparative illiteracy. Many can neither read nor write and until recently they had no literature of their own, and they used Bohemian in writing.

Though their home life has been much improved since they came to this country, they have not yet progressed as have the Bohemians. So far, they have no lawyer of their own, and only one physician. Alcoholism has been and still is, one of their curses. Most of the men are day laborers, the few who have succeeded in larger ways being saloon-keepers, small butchers and grocers.

The Croatians and Russians form only a small percentage of the total Slavic population. Of the former there are about five thousand. The number of the latter has not been estimated. The Russians have a church of their own which receives some support from the Holy Synod of Russia.

Licensed Dispensaries in New York State

William B. Buck

Superintendent of Inspection, State Board of Charities

The following table shows the extent of compliance with the rules of the State Board of Charities (established pursuant to the provisions of the State Charities Law), on the part of the 119 licensed dispensaries in New York state. It embodies the results of inspections and reports upon these dispensaries, which under the provision of Chapter 368, Laws of 1899, are licensed and regulated by the State Board of Charities, one of whose inspectors is assigned to this line of work.

The so-called "dispensary law" which

imposes these duties upon the State Board of Charities was enacted as the result of continued and well-directed effort on the part of the medical profession, and was designed primarily to check, and if possible remove, "the dispensary evil," *i. e.*, the gratuitous treatment in dispensaries of persons able to pay for medical services. The rules adopted by the State Board of Charities in accordance with the provisions of this law have the same object among others. These rules require, in brief, that in every licensed dispensary

in the state an officer (register) shall receive and examine each applicant for treatment as to his ability to pay for the same, and when in doubt as to his resources shall, before admitting him to treatment, require his signature to a statement of his financial condition, the same to be used as a basis for subsequent investigation of the matter. Cleanliness and order are required; certain contagious diseases must be excluded and reported to the proper health authorities; clinical or religious instruction is permitted, but treatment must not be conditional thereon; the apothecary of the dispensary

must be licensed or a medical graduate; local health ordinances must be observed; sexes (except family groups) are to be separated in the waiting and treatment rooms; seats for all applicants and suitable equipment and supplies must be provided.

The wisdom and the possibility of enforcing both the law and the rules of the board was seriously and generally questioned at the time of their adoption, and for several months thereafter, while in some quarters this doubt has continued up to the present time. Since 1899, however, the rules and their reasonable char-

COMPLIANCE WITH DISPENSARY RULES ON THE PART OF 119 LICENSED DISPENSARIES IN NEW YORK STATE, SEPTEMBER-30, 1904.

RULES.	Yes.	No.	In part.	Does not apply.	Remarks.
I. Public notice posted	117	2			
II. 1. Registrar.....	118	..	1		
2. Deputy (not required by rules)	44	75			
3. Makes and preserves records.....	114	3	2		
4. Receives applicants.....	117	1	1		
5. Sees that rules are enforced.....	18	2	99		
III. 1. Examines all applicants.....	116	3			
Superficially, 34.....					
Fairly well, 31.....					
Thoroughly, 54.....					
Are any refused admission?.....	87	32			
a. Emergency cases admitted.....	119				
b. Poor applicants admitted.....	119				
c. Doubtful cases admitted upon signing representation card.....	90	28	..	1	
d. Subsequent investigation made.....	41	76	..	2	
e. Results of investigation filed.....	32	85	..	2	
f. Non-signers refused admission.....	100	18	..	1	
2. Representation cards in proper form.....	113	6			
3. a. Pass cards issued.....	119				
b. Penalty printed thereon.....	110	4	5		
IV. 1. Matron.....	117	2			
2. Cleanliness and order preserved.....	115	4			
3. Present at gynæcological examination, etc.....	89	3	..	27*	
V. 1. Contagious diseases excluded.....	119				
2. Registrar prevents exposure.....	119				
3. Registrar reports to health authorities.....	118	1			
VI. 1. Clinical or other instruction given.....	28	91	} Instruction permitted by rules.
2. Treatment conditional thereon.....	..	28	..	91	
3. Consent of patient obtained.....	27	1	..	91	
VII. 1. Apothecary (not required).....	107	12			
2. Licensed or medical graduate.....	104	3	..	12†	
3. Appointed under civil service rules.....	8	111‡	
VIII. 1. Board of Health ordinances observed.....	119				
2. Minute made before September 30.....	45	74			
IX. 1. Seats for all applicants provided.....	107	12			
2. Sexes separated in (a) waiting rooms.....	85	32	2		
(b) treatment rooms.....	102	17			
3. Suitable equipment and supplies.....	109	8	2		

* Such examination not held in these cases.
 † No prescriptions compounded at these dispensaries.
 ‡ Applies only to eight dispensaries connected with municipal hospitals in New York City.

acter have come to be better understood and more widely observed, largely as a result of the consistent efforts of the State Board of Charities, which has uniformly sent to the managers of these dispensaries copies of the inspection reports made from time to time, and has urged mildly but firmly, full compliance with the law and the rules. As shown by the reports of the inspector of dispensaries, both the law and the rules are very generally observed. With twenty-four of the thirty-one distinct requirements of the rules compliance is practically complete; with four it is reasonably so, and in three particulars only is observance lax—those requiring an investigation to be made as to the ability of doubtful applicants to pay for treatment, the filing of results of these investigations, and the making of a minute showing observance of the ordinances of the local health authorities. The last two are comparatively trivial in character.

One hundred and fourteen of the 119

dispensaries are keeping reasonably complete records of their work; in 100 cases persons unwilling to sign representation cards are refused admission; cleanliness and order are maintained in all but four; in only three cases is the matron not present at gynæcological examinations; in but three is the apothecary unlicensed or not a medical graduate; in every case local health ordinances are observed; and all but ten have suitable equipment and supplies.

This showing does credit to the dispensaries and to the state and should greatly encourage those who are interested in this important branch of medical charity. It encourages the Board of Charities to continue its efforts to secure greater compliance with its rules, particularly that prescribing a subsequent investigation in the cases of all doubtful applicants for treatment, which is of unusual importance as a means for preventing imposition, and the observance of which is at the present time much too lax.

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Prof. Livingston Farrand Appointed Secretary for the National Tuberculosis Movement.

Signal evidence of the draft which the greater social movements of the day are making upon the largest resources of the universities, is the announcement that Dr. Livingston Farrand, professor of anthropology at the Columbia University, has been appointed secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. Within the year Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsey, professor of sociology at the University of Pennsylvania, has been named as secretary of the National Child Labor Committee. Both have offices in the United Charities Building, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York.

Of underlying significance is the fact that the tuberculosis association, which was inaugurated at a session of the American Medical Association, should enter upon a work which will grapple with the social, even more especially than the medical, problems of preventable disease, under the executive head of a man whose professional training and striking accomplishment have been in the field of natural science. Professor Farrand enters upon this new field, however, from one which could in no sense be called purely academic in its interests. His father was one of the founders of the Bureau of Charities in Newark, and following his own graduation from Princeton, he took a medical degree at the College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York, continuing thereafter an interest in both medical and humanitarian matters. He is a member of the Committee on Social Investigation of Greenwich House, New York, of which Professor Seligman is the chairman.

It is in the field of psychology, ethnology and anthropology that Dr. Farrand has attained national reputation. Fol-

lowing studies at Cambridge and then at the German universities, he became a member of the faculty of Columbia University in 1893, and his new work will admit of his continuing in the chair of anthropology and the completing of certain researches now under way. Since 1896 Professor Farrand has been secretary of the American Psychological Association. He is recording secretary of the American Ethnological Society, member and president (1903) of the American Folklore Society, member of the American Society of Naturalists, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and the Washington Academy of Science, and fellow of the American Anthropological Association and the New York Academy of Science.

His work as assistant curator of ethnology at the American Museum of Natural History has been notable. He was associated with Professor Boas in practically inaugurating that great series of expeditions among the Indians of the northwestern America and Eastern Asia, which will preserve lasting evidence of the life of the earliest Americans. Professor Farrand has taken part in no less than five expeditions, including the first Jesup North Pacific Expedition organized in 1897, and the Villard expedition among the Indian tribes of Washington, Idaho, and Oregon. The art, social organization, religion and mythology of these people have been the subjects which have exacted the largest share of his time in working up the results of the undertakings.

As a scientific investigator Professor Farrand has a reputation for uncompromising thoroughness and accuracy. In the words of a fellow scientist, "he unites executive ability, resource, and nerve"—all of them faculties upon which serious demand will be made by the large responsibility facing an anti-tuberculosis movement national in scope.

It is now possible to review *Child-labor Advance in 1904.* with some exactness the progress during 1904 in the field of child labor and compulsory education. The advances were not inconsiderable. Statutes were enacted by Massachusetts, Kentucky, New Jersey and Vermont.

Massachusetts extended to the month of December the restriction of the hours of labor of women and children, which formerly applied only to stores during eleven months of the year. It will henceforth be illegal to employ any woman or minor under eighteen years of age longer than ten hours in one day or fifty-eight hours in one week at any time during the year in any store, as it has long been illegal in any factory.

New Jersey extended to boys under fourteen years of age the prohibition which previously applied only to girls. Neither boys nor girls can now be legally employed in manufacture in New Jersey before the fourteenth birthday. Unfortunately, the legislature repealed the statute which had for ten years, since 1892, prohibited the employment at night of children under sixteen years of age in all manufactures except glassworks, canneries and establishments for preserving perishable fruits. Children fourteen years of age may, therefore, be legally employed throughout the night in factories in New Jersey.

Kentucky extended to the entire school year, not less than five months, the term of compulsory attendance at school for children under fourteen years of age.

Vermont enacted a new law, embodying some of the best features of the laws of Illinois and Massachusetts. This is the first eastern state to adopt the Illinois restriction upon the hours of labor of children under sixteen, not more than eight hours in one day, nor more than forty-eight hours in one week nor after 7 P. M., nor before 7 A. M. The requirements of Massachusetts regarding the age and schooling certificate have been approximately followed, with the addition of the passport for verification of age. The age limit has been raised only to twelve years, but no child under fifteen may be employed while the public schools are in session.

With the organization of the National Child Labor Committee, and with legislatures in session in a score of the principal states, friends of child labor reform are not going too far in anticipating the enactment of some very considerable measures within the next two or three months, which should bring up the standard throughout the country.

Henry Phipps, formerly of *Mr. Phipps Latest Philanthropy.* Pittsburg, but now a resident of New York, has made a gift of \$1,000,000 for building improved tenements in New York city. The announcement was made through Robert W. de Forest, who it is understood is to be the chairman of the executive committee of the organization when formed. Mr. Phipps asked the following gentlemen to serve with him as a board of trustees:

Mayor McClellan, Robert W. de Forest, Isidor Strauss, John W. Arbuckle, Alfred T. White, Myles Tierney, Charles S. Brown, Dr. E. R. L. Gould, W. S. Hawk, Charles A. Moore, George E. Gordon, John S. Phipps, and Charles Stewart Smith

Mr. de Forest, Mr. Brown, Mr. White and Mr. Tierney were members of the New York State Tenement-house Commission which framed the present tenement-house law and with a fifth, Dr. E. R. L. Gould, president of the City and Suburban Homes Company, are members of the Tenement-house Committee of the Charity Organization Society of the New York Charity Organization Society. Mr. Phipps outlines his plans as follows:

I propose to organize a society for the purpose of building tenement houses in the city of New York, preferably in the borough of Manhattan if it can be done advantageously, but if land be found too high or if building conditions are such as to threaten undue cost of construction or unreasonable delay, then in the other boroughs of the city or elsewhere.

I propose to give \$1,000,000 for this purpose. I expect the tenements to be so planned as to earn about four per cent on their cost, after allowing a proper amount for maintenance and repairs. I intend to have the earnings accumulate and to be used from time to time in erecting more tenements.

My wish is that the rooms should not be rented at a price below the market rate. I do not wish to discourage individual investors from building tenements on a purely business basis. To do this might check

building operations, raise rents, and in the end prove injurious to the working people, whom I wish to aid.

If there is a period of high cost and great inflation, then the work should go very slowly or be stopped. On the other hand, if there is a period of great depression and lack of employment it may be well to go fast and perhaps have more than one building under way at the same time. It would certainly be an advantage to have one building finished and rented, and see how it rents and suits tenants, before starting to erect a second. My object is to make this money do as much good as possible.

I should like the buildings to have all the light and air possible; to have them fire-proof and thoroughly sanitary, and, so far as possible, to have spaces around them in which the children could play. It may be well to erect buildings for perhaps two or three classes of wage-earners, or it may possibly be better to confine ourselves to one class, hoping to thus relieve the market and incidentally benefit another class.

I shall look with great interest to the progress of the work, and perhaps may see much of it finished while I am here to enjoy it. I intend to have the gentlemen whom I have invited to the meeting constitute the trustees of the society, with full power to fill vacancies. To insure the carrying out of the gift I will deposit in a trust company, or with a committee of this board, sufficient cash from time to time to insure the performance of my part.

Mr. Phipps wisely declares that the houses shall be so planned that they will earn at least four per cent on their cost after allowing a reasonable amount for maintenance and repairs. Thus the dwellers in these houses will come into them on much the same basis as dwellers in any other house. They will have the same rights, duties and privileges. But the enterprise is at once removed from the realm of ordinary business by the setting aside of all revenues from the houses for the creation of a fund for erecting other houses. Thus in time all sections of the city may benefit by this fund and the standards of housing will be raised in many neighborhoods. As Mr. Phipps points out, these houses will not discourage legitimate building of houses on a purely commercial basis, but they will set a standard for the building of tenements which will be a decided benefit to the community and a check to that form of speculative building under which a house is built, not to be the home of men, women and children, but to be sold quickly for

the largest possible profit. A fundamental feature of the buildings is that they shall have abundant light and air and playgrounds for the children. These provisions were to be expected from Mr. Phipps' personal interest in such enterprises as the Allegheny playgrounds for children, and the Henry Phipps' Institute for the Study, Treatment and Prevention of Tuberculosis in Philadelphia. Great latitude is given the board of trustees as to location, type of house, and time of building.

Mr. Phipps has not only made immediate provision for the erection of desirable houses but has laid his plans so wisely that the fund he now gives will be of increasing benefit to the city of New York in years to come.

The Delinquent.

The Ohio Board of State Charities has just completed its twenty-eighth annual report. The board strongly recommends some such provision for the criminal insane as is now made in the state of New York. In Ohio the number of insane criminals and criminal insane for the last year was 494. The report says that the "adoption of this policy in Ohio would vastly improve existing conditions in the other state hospitals for the increasing number of ordinary insane."

H. H. Shirer, secretary of the board, calls attention to the abuse of the fee system as applied to the compensation of sheriffs. The laws of Ohio authorize a sheriff to remove a prisoner within thirty days to the institution to which he has been committed. "This law permits the sheriff to keep him fully thirty days to the sheriff's profit, because he receives a stipulated amount per day for prisoners boarded." Excuse for detaining men in jail is made by the sheriff on the ground that a new trial may be secured or some stay of execution, but in many cases the prisoner makes no effort to secure a new trial, and in such cases Mr. Shirer contends that the court should order his removal to the penal institution within a very limited number of days. "The attorney-general has recently ruled that the sentence of a convict does not begin until he reaches the institution to which he has been sentenced. It can

readily be seen that a sheriff with mercenary motives could extend the time during which the convict sentenced to imprisonment for one year is deprived of his liberty from twelve to thirteen months."

Reformatory for Women in New Jersey. The absence of a reformatory for women in New Jersey is felt by all who have to deal with female offenders. There is at present no provision for their moral education and development. The advocates of the proposed reformatory are again making earnest efforts to awaken public sentiment, and to secure legislation during the present year.

Prisoners' Aid in Australia. It takes newspapers a long time to come from Australia to New York. So it is that the *Hobart Mercury* of November 16 brings the pleasing intelligence of the efforts put forward by Mrs. Stafford Bird, who has for some time devoted herself to work in connection with the Hobart jail. In this work she is encouraged by the personal and official support of the premier, the attorney-general and the mayor of the city. The *Mercury* says:

Fortunately, however, there are men and women having larger views of the possibility of reform in the most hardened "cases," who, in spite of much discouragement and disfavor, devote a large portion of their time—and not unsuccessfully—to the reclamation of the criminal. Of this nature is the work which Mrs. Stafford Bird has been carrying on in the Hobart Gaol for a period of over seven years. Single-handed she has conducted weekly services there, and once a year provides a sacred concert, such as that held on Sunday morning last. So highly have her benevolent purposes, and the success of them, been valued, that the government has during the last five years granted her the privileges and status of a gaol chaplain. The royal commission appointed some time since to examine into and report upon our prison system will probably commence its sittings shortly, after which some arrangements for a better classification of the prisoners than exists at present will probably be provided for. Without proper classification the work of reclaiming prisoners is rendered doubly difficult, if not altogether impossible.

Mrs. Bird freely gives her services and the *Tasmanian Mail*, in speaking of the voluntary and unpretentious character of the work, says that it is nevertheless appreciated by those who know how much genuine sympathy and kindly help tend to

brighten the lot of the less fortunate of our fellows.

Mississippi Convicts.

In a recent communication to the *Atlanta Constitution*, Frank Johnston, former attorney-general of Mississippi, discusses in an interesting way the problem of the best method of handling convicts in the southern states. He gives a review of the experience of Mississippi, and reaches the conclusion that the system of leasing convicts is entirely wrong.

In Mississippi the state convicts are worked exclusively upon farms owned by the state. This plan was adopted after the old lease system was done away with. Under the old system there were many abuses, the greatest of these being that the convicts passed, when leased, out of the hands and control of the state. Mr. Johnston thinks the system adopted by his state should be followed by Georgia.

Governor Vardaman and the Treatment of Convicts.

That the state farm system is open to abuses, but that these abuses can be reached by an aroused public opinion recent events in Mississippi tend to show.

A case of alleged brutal whipping on the Rankin state plantation has stirred Governor Vardaman to a course of action that should deter subordinates for a long time from abusing those under their charge. He was not only instrumental, as president of the penitentiary board of control, in removing one of the alleged offenders from his position as sergeant of the convict farm, but he went to Rankin County and made a personal investigation of the facts in the case. And to further insure that justice should be done he employed a special attorney to prepare the evidence for presentation to the next Rankin County grand jury.

On returning from his personal investigation, Governor Vardaman gave out a statement in which he said that the punishment inflicted upon the unfortunate convict was most severe, and if he had been correctly informed of the circumstances, the courts would be derelict in their duty if they failed to inflict a severe penalty on the perpetrators of the crime. He added: "As the board of control has no power to inflict such penalty,

we shall have to look to the courts, and as far as lies in my power the matter will be placed properly before the courts." The special attorney employed by the governor declares that his investigation revealed a deplorable state of affairs. According to him, the specific case that caused the board of control to take summary action was by no means the only one of its kind; the custom of whipping convicts severely is said to have been well established on that particular state plantation.

The New Orleans *Times-Democrat* says of the matter: "Governor Vardaman has by no means exaggerated the importance attaching to even an individual instance of brutal treatment of convicts. . . . There is no question of maudlin sentiment and sympathy with the lawbreaker and the criminal here; it is simply whether a penal establishment is to be made synonymous with the infliction of justly earned penalties, legally determined, or with arbitrary oppression at the discretion of a mere subordinate official.

"It would not be wise, however, to infer from the instance which has stirred Governor Vardaman to such energetic and commendable action that cruelty is the rule on all the plantations on which the Mississippi convicts are employed. As a general thing, the prisoners have little to complain of. They are well fed, well clothed and fairly well treated. The general tendency, we are informed, is to get a better class of men as subordinate officials, to guard against the employment of those whose base, tyrannical instincts will seek free play at the expense of the hapless men under their control. But the Rankin County case shows that the system is not quite perfect, that grave wrongs may occasionally be done. To render the possibility of their recurrence as remote as possible is the patriotic task Governor Vardaman has undertaken."

The *San Francisco Examiner*, in its issue of December 26, printed a strong editorial on the disgraceful conditions of California prisons.

The indictment of San Quentin prison by the State Board of Health corroborates

what has been charged by the men who have been investigating the prison from the standpoint of punishment of crime. The conditions found by the board were a disgrace to the state. The prison is vastly overcrowded. A single cell, twenty-five by twenty-two feet, is made to hold every night a total of thirty-six inmates. Such violation of cubic air laws and of the requirements of decency is not permitted even in Chinatown.

Other conditions are quite as bad. The plumbing is antiquated and worn out, the hospital conditions defective, and no preparation has been made for the segregation of persons afflicted with tuberculosis or similar contagious diseases.

The investigations of the State Board of Health deal only with the conditions in the prison from the standpoint in health. But it is the shameful fact that the conditions from the standpoint of punishing and preventing crime are even worse. The evidence brought out by the legislative investigating committees, the reports of the State Board of Prison Directors, and the investigations by the State Board of Charities and Corrections prove beyond question that our prison system makes criminals instead of deterring or reforming them. The revolting conditions among the convicts are beyond description in a public newspaper or a published report, but they are known to all who have investigated the subject. They are such as to degrade men who have served a term there till they have lost the desire to lead any other life than one of vice and crime. . . .

The editorial thus concludes:

The reform of our prison system is one of the most important tasks before the legislature. It is high time that the state went out of the business of training criminals, and set about the task of lessening their number.

Recent incidents have given special prominence to the fact that women probation officers under salary by the city are now appointed in the magistrates' courts of Brooklyn. The movement in this direction began in Brooklyn some three years ago. The attention of the women's clubs of that borough was called to the subject by the Prison Association of New York and received prompt attention. Representatives of nearly all the women's clubs met in joint session. The opportunity and needs of the work was set before them, and as no provision was made by law the federated clubs decided to raise money to support a probation officer, and Miss Anne Virginia Roome was appointed

*Women Probation
Officers in
Brooklyn.*

to the Gates Avenue Court of which Judge Furlong is magistrate. After thus demonstrating the necessity and value of the work the women's clubs felt that it should be extended and also paid for out of the public treasury. A bill was prepared by the Prison Association and taken up by the clubs through whose united efforts its passages was secured at Albany. It authorized the payment of salaries for women probation officers, the amount being left to the Board of Estimate which fixed it at \$600. Accordingly probation officers have been appointed in the magistrates courts in Brooklyn and have already entered upon their duties.

It was naturally expected that Miss Roome, who had been nominated by the women's clubs and supported by them for two years, would obtain the position in Judge Furlong's court in which she had done admirable work. Judge Furlong's delay in making the appointment led to the discovery that there was another candidate, a woman without experience who was to be appointed for political reasons. Public indignation was aroused and prompt protest followed. A communication was addressed to Judge Furlong signed by Mrs. Martha W. Hooper, chairman of the probationary officers' committee, and by thirty-one other members representing as many women's clubs in Brooklyn and a membership of 8,000. Judge Furlong finally decided to appoint both women and have them divide the salary between them, a proposition which only created further protest.

Comments of the Brooklyn papers have been forcible and timely. It is evident that such an action by a magistrate is well calculated to develop public contempt of court. The attempt to make a political appointment under the circumstances was unpardonable. The significance of the incidence with respect to the proper development of probation systems need not be dwelt upon here.

Judge O'Reilly of the Manhattan Avenue Police Court has settled the matter as far as Miss Roome is concerned by appointing her to his own court, but it will take some time for the charity workers and the women of Brooklyn to forget the incident.

State Boards and Commissions.

Arkansas. The Board of State Charities has presented to the governor an interesting report with respect to the State Lunatic Asylum, which approves the recommendation of the superintendent of the institution that its name be changed to the "Hospital for Nervous Diseases." This board has shown commendable zeal in the erection of two new annexes to the asylum for which the last general assembly made an appropriation of \$140,000. These annexes are now ready for occupancy, and are reported to be up-to-date structures in every particular. Two attendants are employed in each ward and are paid \$20 to \$22.50 a month each.

California. W. A. Gates, secretary of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, made an interesting statement recently with relation to the prison system of California. Among other things:

The prison system of the state requires a radical change in almost every particular. As things are now, criminals do not dread incarceration in the prisons, and that is shown by the number of second termers who are on the prison books. At Folsom we have over nine hundred prisoners quartered when there should be but 500 and in San Quentin we have 1,500, with cells but for 500. At San Quentin cells designed for one man hold two, and cells for two contain four, while we have there a basement in which some two hundred prisoners are quartered, who sleep in bunks tiered one above another. The result is that the strait-jacket is still in use, and must be retained as long as this system of congregation of prisoners is allowed.

Mr. Gates spoke highly of the Preston School of Industry for youthful offenders, where, however, it appears the strap is still in use, although, it is said, but rarely required.

Connecticut. The twenty-third annual report of the State Board of Charities, which has been presented to the governor, contains the following recommendations:

1. That the Indeterminate Sentence Law of 1901 be amended so as to effect its more liberal application.
2. That a state reformatory for women be established.
3. That a commission be appointed to investigate the county jail system of the state

with a view of placing all such jails under the control of a State Board of Prisons.

4. That special provision be made in some institution for the care of sane epileptics of any age.

5. That the state establish a sanatorium for needy persons suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis.

6. That means be devised for the careful investigation of all applications for the commitment of dependent children to the county temporary homes and of dependent or defective persons to any institution supported at public expense.

7. That a system of district almshouses be legalized to take the place of the present town almshouses.

The School for Imbeciles at Lakeville had a total of 229 inmates at the close of the year. It is suggested that a separate department for the care of epileptics be established.

Illinois. The population of the charitable institutions of Illinois continues to increase at a rapid rate. The average number of inmates of the sixteen institutions during the quarter ending September 30 last was 11,480. The institutions were operated at a gross per capita cost of \$40.76 and a net cost of \$36.59.

Indiana. According to the last quarterly report of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, 9,369 persons were being maintained at public expense in the state's charitable and correctional institutions. The increase in maintenance expenses of these institutions over the previous year is \$99,988.86. The average per capita cost for the year was \$167.60.

Governor-elect Hanly was reported soon after election as saying publicly that "No person holding a position in any of the state institutions whose services have been and are efficient and satisfactory will be removed during the administration. I sought to make my position clear concerning this matter before the election and the policy then outlined will not be departed from. I have little patience with the suggestion that faithful and efficient officials in the penal, correctional, charitable or educational institutions of the state shall be removed to make place for others. This will not be done in any case, however great my personal obligation may be to the applicant, nor however dear he may be to me."

This is certainly a very clear cut and satisfactory statement and must be gratifying to those who have been upholding civil service reform principles in Indiana.

Kansas. The estimates of the requirements of the charitable and educational institutions from the coming legislature are said to aggregate \$5,000,000, which exceeds the appropriations of 1903 by half a million dollars. The incoming governor, while pledged to an economical expenditure of the public moneys, will, it is said, favor liberal treatment of the state institutions.

Massachusetts. Cape Cod folk are considerably excited over the alleged establishment of a leper colony in the town of Brewster. There are said to be three lepers in Massachusetts, one at Harwich, near the site of the projected colony, another at Chelsea, and the third in one of the Boston institutions. The chairman of the committee on the leper site is Leontine Lincoln of the State Board of Charities, and Dr. Edward Hitchcock of Amherst College and C. R. Johnson of Worcester are associated with him in the matter.

New York. The State Board of Charities at its meeting on January 11 adopted its thirty-eighth annual report, which was ordered transmitted to the legislature. The board's work embraces a wide field which makes the report necessarily voluminous. The principal recommendations are:

1. That all the special appropriations to enlarge or improve the state institutions within the jurisdiction of the board, be included in one bill, with such provisions as will insure in every instance the most careful and economical expenditure of the moneys appropriated, in exact accordance with the intentions of the legislature. The board believes that it would be found economical, as well as practicable, to concentrate expenditures for construction work at a small number of the institutions annually. This course should expedite such work and secure more favorable terms from the contractors.

2. That the House of Refuge on Randall's Island be reorganized as a state institution with managers appointed by the governor and confirmed by the senate, and that, in accordance with the provisions of chapter 718 of the laws of 1904, it be removed to

a country site as soon as possible. The board also recommends that the appointment of employes at this institution be made in accordance with the rules of the state civil service, if practicable.

3. That the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women at Newark, and the Rome State Custodial Asylum at Rome be enlarged so as to enable them to receive all the feeble-minded and idiotic persons now retained in almshouses contrary to the provisions of the poor law and the penal code, or provided for in private institutions at greatly enlarged cost to the various counties, cities and towns of the state; and the adult feeble-minded now improperly retained at the Syracuse State Institution for Feeble-minded Children.

As Governor Higgins has made substantially the same recommendations in his message, it is hoped that they will be adopted by the legislature at the present session.

The board recommends appropriations for maintenance of the state institutions amounting to \$1,399,375, and for improvements aggregating \$842,278, a grand total of \$2,181,653. This is \$370,000 more than was appropriated last year, the increase being due to the deferred expenditures, sometimes erroneously called "economies," of the last administration.

The board calls attention to the serious delay in building operations at some of the state institutions, and in this connection says:

In the opinion of the board it would be greatly to the state's advantage if some definite and comprehensive plan for the construction of state buildings and the laying out of their grounds could be adopted. In this way something approaching a standard could be followed and the more or less haphazard methods through which the state has expended millions of dollars in construction work avoided hereafter. A commission composed of experienced and representative men should be able to decide upon some plan that the state might wisely follow. Such a commission as the mayor of New York city has appointed to suggest plans for the extension and improvement of that city on definite lines is suggested.

Considerable space in the report is devoted to a consideration of the recent report of the commissioner-general of immigration with relation to dependent aliens in the charitable and reformatory institutions of New York. The board expresses the belief that the whole sub-

Immigration and State Wards.

ject of the deportation of dependent alien immigrants is one with which the United States authorities should deal exclusively and in a more liberal manner than at present. This is especially so, the board believes, because such deportation is likely to give rise to international questions, with which the individual states are not in a position to deal. An analysis of the case records of individual aliens in the almshouses of the state was made in the belief that it would furnish a fair test of the nature of the more serious alien dependency pointed out by the commissioner-general in his report. These records were collected by the United States authorities, and were copied by the state board which employed a clerk at Washington for that purpose. Out of 939 cases tabulated—544 being women, who seldom take out citizens' papers—but seventy-five were found who had been in this country less than five years, while 513 had been here over twenty years. The records also showed that most of these aliens had been in this country for long periods of time before commitment, thus, it is held, dispelling any idea that the state, so far as the almshouses are concerned, is suffering to any appreciable extent from assisted immigration.

The question has been raised as to whether the commissioner-general's efforts are not so much directed toward keeping out dependent aliens as they are to keeping out those who are likely by their competition to make others dependent.

The board also, at its meeting of the 11th, adopted a minute with relation to the late superintendent of state and alien poor, Byron M. Child, and appointed Dr. Robert W. Hill, who for over a year has rendered very acceptable service as acting superintendent of state and alien poor, to the vacant position.

New Hampshire. The fifth biennial report of the State Board of Charities and Correction has been received. This covers the period commencing October 1, 1902, and ending September 30, 1904. It is an illuminating document, full of useful information about charity work in New Hampshire and is worthy of perusal. The chief recommendations for legislation are that the New Hampshire

School for the Feeble-Minded also give custodial care to feeble-minded women, and that a separate building be erected for epileptics. The board recommends that a separate building for girls be erected at the State Industrial School. This would seem to be doubtful policy. Many institution workers would recommend a separate institution as in almost all, if not all, the other New England states.

The board recommends that a state workhouse or reformatory be established for the custody of prisoners committed for minor offenses, and that juvenile courts and a probation system be established in New Hampshire.

North Carolina. The State Board of Public Charities has recently been in annual session at Raleigh. Its members are W. A. Blair, Winston-Salem, chairman; E. L. Horton, Pollockville; W. F. Craig, Marion; Cary J. Hunter, Raleigh; Col. A. C. McAllister, Asheboro. The report of the secretary, Miss Daisy Denson, was considered. It shows the necessity for enlarging the provision for the care of the insane, and especially for the white insane, the colored being cared for in larger proportion it is reported. Provision is especially needed for patients of this class suffering from tuberculosis. The board decided to recommend the establishment of an infirmary for blind children, a school for the feeble-minded and a reformatory; also the enactment of a juvenile court law at least for the larger towns.

Pennsylvania. Governor Pennypacker, it is said, wants to abolish the State Board of Charities, and to substitute "a director and a commissioner" paid to look after the institutions requiring state aid.

It is surprising that the politicians of Pennsylvania have not previously awakened to the possibilities of the situation. They are behind several other states in this respect, but no doubt can quickly catch up.

The secretary of the state board, in company with other officials, recently investigated a complaint against the Schuylkill county almshouse near Pottsville,

which was found to be overcrowded and not particularly well managed.

Washington, D. C. The members of the Board of Charities recently appeared before the sub-committee of the House Committee on Appropriations to urge that congress gradually withdraw its support from private charities. The board recommends that the amounts be reduced from year to year until the entire sum is cut off and the institutions have learned to support themselves.

The board has been holding an investigation into the affairs and management of the Reform School for Girls, the results of which have not yet been made public.

Washington. The second biennial report of the Board of Control of the state of Washington has been received and is an interesting public document. It covers the term beginning October 1, 1902, and ending September 30, 1904.

This board has six state institutions under its control, with the following average population and daily per capita cost during the biennial period: Western Hospital for the Insane, population, 744, cost \$35; Eastern Hospital for the Insane, population, 393, cost, \$41; State Penitentiary, population, 631, cost, \$32; State Reform School, population, 152, cost, \$38; State Soldiers' Home, population, 209, cost, \$47; State School for Defective Youth, population, 138, cost, \$62.

Additional buildings are asked for at all the institutions except the Reform School, which is said to be the only one not overcrowded. The last legislature, it appears, passed a bill admitting idiots to the School for Defective Youth, causing an increase in the per capita cost.

Photographic views of the insane hospitals show imposing structures, some of them, unfortunately, as much as four stories in height. None of the state institutions, it appears from the report, are of fire-proof construction, and it is not the policy of the state to carry fire insurance.

As a rule, good salaries and wages seem to be paid to the employes of the Washington state institutions, particularly to the cheaper class of help.

Notes of the Week.

Diocesan Social Service Committee.—A temporary committee on social service of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Long Island has been appointed by Bishop Burgess as an experiment, which, if successful, will result in a permanent committee next year. Bishop Burgess is chairman, Canon William Sheafe Chase, secretary, and there are thirteen other members, clergymen and laymen. The committee has taken immediate steps to secure another probation officer for the Brooklyn courts, and is now employing Charles H. Warner, of the Alfred Corning Clark Neighborhood House, Manhattan, to act as probation officer in the local court of Special Sessions. The work is, of course, wholly unsectarian, Mr. Warner having no connection with the Protestant Episcopal Church. On January 6 this committee held, in co-operation with the Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor, a meeting for workmen and others who might be interested, at Christ Church, Bedford avenue, Brooklyn. The speakers, Canon Chase, and Dr. Peters of St. Michael's Church, Manhattan, emphasized the necessity of the church in taking an active interest in social problems, and particularly urged two important issues—the upholding of the child labor law, and co-operation with the American Federation of Labor in securing the vestibuling of surface cars for the protection of motormen. Both speakers advised the formation, in each parish, of classes to study social questions and co-operate in efforts for social betterment.

Tenement-house Advisory Board.—A meeting was held early this month at the residence of Commissioner T. C. Crain, to which were invited settlement workers and others interested from a social standpoint in the administration of the New York Tenement-house Department. Its object, as Mr. Crain explained, was to discuss the institution of what might be called an advisory board or council in tenement-house matters which would meet once a month to consider frankly and informally the work of the department. It was Mr. Crain's idea that the council should be representative of different sections. The plan is of special interest to those who knew of the successful working of such an advisory board in connection with the street cleaning department under Colonel Waring. Mr. Crain's suggestion, however, was independent of this precedent, and steps are being taken to carry it into effect.

Further Employment Agency Regulation.—The Woman's Trades Union League has a special committee on employment for women, Miss Mary E. McDowell, chairman, W. English Walling, Raymond Robbins, Miss Frances A. Kellor and Miss Margaret D. Dreier. The committee is drafting a

uniform bill to regulate employment agencies for all states, based on recent investigations or employment agencies and on the experience of those states in which adequate laws are enforced. It is the intention of the committee to present the bill in the various states and in congress, in so far as the District of Columbia is concerned. Another part of the committee's work will be to prevent the sending of women from one state to another on false promises of work during strikes.

State Florence Crittenden Association.—A state organization known as the New Jersey Florence Crittenden Association is the result of a two days' conference recently held in Trenton, N. J., under the auspices of the national committee of the Florence Crittenden Mission. The conference was largely attended by delegates from Newark, Plainfield, Elizabeth, Montclair, the Oranges, and Paterson. The state organization will, it is hoped, knit closer together the rescue work undertaken in the different parts of the state, and develop co-operation among the several agencies more closely. Mrs. A. E. Oliphant of Trenton, has been made president; Dr. William R. Ward of Newark and F. C. Harder of Plainfield, vice-presidents; Miss Perrin of Newark, secretary.

The Resignation of Commissioner Williams.—William Williams, commissioner of immigration at the port of New York, has tendered his resignation after an administration that has set a standard which will make further development of the social efficiency of Ellis Island doubly feasible, and which, on the other hand, will be quick to show up in humiliating relief possible traces of mediocrity in any succeeding administration. Mr. Williams has served through the exacting years of a high-tide period of immigration, and has met its responsibilities with even courage and excellence.

A Correction.—In Mr. Whitney's article on the "Conduct Woodyard," published in CHARITIES for December 31, a clause in the sixth paragraph was omitted through a typographical error. The sentence should read: "But the public by whose contributions our work must be sustained and which thereby commutes with its conscience in many individual applications, would soon work large refusals on our part, good cause for refusal of our applications."

Lectures by Professor Patten.—A special course of five lectures, on "The New Basis of Civilization," will be given before the New York School of Philanthropy by Prof. Simon N. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania the week beginning January 23. Lectures at 3 P. M.

Mr. Hynes' Appointment.—Thomas W. Hynes, commissioner of corrections under Mayor Low, has been appointed to a responsible post in the civil administration of Porto Rico.

Relief Work in the Fall River Strike¹

Relief given to the strikers in Fall River, Massachusetts, was discussed at the Monday Evening Club in Boston on January 16, by Dr. Joshua F. Lewis of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity, Miss Alice E. Wetherbee, secretary of the Fall River Associated Charities and John Golden, president of the United Textile Workers of America.

This strike, which was begun July 25, 1904, is in several ways remarkable. It has been conducted absolutely without violence, although 26,000 operatives have been idle for twenty-five weeks; the total arrests from August 1 to December 31 have been 1315, or 666 less than in the corresponding months in 1903; and \$26,500 has been distributed from the relief stations of the labor unions to the families of non-unionist operatives. Dr. Lewis, who has spent more time in Fall River than in the state house since August 1, estimated the number of people affected in employment by the strike as between 60,000 and 70,000. It is true the operatives out on strike number 26,000, of whom only 6,000 belong to any union, but the many former operatives who in old age "mind the baby" in families where parents work in the mills, were affected with all those others whose work was dependent on the wages of the operatives, which aggregated \$200,000 a week.

There are seventy-one cotton mills in Fall River, and after all except the few owned by one man closed their doors, the Textile Council composed of the secretaries of the five unions, opened eight relief stations in the nine wards of the city for the relief of the non-union workers. They were rarely able to keep open more than a day and a half at a time. In Massachusetts, if a man has paid taxes three years out of five in a city or town, relief when needed comes from the treasury of the city or town, and the state has to thank a vigilant tax collector of eight or ten years ago who made so many of the operatives citizens of Fall River. Most of those who came to the state for relief were Portuguese

¹Since this was written, the conference called by Governor Douglass has resulted in the closing of the strike. The operatives go back at a reduction of 12½ per cent and the cost basis for future increase is left to the governor to determine.

and Poles and this points the evolution from the old mill days in New England, when the mothers of the present mill owners worked in the mills and memorized poetry. The state has paid between \$6,000 and \$7,000 and the city \$30,000 in orders on the city store for \$1.50 or \$2.00 in groceries. Also, some applicants have been sent to the state hospital and others to Europe or the Azores. All families were seen in their homes before these orders were given. Families have appeared to live on surprisingly small sums; of course no rent has been paid, and the loss to the landlords has been about \$30,000 a month. Only four of the mills own mill tenements. None of the speakers had heard of a single eviction.

On November 14, the mills opened for business and were ready to take back all their operatives at the twelve and one-half per cent reduction, which was the controlling cause of the strike. This presented a new situation to the mind of those who administered the public funds. "The men had opportunity to work, and support their families, and the state could no longer aid," said Dr. Lewis, "without becoming a party to the strike." Thereupon he refused to give aid outside the state hospital at Tewksbury. In November the city of Fall River aided 4194 families and the state of Massachusetts 1143; in December the city aided 3278 and the state 241.

Miss Wetherbee gave an interesting glimpse of the general situation and showed the need of sanity in relief even when mills close their doors, for imposition and self-seeking cannot be kept behind closed doors but complicate the situation at every turn. In addition to the public relief and that of the labor unions, the Salvation Army has fed 1500 daily and one of the churches gave free soup to about 400 daily; the other churches gave their donations largely through the Associated Charities. The accounts of the suffering have been greatly exaggerated in some of the Boston newspapers, and we have been told that people went without breakfast or supper and to bed without light, while children ran cold

and hungry through the streets. Miss Wetherbee stated that in 300 families that she visited for the State Board of Charity, one-quarter did not need relief, and that in the homes of 200 applicants visited between November 1 and December 1, only eight were found without a fire and to those known to her coal was promptly supplied. It was impossible to prevent duplication except in the aid given by the labor unions, the public relief, and her own society. A mechanic earning eighteen to twenty dollars a week had his younger children clothed by the Salvation Army because his older children were on strike.

The cheaper theatres have been well patronized, the department stores had a better holiday trade than last year, and other significant facts and incidents were cited to prove the exaggeration of the suffering said to be seen in the street. But there was real privation that was sought out, for it would not have been found at the relief stations and free soup kitchens. Miss Wetherbee spoke of the generosity of mill treasurers and those owning mill stock, who gave liberally to her funds and said, even after the mill doors were opened in November, "Give where there is illness and at your discretion." It was in her eyes honor that they were not on record as "strike-breakers."

Mr. Golden was as fair and impartial in his statements as the earlier speakers. He was asked to speak on the relief work during the strike, and he spoke no word of the cause of the strike or points of difference between the manufacturers and the operatives. The listeners realized that if this leader's counsel should prevail there would be self-control and absence of violence in all strikes. His appreciation of the difficulties of dispensing charity and of the wisdom and generosity of the workers in Fall River was expressed in a way to presage increasingly helpful relation between charity workers and labor unions in the future. "Dispensing of charity is a science. When a man gives a dime wisely he feels a dollar better for it, but when he gives a dime to fraud, he feels like thirty cents!"

In this did not Mr. Golden state the common experience?

The \$26,500 given at the union relief stations to non-union men was all in the

form of checks with a purchasing power of one dollar and two dollars at the grocery and provision stores. All families were visited before the checks were given. It is believed that 14,000 people have left the city; some have been sent for by managers of small mills in the Connecticut Valley, for the operatives in Fall River are highly skilled. The spirit of fairness and fair play has been so prominent in the conduct of this long strike, and there has been so much good will and understanding by each side for the other that the failure to arbitrate is as surprising as it is lamentable. The manufacturers claim they are paying wages forty per cent higher than those of the South, and ten per cent to twenty per cent higher than other northern cities. The question at issue is, can cotton goods be manufactured in New England with the large state tax levied on industries, while rival mills run in the South, where no state tax is levied and where operatives work seventy-two hours a week for lower wages? Is the manufacturer entirely wrong who writes, "Would it not be better for the operatives to work at the reduction, and put their energy into organizing labor in the South, so that with shorter hours and better wages there, cotton would be forced to a selling price that the consumer must pay to permit us to restore the former high rate of wages?" But this is an economic question that was not touched upon by the three speakers, who, with rare judgment, spoke on the relief problem, as they were asked to do, and not on the strike that produced it.

Representatives of the operatives and manufacturers are now in session with the governor, and this strike, which has cost the loss of \$4,000,000 in wages and \$10,000,000 to the manufacturers, which has perhaps held in the balance the cotton industry of the North, may soon be settled. But whichever way it is settled, "two points are clear; the child labor laws of the states must become more nearly one, and the hours of labor in the different states must be brought nearer together. A southern state must not be permitted to repeal its labor laws and its taxes on factories in order to tempt northern capital, for we are brothers and our interdependence is proved."

CHARITIES

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The definite organization of the New York School of Philanthropy, under the terms of the gift of John S. Kennedy, has been effected and plans are formulating to considerably enhance its measure of service in the field of philanthropic education. The membership of the committee is as follows:

Robert W. de Forest, chairman, president of the Charity Organization Society.

Appointive: Miss Annie B. Jennings, Mrs. Frederic S. Lee, Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, Mrs. W. B. Rice, Otto T. Bannard, Charles F. Cox, Silas F. Hallock, Frederic B. Jennings, Seth Low, Alfred T. White.

Ex officio: John S. Kennedy, president of the United Charities; Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University; R. Fulton Cutting, president of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; Henry Rice, president of the United Hebrew Charities; Thomas M. Mulry, president of the Particular Council of New York of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul.

Edward T. Devine, director.

Philip W. Ayres, Alexander Johnson, Anna Garlin Spencer, associate directors. The winter term of the School of Philanthropy, New York, opened on Monday, January 9, with a good attendance of students. Of the thirty-six regular students, more than half are taking the full year's work. The examination conducted at the close of the fall term disclosed a degree of proficiency which was highly gratifying to the directors.

Occasional afternoon lectures arranged by the school have been fairly well attended and will be continued. Arrangements are at present pending for several. Tickets of invitation for these lectures, the admission to which is free, may be

had in the central office of the Charity Organization Society. During the past week Prof. Simon N. Patten has given a series of five lectures on *The New Basis of Our Civilization*.

An extension course to the graduating class at the Nurses' Training School on Blackwell's Island, began on Wednesday, January 4, Mrs. Spencer being the first lecturer.

The Institute of Social Science and Arts, organized under the University College, University of Chicago,

under the directorship of Prof. Graham Taylor, enters upon its second quarter this month with every evidence of effectiveness in carrying forward the purpose which brought it into being. The Illinois Conference of Charities and Corrections endorsed the institute. The attendance has been regular and for the last quarter's work forty registrations are reported, an attendance for the initial year which is especially gratifying. Dr. Hastings H. Hart's class, on the care of dependent and delinquent children, is continued. It has numbered twenty members, most of whom are actually engaged in the work. So also is the course on industrial relationships given by Professor Cummings and Professor Taylor. The lecturers during the coming quarter include Miss Julia C. Lathrop of Hull House, Frank B. Sanborn of Massachusetts, Dr. F. H. Wines, Prof. Charles R. Henderson, Dr. Alice Hamilton, Memorial Institute for Infectious Diseases, Dr. Charles Louis Mix of the Northwestern University School of Medicine, Dr. Sanger Brown of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and Raymond Robins, superintendent of Chicago Municipal Lodging-house. A series of open lectures on

Monday evenings throughout the winter give wider audience to the work of the institute.

Notes of the Week.

A January Conference.—Convalescent poor and how they are cared for was the subject of the first conference of the year under the auspices of the Women's Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, Miss Kate Bond, chairman, held in the Assembly Hall, January 17. Mrs. Clarence Burns told of feeble children in the tenements and the agencies which try to reach them. Dr. Anginette Perry told of the work among mothers discharged from hospitals with newborn babies. Of equal interest was Dr. Mary Willet's description of the value of mutual benefit clubs to women. The winter series of conferences opened very auspiciously with this meeting. The February conference will be held Tuesday, the 21st, one of the speakers being Mornay Williams, president of the New York Juvenile Asylum, and another, Mayor Osborn of Auburn.

Baldwin Memorial Meeting.—A Baldwin memorial meeting will be held Sunday evening, February 5 (the late William H. Baldwin's birthday) at Cooper Union, New York. Robert W. de Forest will be chairman, and the speakers will be Felix Adler, representing the Committee of Fifteen and the special Child Labor Committee, Thomas R. Slicer representing the People's Institute and the City Club, Robert C. Ogden who will speak of the man, and David Blaustein who will give the East Side view. The special purpose of the service is "to gather an audience composed of those who are engaged in social service in New York and of dwellers in those sections affected by such work: in other words, a representative audience of people."

New York Monday Club.—The staff of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor will entertain the New York Monday Club on the evening of January 30. A question box, one of the regular features of the association's work, will be opened during the evening. Dr. Walter B. James will speak informally on "Life Outdoors in Winter Time"—a lecture which will be illustrated with colored slides and brimful of practical suggestions. Dr. Linsly R. Williams will tell of the "Snow Babies at Sea Breeze" and Dr. Charlton Wallace will answer questions as to the present salt air, winter, outdoor treatment of the little tuberculosis patients.

Social Service Club, Chicago.—The January meeting last week of the Social Service Club of Chicago carried out further the plan of acquainting social workers with

the different immigrant communities in the city. Those asked to speak were Father Andrew Spetz of St. Stanislaus parish, with its membership of over thirty thousand Poles and carrying on a many-sided social work, and the Rev. E. A. Adams who has had many years in the "City of Dead Levels," as the Bohemian quarter is sometimes called. The meeting was held at Chicago Commons where dinner was served at forty cents a plate.

Charity Organization in Norway.—During the summer of 1903, G. Frellson, agent of the Milwaukee Associated Charities, made a tour through the Scandinavian countries, studying the charities and social work being carried on there. He interested several charity workers in the city of Christiana in the work carried forward in Milwaukee and the United States generally, in the way of organized charity, and there are some indications that a charity organization society will result in the capital of Norway.

The Death of Hiram Calkins.—Homeopathic medical circles in New York have suffered a severe loss in the death of Hiram Calkins, for many years president of the Hahnemann Hospital, of which he was one of the founders. Besides his considerable service in the field of hospital administration, Mr. Calkins will be remembered for his newspaper work from the 60's to the 80's. He was present at the death of President Lincoln, and his account of that event has been republished many times.

Household Work in the South.—The household problem in Memphis, Tenn., has grown to such proportions that a serious attempt is in progress to substitute immigrant Irish girls for negroes. The Woman's Club of Memphis is said to have a plan for importing women from Ireland, meeting them in New York through the cooperation of the immigration authorities and placing them in Memphis homes as general houseworkers.

National Conference of Charities and Correction.—The Rev. S. G. Smith, president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, will visit the Holy Land this winter sailing on February 7, on the "Deutschland," via Naples. He will be absent about two months. During his absence all correspondence referring to the conference will be conducted by the general secretary. Address Alexander Johnson, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York.

Stony Wold Sanatorium.—Mrs. Florence F. Kolby, who has been acting secretary of the national tuberculosis committee, has been made general secretary of the Stony Wold Corporation, and the executive side of the work has been centralized at the city office, 118 West Sixty-ninth street.

Special Training for Social Work

ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, JANUARY 17, 1905

Address of Daniel C. Gilman

President of Johns Hopkins University

The occasion which has brought us together is fine, fine among all the religious and philanthropic reunions of this metropolis, fine like gold among the useful and precious metals. Added to the ordinary themes of such an anniversary, we have to-day the freshness of a new problem, namely, the potentialities of systematic training in the conduct of charities. or as the cards of invitation have expressed it, "special training for social work." John Ruskin once said in his poetical prose, "Charity is wound with white roses which burst as they open into flames of fire," and I choose to suppose that he meant, in ordinary parlance, "Simple deeds of charity often develop with unexpected brilliancy." An unexpected and munificent act now claims our attention, one which has burst like "a flame of fire" upon the unobtrusive work of friendly visitors among the poor, not only in Manhattan, but in other places where the seeds of systematic charity are planted. A large-minded and large-hearted man, John S. Kennedy, who provided not long ago a building for four co-operative charities, has given a fund to maintain the agencies by which workers in various departments of humanitarian effort may be prepared for their duties, by guidance, instruction, and inspiration. In distant places as well as in this city his bounty has been recognized as wise, timely and far-sighted, freighted with great possibilities, laden with great expectations. It has been received with the heartiest gratitude.

The circumstances of this gift are well known. For several years a summer school in charitable work has been maintained in this city under the skilful superintendence of Dr. Philip W. Ayres. From this nucleus the New York School of Philanthropy is now developed, thanks in a great degree to Mr. Kennedy, and to the president of this society,

Robert W. de Forest. A large staff of instructors is enlisted, under whom a goodly company of students are enrolled for the scholastic year, and many more are coming in the summer. Get the *Hand Book of the School of Philanthropy* and be surprised, as I have been, by the variety of courses already offered, their adaptation to the presents wants of the country, and the number of experts engaged as leaders and guides, under the direction of Dr. Devine, Mr. Johnson and Mrs. Spencer.

Other antecedents should be brought to mind, imprimis the excellent and suggestive initiative of Frank B. Sanborn at Cornell University, in the administration of President White. The informal classes in the Johns Hopkins University, fathered by Herbert B. Adams, and quickened by the enthusiasm of that rarely gifted man, the late John Glenn, should not be forgotten, for they had not a little influence upon such remarkably influential characters as Amos G. Warner, John H. Finlay, Albert Shaw, E. R. L. Gould, Jeffrey R. Brackett, John M. Glenn, P. W. Ayres, Miss Richmond and Mrs. Glenn. The classes in Hartford, Ct., and the highly organized work in the University of Chicago under Professor Henderson are memorable. Among the most important of all such agencies is the Training School for Social Workers under the auspices of Harvard University and Simmons College. To Boston, the shining focus of charity and knowledge, Dr. Brackett, one of the wisest of American experts in the domain of charitable relief, has been called away from three important stations which he held in Baltimore, and is now inaugurating organized instruction in the various branches of charitable effort. Now New York comes to the front, larger, richer, more venturesome than any other city. The building was here, the leaders, the schol-

ars, the ideas, the organization. "Wanting was what?" Endowment! So Endowment enters the field, bearing a letter which is a sort of charter, a bill not of rights but of duties, a summary of principles. If you have not read it, get a copy and be instructed by Mr. Kennedy's conception of the School of Philanthropy. Observe three points in his letter:

First—His gift is not an impulse, nor an answer to an appeal, but is the fruit of scrutiny—scrutiny of the work performed in New York during the last seven years.

Second—Remark the emphasis laid by this benefactor upon the spirit of co-operation with the educational and philanthropic institutions of this city, already fostered by the incorporation of the United Charities.

Third—Read and remember this dictum. Mr. Kennedy says:

There is the same need for knowledge and experience in relieving the complex disabilities of poverty that there is in relieving mere ailments of the body, and the same process of evolution, that has brought into our hospital service the trained physician and the trained nurse, increasingly calls for the trained charity worker.

This one sentence comprises a volume. It might serve as a motto, to be repeated over and over again.

Two pithy sayings of Ralph Waldo Emerson have occurred to me as this gift has been considered. One of them is this: "A new degree of intellectual power seems cheap at any price," and the other is this: "Nothing great was ever achieved without enthusiasm." With enthusiasm, therefore, we are to consider the potentiality of training in the field of philanthropy, and the attainment of a new degree of intellectual power.

One word of caution to the outside world. Hands off! Let not these schools of philanthropy be multiplied too rapidly. Those now established are quite enough for immediate wants, certainly in the Atlantic States. Let them be built up before rival or imitative beginnings are made elsewhere; let the fruitage come before cuttings are planted.

If there are any in this assemblage skeptical in respect to the objects of this

foundation, let me ask them to bear in mind some general principles.

Modern society makes much use of three factors, indeed, all progress depends upon them. These are they: Co-operation, investigation and education. Do you shun the words that end in —tion? Then take these: Union, knowledge and training—and consider what they involve.

Union. Begin with Union. By a few examples be reminded

of this idea, that combination is the note of our times. In the political world you may bring to mind the opposition to disunion in the United States of America, and in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; you may recall the union of Austria and Hungary; the resurgence of new Italy; and the restitution of the German Empire. Efforts for reunion among the Christian churches are widely supported. See how Greater New York has been constituted. Notice the organizations of capital and labor. Tell me, is not association the watchword of the twentieth century? Among objects near at hand, the fruits of seeds planted long ago, may we not look for the early ripening of religious brotherhood, united charities, and international justice? Webster's ringing phrase comprehends it all, "Liberty and Union, one and inseparable, now and forever."

Knowledge. Next consider Knowledge.

I use this word, and not science (though they mean pretty much the same), because for some reason science has not been a popular word. It has suggested to the non-scientific mind abstract mathematics, astronomical tables, lists of fishes, bugs, birds, beasts and plants, the artificial nomenclature of minerals and rocks and the still more unpronounceable terminology of modern chemistry. Applied to charity, science has seemed abstract, impractical, cold, and distant, far removed from sentiment and affection, and even from humanity and good will. But when science is seen to be the summary of man's observation and experience no thoughtful person can question its value. "What has been found out?" or "What do we know?" or "What are the facts?" are the queries with which researches should begin. Knowledge is

the starting point of all good actions. Accurate information was sought by the ancient Babylonians and the golden rule was recognized in remote antiquity, but the notion that Science and Philanthropy could be wedded and made co-operative is a modern thought. Even now, there are many charitable and intelligent persons who do not comprehend what this union signifies. They prefer to be governed by impulse rather than by principles, sentiment not wisdom. Yet the number is constantly increasing throughout all civilized lands of those who would discover, if possible, wise methods of prevention and remedy. These are they who would infuse sympathy with knowledge; who would ascertain facts as the basis for appropriate action. These are they who recognize such a field of inquiry as social pathology, the ascertainment of the nature and causes of social disorders and decay, so that relief appropriate to individual cases may be discovered and applied. What sort of a doctor would he be who trusted to sentiment and not to knowledge and skill? He would be a hoodoo.

Remedies have already been discovered for many evils; modes of prevention have been ascertained; the means of applying this knowledge to individuals, and to communities, have been sought out, and there is abundant inquiry in progress as to the treatment of the social cancers and innumerable ills which prey upon humanity. Legislation has come to the service of philanthropy. In fact, philanthropy appears to be going through the experiences of other sciences. Recount the advance of medicine—kind impulses, obvious relief, traditional experience, accurate records, comparison of treatment, accepted principles, systematic investigation, the abolition of certain diseases, the control of others, the lessening of minor ailments, the prolongation of life, and often, Euthanasia.

Likewise charity begins with pity and sympathy, leads on to "oil and wine," proceeds to discover the causes of distress, investigates cases, applies permanent relief, and, by judicious help, counsel and restrictions, restores the individual to health, moral as well as physical, while it enables society to frame such

laws and apply such methods as will reduce, if not abolish, many evil tendencies and correct many evils.

Training. I come in the third place to the subject of Training. Modern society is so complex that in every pursuit some degree of preparation is requisite, and this preparation must not only be general, based upon a broad acquaintance with the subject in hand; it must be adapted, as near as may be, to particular callings. Recurring again to the medical parallel of our charter, remember that in colonial days, the same man had the cure of souls and the cure of bodies, like the famous Jared Eliot of Connecticut. By and by, preaching and practice were separated. Then the good physician was an all around man, willing to amputate a leg or dispense the medicament of Paracelsus, *elixir pro prietatis*. Specialization at length separated surgery from medicine. Presently all branches of surgery were too much for one man, and the oculist, the aurist, the gynecologist, received special training. Medicine called for consultants as well as practitioners. Again, the distinction was made between the physician on the one hand who is devoted only to science, the anatomist, the physiologist, and the pathologist, and on the other the physician who is in constant attendance upon the sick. Nursing after Florence Nightingale became a most important cult. Different kinds of nurses are now called for. All this illustrates the doctrine that following special aptitudes special training for special callings is the demand of modern society. Only be it remembered special training should always be based upon education as broad and solid as the circumstances of the individual can secure.

The Workers. Apply these illustrations to philanthropic work. Evidently there are two classes of workers to be trained—those who can give all their time to the public good, and those who exercise charity incidentally, but not exclusively. Some of those who devote themselves to the dispensation of charity as a career may rise to stations of importance, may be overseers of the poor, secretaries of charity societies, superin-

tendents of refuges and asylums, students and writers, perhaps teachers and lecturers. Others will be contented with the equally honorable but less conspicuous work of friendly visitors among the poor and needy, or perchance, municipal or state advisers and trustees of beneficent institutions.

A private letter sums up the situation with such felicity that I will ask leave to read it. After visiting certain classes in the Boston school of philanthropy, my friend¹ writes thus:

I saw there a fine lot of bright young men and women eager to learn. Some were looking to being paid workers, others to being volunteers. I felt that the greatest value of the school was in the spirit it inspired. Its object is to teach people to be good citizens, to work for the benefit of the community. The object of everything taught is the helping of others. The students are not studying in order to benefit themselves. And they are being trained to work in social matters with care and thought. If any choose not to follow in the special lines treated at the school, the point of view gained will be most helpful to them and to the community in whatever direction their energy is directed. So we may hope that the influence of these schools will radiate far beyond the limited field of charities, correction, settlements, and the like.

Another element in the training of prime value is that it gives the student a general but clear view of the whole field before taking up any special line of work. So when he approaches a family in distress he is prepared to look for all the weak spots and to prescribe proper remedies of various kinds, material, moral and spiritual, to cure various and varying needs.

I mention these points because they have not, apparently, had much stress laid on them.

During the nineteenth century, what is called higher education as distinguished from elementary has in this country at least, in accordance with the principles of evolution, developed from the simple to the complex. It was not until the nineteenth century began that there were among us any schools of medicine, law and theology. About the middle of the century technological and scientific schools were established. These were soon subdivided, and courses for chemists, architects, electricians, miners were provided. A little later came training for biologists, physicists, psychologists, historians, economists. Simultaneously schools have been established for many varieties of manual industry. Recently came schools for nurses. The youngest child

¹ John M. Glenn.

of Education is now in his cradle, and is christened Philanthropy. What will this child be and do when he reaches maturity? The question cannot be answered. Yet human experience shows that good ideas never die; they expand. They may be dormant like grains of wheat enwrapped in mummy cloths, or hidden, like bread cast upon the overflow of the Nile—but the vitality continues. However, some predictions may be hazarded.

A large number of students will be enrolled as soon as the opportunities and advantages are understood. This goes without saying. Probably very few to begin with will follow one prescribed course. The attendants are likely to have special needs and the administration will endeavor to satisfy the wants of individuals, rather than to form a few classes following a curriculum. There will certainly be many lectures addressed to audiences as large as this room will contain.

The Workshop. This school will enlarge its special library of books that embody the experience of mankind in all departments of social activity. It will include the manuals of active organizations, reports, statistics, addresses. There will be histories of municipalities and states. Walpole's *History of England* will be bought for the one chapter on the results of English reform. There will be biographies of the immortals, illustrious benefactors of society, martyrs and saints of the ancient world, reformers and enthusiasts of the middle ages. St. Vincent de Paul and Francke of Halle will stand side by side with more recent leaders in philanthropy from John Howard to Lord Shaftesbury, from Count Rumford to Montefiore. The works of moralists and promoters of ethical culture, like Maurice, Davies, Lyman Abbott, Westcott, Tucker and Hodges, will be in the library. Economists and statisticians will not be omitted. The studies of the liquor problem by the Committee of Fifty, reports on crime and punishment, from Francis Lieber to Charlton T. Lewis, the year books of Josiah Strong and Robert Hunter's study of millions of the poverty stricken are sure to be remembered. Philosophers will be represented from the

ancient Greeks to Herbert Spencer; and historians, like John T. Merz who has recently written a remarkable book on *European Thought in the Nineteenth Century*. There will be a shelf of choice books, bound with gilt edges, works of the idealists, those torch bearers who peer into the darkness and awaken our imaginations, followers of Plato and our own contemporaries. A catalogue raisonnée, something more than lists, something less than reviews, should be prepared for ready reference. It would have a wide circulation beyond the library room.

Not long ago I asked the librarian of one hundred thousand books, how many of them were on the subject of philanthropy. Possibly fifty, was his reply. Five thousand should have been the number. Ten thousand should be collected for this new school.

With such nitrogenous stimulus, we shall, perhaps, ere long have a series of new and timely publications. Our excellent journal CHARITIES, interesting and indispensable, will henceforth be more valuable than ever. It will be a record of progress at home and abroad. If Americans have made no such study as that of Charles Booth in London, we have many capital contributions, made by our colleagues and associates, to this branch of literature. The *Gesta Christi* of Charles L. Brace is one such book: the memoir of Dr. S. G. Howe another. Remember the prison studies of Dr. Wines. Indispensable are the social statistics of the Census, the encyclopædias of Lalor and of Henderson. The writings of Miss Richmond, Mrs. Glenn, Dr. Devine are not likely to be forgotten. You must allow me, Mr. President, to name your masterly presentation of the tenement-house problem as a most important contribution to the welfare of large cities. No wonder that Yale, your *alma mater* gave you its highest honors when that great work appeared.

Field Work. Nevertheless, books will not be the chief instructors in this School of Philanthropy. As the students of physical science and natural history learn from observation and experiment, our students must be taught by kindred agencies. I need hardly remind

this audience that New York is redundant with object lessons. It is both a museum and a laboratory. The most varied and complex conditions of society are here rooted. All the nations of the world have entered their exiles, with their peculiar virtues and their peculiar habits and faults. Every form of decadence, irreligion, vice, disorder, crime, shiftiness, insanitation may be discovered. Captains of intemperance and immorality are leading regiments through sensuality, penury and sloth to the almshouse, the hospital, and the jail.

Thank God, that is but half the story. Here also the ranks are full of wise, generous, ingenious, self-sacrificing and devoted men and women, who are thwarting the downward tendencies, uplifting the fallen, recovering the dissolute, relieving the distressed, bringing back wanderers to the paths of thrift and virtue, or, to sum it up in the Master's words, "Restoring sight to the blind."

Here to-day schools, night schools, sewing schools, manual labor schools, Carnegie libraries, reading rooms, popular lectures, cathedrals, churches, temples, gospel missions, are multiplied on a most liberal scale, adapted to all ages, needs, creeds and tongues. These we may call prophylactic agencies, preventive of bad tendencies, bad habits and bad tastes. Moreover, there are in active operation all forms of relief, civic, churchly, associated, individual, fraternal, racial, national. Neighborhood settlements are numerous. The children, the aged, the sick, the injured, the deficient, the crippled, all have their benefactors. Reformatory, penitential and disciplinary establishments are manifold, nor should we forget that the higher institutions of learning have able professors and lecturers who are bringing the experience of past ages and of distant lands to the service of this place and these days. Wise methods and bad methods are exemplified. Blunders, mistakes, limitations, extravagances, inexperience may be pointed out,—and still easier is it to show examples of economical, judicious and highly successful administration. The best modes of securing assistance from those who can give money, and from those who can

give time, may be studied. By lessons based on such observations, these scholars may be taught.

Yet all these acquisitions will be dry and fruitless, unless with observation and experience inspiration is enlisted as another teacher. Fortunate will those be who become inspired by that great body of philanthropists now at work among the unfortunate and the lowly. The long calendar of those who have been canonized in Rome may be matched by a calendar of brothers and sisters now vigilant and helpful in the boroughs of New York. They may or may not be marked by their garb, but day after day, we meet, often without recognition, the Hebrew, Catholic and Protestant Sisters of Charity and Brothers of Misericordia.

This review reminds me of a great ecclesiastical pageant which I witnessed under the dome of St. Peter's in Rome, not long ago. Two saints were canonized, both of them examples of the modern well-deserved recognition of charity and of training. Santa Rita was a good woman who lived in a country town several centuries ago, and performed the very duties which belong in our modern phraseology, to the friendly visitors among the poor; and the other was Jean Baptist La Salle, founder of the Christian Brothers, wise advocate of the importance of training in the field of education.

Obviously, a school of philanthropy has its obligations far beyond the library and classroom. It must teach the public. This may be by public meetings, addresses, tracts, conferences, social gatherings, conversations,—all the manifold agencies by which public opinion is formed. May I be allowed to speak of Baltimore? The greatest conflagration in American history occurred not quite a year ago. How did the community act in this hour of trial, this extreme test? No cry of want, no disorder, no looting. The legislature appropriated \$250,000 for the needy. What happened? By our united charities all wants were supplied, and less than \$25,000 was drawn for relief from the public chest. Wise, well taught and thrifty Baltimore,—thanks, no doubt, in a large degree, to the discussion of the principles of relief which for twenty years

have been inculcated by the school of John Glenn.

*The Function
of a School of
Philanthropy.*

One word more in conclusion, partly in repetition. The term, a school of philanthropy, is not always understood. It is novel. It suggests nothing concrete. It sounds visionary, impracticable, needless. I have heard from wise and generous persons remarks like these:—"Teach philanthropy? Not much. Philanthropy proceeds from the heart, not from the head. Good will to men is a religious duty, not an academic dogma." To these objections we may make this reply. It is true that active philanthropy must proceed from an impulse, a desire, a purpose, and a principle to help the forlorn and the unfortunate. Without this motive study is in vain. Though I give all my goods to feed the poor, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing. Likewise, one might have all the knowledge that mankind has gathered up respecting pauperism, crime, misery and every form of degradation, and, in fact, be a walking encyclopædia of philanthropy, yet without charity, he would be ineffective; he might be worthless or worse as a visitor to the poor. Upon this point we are all agreed. It is not open for discussion.

George Peabody was not trained in any school of philanthropy, but he had a good adviser in Robert C. Winthrop and an object lesson in the slums of London. John Howard was not taught in any school of philanthropy, but how much more successful he would have been if he had known the methods of modern prison reform. Florence Nightingale was a splendid, self-impelling force, devoted to the service of the sick, but she would be the first to admit that the experience of our Sanitary Commission, of the Red Cross, and of our schools for nurses, would have been to her of priceless value.

These are indeed exceptional examples, and it is not for such extraordinary characters that this school is projected. Nor is it planned with reference to that large and increasing number of wealthy men and women who are ready to contribute to the support of charitable institutions—though even they may learn much from the records of this institution concerning

the merits and the demerits of establishments which appeal for support.

The principal purpose of the School of Philanthropy is to give counsel at the beginning of their career to those who will seek it in respect to the conduct and administration of charitable institutions; and to impress the true principles of benevolence and beneficence upon that numerous company of young women and young men who are ready, in the most unselfish way, to do good as they have opportunity while engaged in other pursuits or involved in other duties. Benevolence and Beneficence are a couple that should never be divorced.

Our claim is this—the experiences of

the charitable world must be accumulated, recorded, digested and applied. Those who are willing to give their time or their leisure to the help and uplifting of the needy should be guided by the experience of other workers or their best endeavors may be thwarted. To both classes, those who will make charity a vocation, and those who will make it an avocation, this school will be of inestimable value.

Ladies and gentlemen, let me congratulate you upon the opportunities before you. I bid you Godspeed in the service of humanity, the relief of distress, the prevention of poverty, the organization of charity, and the promotion of social welfare.

Address of Nicholas Murray Butler, President of Columbia University

[STENOGRAPHIC REPORT]

It is a grateful task to speak for a few moments to this audience on the subject which is uppermost in the mind of every one.

Think for a moment what it is that has happened in this city. The good people who are moved to acts of charity and kindness toward their fellows find that there is waste and sometimes injury in uncontrolled and unordered philanthropy, and of their own motion they form a society to organize and direct the charitable work of the community, other than governmental, and to study the principles which underlie any philanthropy that shall be constructive and truly useful. This society, the Charity Organization Society, develops rapidly, regulates and conserves the outpourings of generosity, assists in stimulating that kindly feeling of helpfulness for others which is the basis of all true charity, and studies with care the principles that indicate what limitations must be put upon relief, and what methods should be used in its practical application. The sphere of action of this society is so large, it touches life at so many points, it represents so much of what is best in the community that, very naturally, men and women from other parts of the country turn to it to ask questions, to study methods, to get advice in their perplexities, and to receive instruction in the principles which

this society, among other agencies, has discovered and applied. What is more natural than that to answer these inquiries and to give this information a school of instruction should be established, at first somewhat informal, then increasingly formal and definite in its aims and methods. Finally, a citizen of broad vision and large heart comes forward to secure the permanence of this school by a munificent gift for its endowment. You will observe that what has happened is simple, natural and logical.

It is by such simple, and natural steps as these that all great institutions are built up. These institutions and undertakings are seldom wholly governmental when they begin. They are suggested and supported by persons who have trust in them, and who find in them the hope and joy of service. It is significant for the future of the School of Philanthropy that its needs should have appealed to one who has gone in and out of this community during our lives and those of our fathers, and whose name has been for half a century a symbol for probity, for kindness, and for unselfish generosity. It is significant too and augurs well for the future of the school that it commands not only the generous support, but that it meets the approval of the ripe mature judgment of John Stewart Kennedy.

Consider what is to be done by this

School of Philanthropy. It is easy enough for the critic who wishes to find objections to instruction in philanthropic work and its underlying principles, and to invent some clever paradox which shall set the head and the heart in sharp opposition one to another; but this is all very superficial. What is aimed at is nothing more or less than to bring to bear the experience, the wisdom and the insight of those who have gone before for the help of those who are now looking forward to a career as helpers of others. There is nothing remote, there is nothing obscure, there is nothing strained in such a program.

The School of Philanthropy, if it does its work well, will speedily find itself face to face with two important things: It will find itself dealing with the present facts and forces of human nature, facts and forces which have been studied by the wisest of men for twenty-five hundred years. We know much about the facts of human nature, and much about how the forces of human nature operate. We know what forces will tend to disintegrate society, and what forces will tend to build up and strengthen the social whole. We know a great deal about psychological truth, and a great deal about the ethical laws which throw light upon selfishness and its opposite. We know how want leads to discontent, discontent to envy, envy to malice, and malice to crime; and we know that to sow the seed of discontent upon the soil of want is the surest way to lead to evil. Therefore, it is that the removal of want, with its resultant discontent, and envy, and malice, and crime, is a fundamental need of a human society that shall be orderly and ethical.

Moreover, the school will find itself dealing at first hand with some fundamental social and political forces. We have come to understand many of the economic laws that govern human activity, and many of the social laws that exercise a large share of control over the events of history. Neither economics nor sociology is or can be an exact science, yet both may be studied definitely by precisely well understood methods.

We know that certain courses of public and private action are wasteful and that

others are economical; that some are successful and others are unsuccessful. We have before us the experience in these fields of other peoples and of other nations. We have access to a literature bearing upon the study of society. We of the twentieth century do not have to begin at the beginning in our consideration of these problems. We have before us, if we are wise enough to use it, the wisdom that has been accumulated in the past. By making use of this accumulated wisdom we are able to work along rational lines; in this way we use a longer lever so that we may lift a heavier weight with slight effort. This is the method pursued in all other branches of human endeavor; were it not so each generation would have to go back to the state of the fathers and ignore all the gains that have been made in the interval. Why should we pursue so foolish a course in matters of philanthropy? We would not dream of doing this in commerce, in finance, in industry, in art, or in education—why should we do it in philanthropy?

In dealing with these fundamental forces of human nature and of human society in the light of previous experience, the School of Philanthropy will in reality study the basis on which the body-politic rests. There is no force that lends itself so readily to crude, ill-formed and destructive tendencies as one driven by the power of discontent. The preservation of free institutions demands that those institutions be based on a sane and healthy citizenship; upon individual self-respect; upon individual self-support; upon individual self-confidence and self-reliance. It is a just and proper object of our care that our fellow men, so far as they come within our influence, shall have each and all of these characteristics. If every human being had them then the millennium would be here; but while human nature is not perfect it is perfectible; but the progress toward perfection is a slow and tedious one. It requires infinite patience, infinite perseverance, infinite charity. We cannot legislate men into comfort or resolve them into happiness, or pass ordinances that will fill them with self-respect, but we can take them by the hand, one by one, and help them to stand

alone until they in turn are perhaps able to help others.

In all our doings we are brought face to face with the fact of the interdependence of humanity. Whether we like it or not we are our brothers' keepers. There is no human being who does not feel the obligation to think and care for others. We are manifesting a true and sound citizenship when our acts accord with this feeling of obligation.

As Mr. Gilman has truly said, our New York of to-day is both a museum and a laboratory. Observe what wonderful progress has been made here even in the quarter century that this society has been in existence. This progress justifies the point of view that I am commending. In the last twenty-five years we have made over our great system of public education. We have created an efficient department of health, which has much reduced the death-rate; we have had a Waring to remove the filth from our streets, and they have never gone back to anything approaching the condition in which he found them; we have made a scientific study of the tenement-house problem, and we have secured the enactment of wise and helpful laws

governing housing; we have done something for small parks and other breathing places, for public playgrounds and for baths. Best of all we have created a municipal public opinion, the results of which are recorded in the public records, and which is supported by appropriations from public funds. New York and its citizens are coming to an increased consciousness of social obligation. How has this been accomplished? I answer, by the organization of experience; by patiently bringing together facts; by working out principles upon a true and sound basis. What has been done shall continue to be. Here we have a body of expert workers, natural leaders and teachers of those who are to follow; here we are on the bed-rock of permanent principle, not influenced merely by sentiment, however exalted it may be. Here we are exhibiting a perfectly definite and progressive phase of social knowledge; here we are trying to lead public opinion to increased wisdom and increased usefulness. How then can this society abstain from training others to follow its example? The School of Philanthropy is the answer. It cannot abstain.

Address of Edward T. Devine, Director of the School.

The Charity Organization Society of the city of New York, on whose invitation you are gathered together, is a live and going concern. Occasionally—only once in a great while I am bound to say—someone who has not taken the trouble to inform himself, intimates the contrary, assuming apparently that the officers and agents and members of the Charity Organization Society are prone to constitute themselves into a modern sort of Meistersinger working under highly crystallized rules, passing on certain established conventions, and unwilling to have fellowship with anybody unless he observes and practises all the rules of the cult, oblivious to all fresh inspiration, all new experience, all real human life.

I doubt whether there is anyone of any religious and political faith, who has himself accomplished anything for the social betterment of this great city in the past twenty years who has any such conception of this society. May we not with all due

modesty, and all due fairness, claim that in the movements of these past two decades which have had for their aim the elevation of the manhood, the emancipation of the womanhood, and the protection of the childhood of the poor, this society has had a creditable and an honorable part. Have we not taken the lead sometimes, when it seemed to be our duty to lead, stood shoulder to shoulder when it was our duty to co-operate with others, and given generous recognition—and oftentimes the only public recognition—when the labor fell to the hands of others? Have we not been willing to speak the truth appreciatively when there was occasion for praise, and courageously when there was a duty to censure? Is it not true that we have had not only preached co-operation and a broad charity, but what was far more important established co-operation upon a practical working basis. And have we not through it all, year after year, in season and out

of season, kept steadily before us as the only conceivable if remote goal of all our efforts—the ideal community, the social utopia, the city in which there shall be no pauperism, in which grinding, debasing poverty shall be at an end, the city in which there shall be none but citizens worthy of their name, independent members of the community not only in the political, but in the industrial, economic sense, none who are without the pale of self-dependent, self-respecting manhood?

I put these questions, and as one who for the past eight years has known the society in all parts and departments better it may be than anyone else can possibly know it, I answer that this is the society's just and reasonable claim to sympathy and support. It has done these things, and it is thus, as I have intimated, a living, potent, influence in the moral and economic uplift of this great commercial, industrial, and yet also humane warm-hearted New York.

You may not unnaturally ask for the evidence. It is to be found in our successive annual reports and in your own knowledge of the operations of our departments of which I may name three merely as typical.

Publicity. One of the very distinct services rendered to the community by this society is that of making certain things known to the people. The charitable activities of the city, the initiation of new undertakings, the reorganization of older agencies, the continued need of those which do not come into existence, the rise of wholly new needs—all these things are set forth in our *Charities Directory*, in our annual reports, in such special publications as the *Handbook on the Prevention of Tuberculosis* and the *National Directory of Institutions for Consumptives*, and especially in CHARITIES, our weekly periodical, which the *Evening Post* described in a leading editorial a few days ago as "increasingly valuable." This function of accurate and discriminating publicity does not depend entirely upon these formal publications. A means of publicity which is perhaps quite as important as any of them is the personal interview, repeated daily a hundred times when

people come to ask about particular families, to ask for advice and for information, to ask about charitable institutions, to ask for aid in starting some new thing, or what may be quite as important to ask for counsel as to how to prevent the starting of some new thing.

Co-operation. Next after publicity I may name the promotion of co-operation as a useful public service of the society. We have not only preached co-operation as an abstraction, but we have devoted our energies to the creation and the development and the use of the mechanism which in specific measures make co-operation possible. Here comes in the chief usefulness of our district offices, and of some of the central office departments.

The suppression of mendicancy is perhaps the most brilliant and complete illustration of effective co-operation. It is there essential that the police department, the city magistrates' courts, the department of correction, and the Charity Organization Society shall stand like the four faces of a solid square, each front doing its full duty and each supporting the others. As a result of this four-cornered co-operation the streets of New York city are at present comparatively free from professional beggars, and at the same time the individual mendicant who really wants to forsake his calling finds more encouragement to do it than ever before in the recorded history or the recollected experience of the city.

It would be a pleasure to speak of Tenement-house reform, and of the movement for the prevention of tuberculosis in both of which the recent initiative had fallen to us, although others are doing their share—or to describe anew the investigation department, the woodyard, the laundry, the districts, the stamp saving scheme, the library, and all the rest, but I must not omit a reference to this newest of our enterprises which is to form the special item of the other speakers—the School of Philanthropy.

Training. Some four years ago a distinguished prelate warned us that scientific training which he described as "the idol of the hour," was not so potent as a high and unselfish en-

thusiasm. I should like, in a final word, to ask frankly whether there is any real danger that enthusiasm will diminish through the increase of scientific training.

Have you, gentlemen, who all your lives have had to do with science and scientific training really discovered that scientific training is the idol of the hour, in any sense that leads us to expect that there will be too much training, or the training too scientific? Is there any truth whatever in the intimation made this year at the State Conference of Charities and Correction that volunteer public-spirited servants of the state like Mr. Letchworth and the late Oscar Craig and Mrs. Lowell and Mr. de Forest and Mr. Cutting and Mr. Mulry—if you will allow me—are losing their interest because the paid agents whom they summon to their aid in boards of charities and in controller's offices, and in voluntary societies are coming to be somewhat better trained for the work which they are to do? Is there ever any real danger that enthusiasm will diminish in proportion as skill and knowledge and consecrated preparation for service increase?

On the contrary, as the university presidents and the bishops should well know, learning and enthusiasm are excellent and very frequent companions. When the passion for humanity dies in the human breast it is not often that this tragedy can be traced to a definite professional preparation for any socially useful work. If I wanted to quench enthusiasm, and lessen the desire to be of real use in the world, I can hardly imagine a more asinine way of going about it, than by putting earnest and competent young people for a year in a good training school in which their steel is to be tempered, in which developing powers are to be disciplined, in which their perception of the work to be done is to be clarified, in which they are to catch added inspiration from associates and instructors, in which, in a word, they are to find themselves and get a truer measure of their particular powers and of the task that needs them. I admit freely that you might create a professional training school that would quench enthusiasm, that would foster a monopolistic professional spirit, what many of you would probably call a trade-

union spirit, and one that would seek to supplant volunteer service by paid service; but we are not creating a school of that kind, and the reason is that the charitable institutions of New York city, out of whose needs primarily this school has grown are not filled with conventionalized, mechanicalized performers with their doors barred tightly against new knowledge and new experience and new inspiration. I could find you a score of other institutions in the communal life of this great throbbing metropolis which are in far greater need of these solemn warnings than are the institutions for which just now I am speaking.

When I name besides the Charity Organization Society, the three societies which with rare good judgment have been associated by Mr. Kennedy with Columbia and the United Charities and the Charity Organization Society on the committee in charge of the school, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the United Hebrew Charities, the Saint Vincent de Paul Society, and to those add perhaps the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities and the State Charities Aid Association and a few of the more active settlements of the city, I have named, it is true, but a few out of many, but I have named the very agencies which whatever their shortcomings and undeveloped possibilities are known by all who know them at all, to be progressive, flexible, modern institutions, adapted to our existing conditions and adaptable in a very extraordinary degree to new conditions as they arise.

Responsibility. Fellow-workers and friends of the Charity Organization Society, is it apparent to you, as it is overpoweringly and blindingly apparent to me, that in many ways and to a great extent the immediate distress of the poor of this crowded island is dependent upon the manner in which those who are here in this hall at this time discharge their responsibilities? Is it obvious to you that we are not merely listening to the addresses of two great college presidents and trying to formulate and understand certain theories of relief and education, but that in a very direct, vital and personal way the responsibilities fall upon our shoulders for the relief of distress, the

rescue of children, the elimination of pauperism, the creation of a new and better social order?

The beggar on the street, the consumptive on his pallet, the tenant in the unreformed double-decker, the lodger in the Bowery lodging-house; the seeker of the missionary loaves upon his rounds; the friendless old man who seeks the shelter of a home for the aged and infirm; the widow and her fatherless children, the dependents of the great city from their homes and their haunts, from the institutions and from the corners of the street—stretch out their hands to us here, now, and demand of us sympathy and support and help. What freedom from temptation and danger; what hope for their future and their children's future do we promise them? The responsibility is a sobering one, discouraging and depressing, or inspiring or stimulating, according to our several natures. If we are concerned solely about the progress of the progressive units in our community, this meeting is no place for us. Curiosity may bring us here, but we have no share or part in these proceedings. If, however, we are concerned that the backward, the unfortunate, those who have fallen behind and at the moment are not progressive shall be caught up also into the

onward current of progress and shall share in the good things which progress makes possible—then this is the place for us, and this is our meeting.

Charity as a means of easing the disturbed conscience, charity as an insurance against revolt and dissatisfaction among the masses, charity as the careless condescension of the rich, charity without personal concern for those whom it helps is of no particular interest to the Charity Organization Society—but charity that is democratic, that is suffused with sympathy and fortified by the use of sensible effective methods; charity that helps the one whom it is intended to help—that charity we seek to develop, increase, and organize, and make effective in a thousand ways. We have no monopoly even of our own kind of charity, and when I say that the poor look to us I do not mean that they look to us alone. We are some four million people and in a greater or less degree we are all charitable, but the organization of this charity, the development and growth of this charity, the direction and education of this charity, the giving to this charity of the tools with which to work, this responsible duty does fall very largely to us, and it makes a lot of difference in the tenements of the city whether that duty is well performed.

Employment Exchange

Address all correspondence (enclosing postage) to "Editor Employment Exchange Department"

YOUNG MAN of experience in Y. M. C. A. work wishes position as director of boys' clubs or other settlement work.

COLLEGE MAN of experience as teacher wishes to enter social or philanthropic work. Could act as superintendent of school or other institution.

TRAINED NURSE, experienced in visiting work, would do public school nursing, etc.

A TEACHER of Domestic Science wishes settlement or club work.

YOUNG WOMAN, who has been probation officer in a New York City Court and resident in a settlement, desires a position as head-worker in a small settlement.

YOUNG MAN of eight years' experience in the ministry, desires position in office of philanthropic organization, or as investigator.

YOUNG WOMAN trained to teach Domestic Science and experienced in settlement work, wishes especially to secure a position to teach her subject in a reformatory.

MAN who has been superintendent of settlement work and also probation officer in a city court, desires position, preferably as head-worker or assistant.

A TRAINED SETTLEMENT WORKER, experienced settlement resident, desires position as head-worker

A KINDERGARTNER with special training in music, desires settlement position as club leader or accompanist. Has taught violin, piano and dancing.

A COLLEGE WOMAN, who has given a year of graduate study to sociology, wishes position as investigator.

A YOUNG COLLEGE WOMAN, who has been employed in both charity organization society and settlement work, would like evening classes in a settlement. Speaks German, Russian and Yiddish and understands French.

NOTICE OF MEETING

THE PROVIDENT LOAN SOCIETY OF NEW YORK

The annual meeting of the society, for the election of trustees and for the transaction of such other business as may come before the meeting, will be held on Monday, February 6, 1905, at 5.15 o'clock, in the Trustees' Room (ninth floor) of the United Charities Building, No. 105 East 22d Street, New York.

Dated January 25, 1905.

OTTO T. BANNARD, *Secretary.*

Manhattan Trade School for Girls

233 West 14th Street, City

There are vacancies in several of the departments at the Manhattan Trade School for Girls and new classes will be formed the first of February. Any girl desiring to enter may register now.

CHARITIES

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*The Arizona
Decision in the
New York
Foundling Case.*

Of absorbing interest because of the principles involved is the decision, which has just been handed down by the Supreme Court of Arizona, denying the petition of the New York Foundling Hospital and confirming the respondent foster parents in the possession of children who had been taken from unfit homes where they had been placed as wards of the hospital.

The text of the decision contains a full and authoritative statement of the facts in the case, which bears out information obtained by CHARITIES through direct correspondence with local public officials and citizens since the beginning of the controversy, but upon which we have refrained from commenting while the questions involved were in litigation before the lower courts.

It is not likely that the Supreme Court of the United States, to which an appeal has been taken, will reverse the decision of the Supreme Court of the territory. Legal technicalities which might have been decided adversely to the hospital were brushed aside and its claims were weighed carefully on their merits after full oral discussion before the entire bench. The ground upon which a reversal might be asked is that the court erred in the exercise of its discretion in determining what is for the best permanent interests of the children in question. This is a ground upon which higher courts are usually very reluctant to reverse. It remains true, of course, that no one can predict with certainty what view will be taken even by the United States Supreme Court.

The local communities of Arizona, in view of the decision, must be acquitted

of any charge of having resorted to mob violence or indefensible measures. The indignation which followed the action of the representatives of the hospital, misled by the recommendations of a priest temporarily in charge of a local parish, was as natural and as creditable as had been the reluctance of the sister in charge of the children to carry out her instructions when confronted with the families. It is a notable feature of the incident, to which not sufficient attention has been called in the Eastern press, that in this expression of indignation Protestants and Catholics stood shoulder to shoulder. Something like half of the families into which the children were finally taken are of the Catholic faith, and the only way in which the religious question can be said to be involved in the case at all is that no one would ever have dreamed of accepting the families suggested by the Mexican priest except for the earnest attempts made by the hospital to find Catholic homes for an increasing number of children whom they have baptized into their own faith. There is general agreement that in the placing-out of children preference should be given to homes which have the same religious faith as that of the parents of the foster children, but neither Catholic nor Protestant sentiment will justify carrying this principle to the extent of giving a preference to homes of the religious faith desired when such homes are degraded and unfit. In the case of actual foundlings whose parentage is unknown, the religious faith of the families in which they are placed would seem to be comparatively unimportant, or, at least, it would be difficult to find an argument in favor of any particular faith which would appear convincing to those who do not share it.

*Placing-out
Work and Its
Supervision.*

The New York Foundling Hospital is to be heartily praised for its pioneer and long-continued efforts, put forth on unprecedented scale, to find foster homes for abandoned infant children. The motives which lead to applications for young children are much less frequently of a questionable character, then those which lead to requests for children who are approaching the wage-earning age. The child which is adopted into a foster family while in tender years has a much better chance to find a real home, to be fitted into that home with mutual advantage to foster parents and child, than if placed out when ten or twelve years older. We trust that nothing which has occurred will affect in the slightest degree the enlightened policy of the Foundling Hospital in this respect.

The final consideration to which attention may justly be called, is the doubt which an interview with the authorities of the hospital has left, as to whether the institution is now spending or ever has spent as much money in the work of finding suitable homes, placing-out the children, and supervising them after they are placed in homes as the maintenance of the highest standards of such work really demands. CHARITIES has favored the policy adopted by the city a few years ago, in paying at the rate of \$20 for each child placed out by the hospital, but we think that every dollar of this sum and probably considerable more should be spent in investigating applications for children, in finding good homes, and, if necessary, inducing applications from such homes, in adjusting each child exactly to the right place for that particular child, changing homes as often as may be necessary for that purpose, and in protecting the best interest of the child so long as supervision and efforts in its behalf are necessary.

Herein from our standpoint lies the chief lesson of the incident under discussion. There is every reason to believe that the devoted sisters of the Foundling Hospital, its officers and managers, have long since taken this lesson to heart and profited by their trying experience. Indeed, if it were only a question of that particular institution we should hardly think it nec-

essary to insist upon these elementary lessons, but the next mistake of this kind is very likely to occur elsewhere, just as the next jailing of a truant boy is likely to be elsewhere than in Cumberland County, New Jersey. It is in the hope of lessening the chances of future mistakes in either direction that these two occurrences are dwelt upon here.

*The New Jersey
Jail Incident.*

It is in this connection therefore that attention is cheerfully called to an article in the December number of the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections* in which is recorded the results of an exhaustive investigation in the case of the thirteen-year-old boy who was confined in the Cumberland County Jail in association with murderers and prostitutes.

The main points on which the "real facts" appear to differ from the account published in the November magazine number of CHARITIES are that the boy was confined in the jail for fifteen days instead of twelve as we supposed; that Sheriff Charles D. Diament appears to bear and to deserve an excellent reputation in the community—no information on this subject having been available to CHARITIES and nothing to the contrary having been said or intimated; and that the investigation for CHARITIES might have been more successful if made by the State Charities Aid Association instead of by the special agent of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity whose assistance CHARITIES enlisted for this purpose.

Ample justice in our original article was done to the part taken in the removal of the child by Mrs. Clara T. Sykes, president of the Children's Aid Society; and by Joseph Spencer, deputy sheriff of Cumberland County.

Our representative, upon whose accuracy and competence CHARITIES fully relies, suggests that it is the use of the terms "cell" and "hall" that have occasioned uneasiness, and he admits that the word "compartment" might be substituted for "cell," having a more melodious sound. Whatever the word used to describe the situation, however, the boy in question was, according to the information given to our representative by the turnkey of the jail and Mr. Spencer, in

a compartment adjoining that occupied by Rasinger, and the doors between the two compartments were open, making entirely possible free access of each to the other.

CHARITIES had no desire to create a "sensation," and still less to reflect with undue severity upon the state of New Jersey or any of its communities, whether rural or urban. We submit that there are numerous officials and ex-officials in the city and state of New York who do not labor under the impression that CHARITIES will spare flagrant abuses because they occur within the state in which this periodical is published. It appeared to us and still appears to us, even after the dispassionate and authoritative investigation published by our contemporary, that it is a shocking thing that in any American community which calls itself enlightened, a thirteen-year-old boy who has "violated sections 161 and 162 of the School act of 1903," even if the infant is also declared by his parents to be "incorrigible and beyond parental control," shall be for two weeks locked up in a county jail where he is associated with murderers and dissolute women.

Whether the boy was technically charged with truancy or with incorrigibility; whether he was in the same cell or in one adjoining with which there was free communication; whether Rasinger was at the time of this intimate association technically a witness or a defendant, and whether the laws of New Jersey are adequate or were disregarded appear to us to be relatively unimportant. On some of these points our representative may have been misled, but we have no reason to believe that he has been in any degree misled in any of the essential facts relating to the boy, his fellow-convicts, the jail, the sheriff, the deputy-sheriff, the freeholders, or the state of New Jersey. We have no false pride of journalistic enterprise, and it is our earnest desire to work in harmony with such excellent organizations as the State Charities Aid Association of New Jersey.

It is a matter of congratulation that it is the opinion of the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Corrections* that this agitation will have the effect of putting the probation system on a better basis in

Cumberland County, and that it will, therefore, bear useful results—"after all." This is, of course, precisely the object which CHARITIES has had in view.

*Child Labor
Sentiment in
North Carolina.*

The growing sentiment in the South in favor of the protection of children is well expressed in the provisions of a bill now before the legislature of North Carolina, in session at Raleigh. The bill is designed to prohibit the employment of boys under twelve years of age and of girls under fourteen in factories and manufacturing establishments, and the employment of children under sixteen years of age in the mines. The employment of illiterates under fourteen is prohibited, and adequate provision is made for the issuance of age and schooling certificates to guard against misrepresentation. The hours of labor are limited to sixty-six per week, and the employment of children under fourteen is prohibited between the hours of 7 P. M. and 5 A. M. It is stated that an encouraging public sentiment in favor of these provisions is developing, not only among the teachers, representatives of the public press and other educational forces in the state, but also among the manufacturers themselves.

Naturally, there are those who oppose any action looking to the legal regulation of industry, even to the extent of safeguarding childhood against such forces as fail to recognize the sacredness of helpless human life. But these are the exception. The arguments of such persons against the proposed measure are all, so far as observed, characterized by well-known appeals to prejudice and sectional rivalry. Thus, the *Morning Post*, of Raleigh, N. C., on January 27, seized upon a paragraph from a recent issue of the *Cleveland Star*, in which the *Star* expresses the belief that the movement for child labor legislation in the South will be particularly agreeable to cotton mill owners in the North who feel the pressure of Southern competition and whom "it would greatly delight" to have such measures passed as would cripple the Southern mills and manufacturers. Commenting upon this in an editorial, the *Morning Post* says: "The belief is growing

that paid missionaries of the Northern mill owners are on the scene in North Carolina, working to the very end suggested by the foregoing."

So far as the National Child Labor Committee is concerned, this inference is utterly without foundation. A. J. McKelway, who represents the work of the committee in the South, is a Southerner by birth, education, training and sympathies; is a native, we believe, of North Carolina, in which state he has, for several years, been identified with various educational and philanthropic movements. Further, it can be said with positiveness that the national committee has never received a dollar from a cotton mill manufacturer toward carrying on its work.

"By a curious coincidence," says Mr. Lovejoy, the assistant secretary of the national committee working in the Northern states, "on the day before this editorial appeared in the *Morning Post*, a prominent cotton manufacturer in the North vigorously opposed, in my presence, restrictive child labor legislation being advocated in his state, on the ground that it was a movement fostered and promoted by Southern cotton manufacturers who desire to cripple the cotton industry in the North."

*Reports of the
Unemployed in
New York.*

There has been of late a vast amount of unfounded and very foolish talk about the number of unemployed in New York city during the present winter, the number of school children who go to school breakfastless and exceptional destitution in general. The curious thing about this is that it has apparently all started from certain paragraphs written probably six months or more ago—certainly before the present winter began and having no possible reference to any exceptional conditions of the present winter.

It is the emphatic testimony of the Charity Organization Society, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the United Hebrew Charities, and even Robert Hunter, from whose book on *Poverty* the paragraphs above mentioned are quoted, that there is in New York city this winter no extraordinary or abnormal destitution, and that the number of applications for assistance is only slightly if at all in excess of what may

naturally be expected at this time of year. It is the consensus of opinion that there is no evidence that there is any large number of families in New York whose children are, from destitution, sent breakfastless to school, and whose needs cannot be provided by existing agencies.

At the beginning of the blizzard of last week the Charity Organization Society authorized the Police Department to instruct all its officers to call the attention of the society immediately to any cases of distress which they encountered or which were reported to them and whenever in any instance they learned of destitution which should in their judgment be relieved on the spot to give such relief with the assurance that they would promptly be reimbursed. Similar authorization was given to all of the inspectors of the Tenement-house Department and of the Health Department. In the three days covered by this special arrangement not more than \$250 was expended by the thousands of police officers and inspectors who thus had *carte blanche* to give emergent relief. Surely this was a reasonable test as to whether the charitable societies are leaving on one side a vast amount of unrelieved destitution which is not brought to their attention. It is obvious that if the agents and visitors of the organized charities are not finding the distress in the city it is equally undiscoverable by police officers and sanitary inspectors.

*An Investigation
as to Breakfast-
less School
Children Urged.*

It is very probable that many children of the public schools are insufficiently nourished and that the deplorable failure of a large proportion to win their promotions may be partly due to this fact. That the lack of nourishment is chiefly due to lack of income and consequent inability to provide breakfasts appears to us much more doubtful.

The propositions which have been made to provide free breakfasts to school children whose parents are supposed to be unable to pay for them appear objectionable for the reason that in so far as the giving of unsuitable or insufficient foods is due merely to ignorance or bad management in the family the transfer of responsibility for the feeding of children

would perpetuate rather than cure the evil, and for the further reason that absolutely no attempt had been made by any one to ascertain by direct inquiries in the schools of New York city whether there is any need for such action.

The course of City Superintendent W. H. Maxwell in giving the countenance of his high official position to the current reports of "breakfastless children," and his apparent sympathy for the free soup kitchens of the Salvation Army is surely cause for amazement. Has Dr. Maxwell any facts with which to justify such views? He has unrivalled facilities for ascertaining whether the children in the schools under his supervision are hungry or improperly nourished to an extent which interferes with their school work. Has use been made of such facilities, and if not, why should the city superintendent not ascertain the facts instead of saying that some one else who does not pretend to have tried to find out anything about the pupils, but who makes a guess based on the number of evictions and similar data is "more likely to underestimate than to overestimate."

It is distinctly the duty of the Board of Education to know whether large numbers of the school children are underfed and undernourished and, if so, what should be done about it.

The most striking success of the lecture courses in the New York School of Philanthropy thus far was that delivered last week by

*Professor Patten
Before the
New York School
of Philanthropy.*

Prof. Simon N. Patten of the University of Pennsylvania on "The New Basis of Civilization." The subjects of the five lectures in the course were as follows:

- I. A Lesson in Geography.
- II. The Problem of Assimilation
- III. Work as the Basis of Character.
- IV. The Extension of Civilization Downward.
- V. The Extension of Civilization Outward.

Earlier civilizations have been the result of temporary and local conditions. Usually a particular race has found a particular region in which the conditions have been favorable for a high civilization. It has spread to other races and other re-

gions only with great difficulty because of insuperable physical barriers. For the first time such barriers are now broken down, localities are merged together by improved means of transportation, and distant peoples are being brought into contact and are able to accept common standards and ideals. Dr. Patten's course dealt with these changes now in progress, showing how all races and regions are to be blended in a common civilization. The lectures bristled with striking original suggestions. The discussion at all points broke away from conventional and traditional views, and was in an extraordinary degree helpful in enabling students to think out for themselves a logical standpoint from which to observe the activities and methods with which they have to deal in other courses. The course, with some modifications based on the experience of this year, will doubtless form a still more prominent feature of the school next year, and will probably be given at a much earlier period in the year's work.

*Self-dependence
in the Plural.* Before a meeting of the Chicago Real Estate Board, Louis Jackson, industrial commissioner of the Erie Railroad, had this to say:

The Czar says that Russia is not ready for a republic; that its people cannot be organized. Put Roosevelt or Cleveland or Bryan at the head of twenty labor leaders whom I could select, and in one year they would organize the people of Russia and make them ready for self-government.

Recent developments in Russia give point to the remark—a far-fetched statement to be sure, but one likely to be mulled over by those having to do with industrial communities or the various racial make-ups of city neighborhoods. Economists urge that even if capitalism on the one hand and trade unionism on the other, make no other contribution to progress, they will have trained men to work together and thus will have forwarded the socializing process of civilization by a great stride. The earlier writers mistrusted the joint stock company because it was said that managers could not be found who would handle the interests of others as effectively as they would their own. But the reverse proved true. In a modern machine shop,

the efforts of a dozen men, voluntary, intelligent, co-ordinated, incessant, are demanded by one of the big machines and the demand is met. What has proved true on the commercial and mechanical sides of modern industry, is true also of the social aspects of industry. The story of any given trade union is not the long story of the clan. It is more the story of the town meeting in a newly settled country. It may be a story of violently egoistic elements wearing away through bickerings and spasmodic aggressions to a general understanding of what is common (however selfish), and of what measure of individual self-denial is necessary for united accomplishment (however justifiable). Or it may be the story of rousing in a body of men, dormant under the dull recurrence of unengaging task-work, a realization of other goals than the Saturday night saloon, of stirring up hopes to take the place of sullen acquiescence, of planting ideals of self-government among

*The Beginnings of
Self-Government in
the Union.*

Russian immigrants of such stock as the fatherland has no confidence in. Whatever else the United Mine Workers brought into the anthracite fields, they brought the first basis for working together among the clashing peoples over-running the belt; they provided the first grounds for a democratic solution of the race problem there. The history of the English trade unions, from small knots of radicals to great semi-conservative bodies, is not without its counterpart in this country. Certain it is that the older a union is, the more shipshape and businesslike are its meetings likely to be, its dealings with other unions and with employers. Of this unostentatious performance, the public hears little or nothing, while head-lines swell in telling of strike outrages or the bribe-taking of a walking delegate. And as the secrets of self-control and self-government become more widespread among the membership, the leadership becomes more democratic—less of bossism—more to be trusted with such a task as that hypothetically put by Mr. Jackson. Yet not altogether hypothetical, when one runs down the columns of the racial origins of the men at work in the mines and factories and on the railroads of America.

As Graham Taylor has pointed out, the international union preceded the international parliamentary congress; and the union of a mixed membership, representative of a dozen races, was earlier still.

The initial squabbles with which the woman's guild of a church begins, or the row into which the first meeting of a body of reformers is like to break up because everybody cannot have his own way, suggest base lines from which can be calculated how much advance in the social amenities has been made through these latter day organized groups in the labor field.

*Social
Responsibility
in the Coal Fields.*

How far America is, indeed, inheriting the responsibilities, economic and social, which are staggering the Russian empire to-day, and how far America is measuring up to some of these responsibilities which crop out with Slav immigration to the coal fields, was discussed the past fortnight before the New York School of Philanthropy by the Rev. Peter Roberts, of Mahanoy City, one of the contributors to the Slav number of CHARITIES published in December.

When 6,000 people are killed at a coronation riot instigated to cover up graft, when the leading physician of an outlying province is knouted by a new military governor to show his power, when the commissioner of prisons reports that one of the great penal institutions of the empire has been turned into what amounts to a public house of ill-fame, it is easy to denounce the bureaucracy which sponsors such things. It is not so easy in a democratic society of higher civilization to sift out and place the more subtle responsibilities which the assimilation of these socially undigested elements demands. Only as a first step come proposals of such far-reaching sifting processes as suggested by Mr. Brandenburg as a result of his unique studies for *Collier's Weekly* of the criminal elements in immigration.

Mr. Roberts showed the courage of the Slav, who the day after his arrival goes unhesitatingly to work on the treacherous slant of the most dangerous coal chambers, and the ambition of the Slav which brings him at the end of a few months before the mine foreman with the request "me

chamber boss" (meaning that he wants to work for himself). He showed his physical strength and endurance, his kindness and religiousness, but at the same time his less gracious elements—the proneness to trickiness, to thievery, to quarrelsomeness—the brute entail from European conditions which shows itself in fights in which noses and ears are sometimes bitten off. It is these traits which the attitude of many of the English-speaking residents of the coal districts, who seem afraid to touch sleeve or brush skirt with the Slav, only serve to accentuate. On the shoulders of those whose wealth has come from the mountains of Pennsylvania would Mr. Roberts lay the burden of leavening the coal communities—of establishing kindergartens, friendly visiting, night schools—agencies which would reinforce the influences for sanity—the conservative leaders among the immigrants, the unions, and the century old churches which are facing new and dynamic conditions.

"It was in Shenandoah with seventy per cent of its population foreign born," said Mr. Roberts, "that the rioting began in the last coal strikes. That is what we had to face in 1902; that is what we must face again in 1906 when the commission's award expires. Our responsibilities will not let us alone long."

*The Stock Yards
Strike and
Immigrant
Workers.*

Perhaps no better example of the conserving force of organization among immigrant peoples is to be had than the contrast between the strikes of 1894 and 1904, as they affected the stock yards district of Chicago. Ten years ago there had been riots and bloodshed, and the burning of cars on the tracks that encompassed Packing-Town. "In 1894," were the words of a storekeeper, "any group of walking delegates could give an order to walk out. The girls of the yards followed a red flag carried by a hot-headed young Irish woman, and blood was shed at the corner at Ashland avenue, where during 1904 strikers again gathered, but kept the peace." We have the word of Mary E. McDowell, headworker of the University of Chicago Settlement, that there was no destruction of property in the stock yards; the packers came and went and none was molested. The windows of

"scab" houses were broken and some negroes from the Clark street district were pummeled, but these were independent war measures without the sanction of the union, and must be classed in the same category that admitted of the immoral and unhygienic conditions of the barracks where the negro strike breakers were housed by the packers.

Describing for CHARITIES this phase of the strike, Miss McDowell says:

In the interval between 1894 and 1904 the community of the stock yards had felt the combined force of the Union, the settlement, the church and the socialist party, whose speakers had spoken against violence and urged that the laws be obeyed. We must remember that 22,000 people were out of work for two months and that the whole community throbbed with a common purpose, showing self-control and self-restraint. The second day of the strike two Polish brothers got into a fight; they were drunk. The police used force indiscriminately, a crowd gathered, and the situation was tense, when around the corner came a small group of union officers, led by a man whom I had never thought of in the least as dignified; and yet the sight was an impressive one. Up the street they came to where the people were congregated, and spoke to them, each one to his man, in the language in which they could understand, and to the police they spoke in plain English. The people quietly dispersed, and there was no rioting. Those were the leaders of the strike. The police said afterward there were fewer arrests during the summer in the "back-of-the-yards" district than in any previous hot season. At the outset Michael Donnelly had cards printed in four languages, in which it was ordered that all the laws must be obeyed; that any violence would not be tolerated. It was no uncommon thing to see the foreign men beneath the electric lights, puzzling out with their fingers on words which came with difficulty, the meaning of the order. Another strike order was that they were to stay at home, to stay away from the saloon and from the street corner, and not to "rush the can;" and though the German and Irish did not observe this literally you could see the Slavs actually within their own gates, filling up the front porches and spending the morning sitting on the high steps, in a strict obedience to the order. A political leader told me that Lithuanians had said to him, referring to the low negroes that were brought into the stock yards, that if the Union would only say the word, they would go in and in ten minutes clean them out. But the Union did not say the word.

The hold which the Union leaders had upon this mixed population, and which kept it from violence, is perhaps illustrated by a cattle butchers' meeting which I attended.

A colored man presented a group of four nationalities for initiation. Interpreters of the four tongues were ready to play their parts—Lithuanians, Slovaks, Poles and Bohemians. Germans and Irish there were in addition. It was for these unskilled workers that the strike was called. Even the young women, the peasant Slav girls, told very simply and very distinctly what the strike was for, that no family could live when wages were 15 or 16 cents an hour, and the number of hours of work amounted to but \$5.50 to \$7.40 a week. The Slavs live on very little and the strike meant that they were becoming Americanized to the extent of attempting to raise their standard of living; for there are many people who are living on the margin in the stock yards district all the time. When the girls give a ball they give it for the death fund. "Why are the people making such a fuss about the distress caused by the strike?" said one of them to me. "It is not so different. We haven't enough to be sick on; we haven't enough to die on."

*Self-Restraint
in a New England
Community.*

The Fall River lockout has borne evidence of an even larger measure of self-restraint on the part of organized workers—and be it said also on the part of employers—this time in an older industrial community where the population is more largely American and where the employers practically live among the working people. 26,000 operatives were idle for half a year, at a loss of \$200,000 a week in wages, and a cost of \$1,000 a week in strike relief,¹ throwing a total of 70,000 people out of employment, yet the arrests from August 1 to December 31, were only 1,315 or 666 less than in the corresponding period for 1903. The tension of the situation through these long months is beyond dispute. There was a deadlock at Thanksgiving time; by Christmas it was "clear that the operatives would have to be starved into the mills, unless there was some outside intervention to settle the long drawn-out struggle." The intervention came at the hands of Governor Douglas. As in the case of the stock yard strike, the men failed. They went back practically on the mill treasurers' terms—a twelve and one-half per cent cut beyond the ten per cent decrease already acquiesced in, but with provision for a sliding scale which may mean a later increase. The men have made minor gains. There are four

¹ See CHARITIES, January 21, 1905.

killings a week at the stock yards since the Chicago strike, where before there were only two. There are less people employed, but these are employed more hours a week and more regular hours, and what this means in a community where from three to five thousand men had been accustomed to wait at the yard every morning for a job, only a resident of Packing-Town knows. So in Fall River, the mill treasurers have practically conceded the claim of the weavers as to their sharing in the economy of production resulting from electric stop action and a longer bobbin.

The Fall River situation is not one which can be disposed of in a paragraph. It is part of one of those industrial adjustments which deeply react upon communities of workers. But regardless of the purely industrial side of the question, of the economic relations between northern mills within reach of the market and southern mills within reach of the cotton fields, between northern capital in northern mills and northern capital in southern mills, and of rivalries between individual mill owners, there are social factors in the situation which demand attention.

*From the
Community's
Standpoint.*

From the standpoint of the general welfare it can be sturdily maintained that new industrial centers shall not go through so long and pitiful an evolution as old—that child labor, health-sapping hours, and unfended machinery should not be countenanced by northern investors who know by experience, nor by southern legislators who have the interests of their own people at heart.

So, also, it can be maintained from the standpoint of the general welfare that there are responsibilities to which old industrial communities shall measure up, even in the face of competition. There are those who will say that the New England mill towns have been probationary schools for large bodies of industrial Americans, that the standard of each new influx of workers has been raised by going through the mills, that it would be a gain if, as a result of the strike, many of the present operatives were to enter into higher lines of work for which they are fitted. And there are those on the other

hand who see only that English-speaking operatives, superior to any in the world for skill and efficiency are being displaced and perhaps degraded, "that Poles and Portuguese, who will live in crowded tenements, who will sleep and live and eat according to the needs of employers, are to hold the places they acquired as strike-breakers, are to set the standard of work and wages."

Upon either hypothesis, the situation is in a state of flux, and as such makes certain definite demands upon the permanent resources of the community. If, for instance, as many charity workers will maintain present industrial conditions are such that the hard-working employé can no longer be counseled to invest his savings in a home, but to insure an independent livelihood must retain his mobility as a laborer, then the obvious result is landlordism, and whether landlordism is in the country districts of Ireland, or in the tenement districts of New York, it has not, as a whole, proved itself conservative of the welfare of tenants. Housing standards must be set up and maintained by the civil authority. This is but one instance.

*Miss Barnum's
Statement of Con-
ditions at
Fall River.*

That the situation in the milltowns does present problems, more or less wrapped up in the wage question and which demand serious consideration, is shown by a sketch of conditions written for CHARITIES by Gertrude Barnum, secretary of the Woman's Trade Union League, who worked throughout the months of the strike in behalf of the mill girls, a sketch written in the aftermath of the strike, which is not the less significant for the fidelity with which it voices the viewpoint of those frankly in sympathy with the operatives.

It may be of interest to glance at the life of the workers who have just lost their battle for human rights. What were the conditions before the twelve-and-a-half per cent cut down in wages? The conditions of work are the conditions of life for operatives. What have the standards been in the Northern textile industries?

The entire family of the operative is obliged to work with him in the mill to meet family expenses. His old mother and father are still working as sweepers and doffers until too decrepit for even these humble tasks. His wife "asks out" only long enough

to bear and wean her children. His sixteen-year-old daughter too often wears glasses and coughs, his fourteen-year-old children have bidden farewell to play and sunshine forever. All together this family starts out in the gray morning, after a hasty breakfast, to their respective alleys in the mill. By the artificial lights they prepare their work for the moment when the wheels shall begin to roar at 6.30. The noon hour is encroached upon by more cleaning and preparation at the machines. All day the workers breathe cotton lint, and listen to the noise, which is so great that no shout can be heard above it. At six o'clock at night, they leave the steamy air, and plunge into any kind of weather for the return tramp home. The principal meal has been the hot dinner served in tin pails for one dollar per week, and eaten from the floor of the mill.

A few families own their own little wooden cottages; more of them live in tenements; far too many of these are shockingly overcrowded. The mill girl still has spirit enough to indulge in the \$1.98 picture hat, in the \$2.48 silk waist, whether or not she can afford proper underclothing and shoes. For amusement she occupies the gallery seat at the cheap theatre. What woman is more entitled to finery and recreation than the woman who earns her living? The men are often driven to drink by the conditions of their childhood and of their working life. The cheap piano in the home, the baseball game, and the ten, twenty, thirty shows are the only influences which rival the temptation of the saloon.

The strike, which has just terminated in almost total surrender of the workers, was a protest against the lowering of the modest standard of life we have just described.

"Talent-Saving
Stations."

In publishing a series of articles on several undertakings in New York to bring good music and good musical training within reach of the many, it is not the intention to convey the idea that all of the pioneer work in this field has been done in Manhattan. But by marshalling the more striking enterprises of one locality can perhaps best be brought home the rare possibilities which are everywhere only beginning to be realized. The Music School Settlement is the first distinct settlement of the arts, and the Young Men's Symphony Orchestra made possible through the generosity of Mr. Seligman, has been unique in conception; but it was Robert A. Woods, of South End House, who first, if we are not mistaken, epitomized such undertakings as "talent-saving stations," and of the

People's Singing Classes and chorus, of Boston, of H. Tomlin's work in Chicago, of the music school of Hull House and the like, equally stirring stories could be told.

The music school, the only thoroughly endowed work at Hull House, has been carried on for ten years and to quote Miss Addams is "by far the best we do on the educational side." The object is to give really adequate instruction to a limited number of talented children. The results have been very satisfactory. At the present time at least six of the older pupils are sustaining themselves as musical instructors; one of them in the City Normal School and one in the Francis W. Parker School, where he does a great deal of composing as well as instructing. Within the past year an organ has been added as a gift to the equipment of the music school.

Such recognition should be of encouragement to those in other cities who find difficulty in rousing people to the support of kindred work, where the general public it would seem, does not believe in "music lessons for the poor," in contrast to the unanimous approval given to cooking classes and the like. "There is no part of our work I am so anxious to develop," writes Alice E. Robbins, head-worker of Lawrence House, Baltimore, "as the music school, and there is nothing that we do here that is more appreciated by our neighbors. It is our little German friends who are found in the music school—twenty of them—and the piano teacher who comes from 'up-town' says that her children here are more regular in attendance, more interested and more talented. The piano teachers in the neighborhood are exceedingly poor, and most of the children who take violin lessons go to a 'fake' teacher, who gives them free lessons and charges \$10 for a \$2 violin. Or something like that.

"I am also much interested in having concerts here at the house. The church music in the neighborhood is fiendishly bad and there is small chance to hear even half-way good music. If I had a million dollars, I have always thought I should put it into an opera house for the people. I know we could save the world just as

quickly with music as with any other one thing—not even excepting cooking!"

Workers at the New York Music School Settlement say that there are two or three pupils there whose genius is worth the entire cost of the venture. The majority of their pupils who are now earning their living by music come from the very poorest families. Were it not for the settlement, they would be in the factories as their parents are. The fate of the talented child of very poor parents is either to go without lessons at all, or suffer at the hands of a poor teacher. This settlement makes it possible for him to pay for good training with his own earnings. And in support of their contention, the workers will tell you of the sixteen-year-old Russian deserter who arrived in this country with a 'cello and a capital of \$5, and is now in an orchestra; of the Polish violinist of five summers who was caught in the hall giving voluntary lessons to an older pupil; of one of the very best pianists of the school, a girl of thirteen, who lives with seven other members of her family in three small rooms, two of them dark without outside light or air.

*Sherman's
Headquarters
to be a Methodist
Hospital.*

The headquarters of General Sherman in Atlanta, used in his memorable march to the sea, has just been bought by the Methodists of Georgia and will soon be in use by them as a hospital and training school for nurses. The structure was completed during the war by Col. Marcus Bell and paint being scarce, the available paint was mixed, giving the appearance which for half a century has made a landmark of the "Calico House." It was one of the few buildings spared when Atlanta was reduced to ashes, and a maternity ward is to be installed in rooms in which, according to Southern tradition, General Sherman fed a favorite horse, using for a manger the cradle in which had been rocked as a baby the Georgian poet, Orelia Key Bell. In the words of a Georgian: "If the grim old Master of war could see his headquarters turned into a place for the battle of life, in which science will do her utmost to save rather than destroy, he would feel glad of its new use."



The Music School Settlement

Art Brought Into the Lives of Wage-Earners

Richard Watson Gilder
Editor The Century

I wonder how many of our people realize that within a few years an institution has grown up in New York as novel in character as it is beautiful in motive and spirit—one which, I venture to predict, is destined to be the model of like institutions in all the great cities of the world.

Doubtless the young woman, who in 1894 began to give music lessons to a few children on the lower East Side, had no greatly ambitious design; yet her modest and unselfish effort was the foundation of what is now an important society in the metropolis and one likely to have many branches and lead to many similar ventures.

Slowly, naturally, irresistibly this work has grown; first in a room supplied by a friendly mission, and then in connection with the College Settlement and the University Settlement. Later, with the increase of opportunity and scope, the movement has been forced into a separate, individual and ever-expanding existence, till we have this new and delightful thing in the domain of social betterment—the Music School Settlement.

The missions and social settlements of New York are every one doing a highly needed and most beneficial work in this, the most crowded, as it will be soon the largest, city of the earth. And now the deliberate, natural development of the neighborhood music-class has shown the possibilities of a new form of settlement, which admirably supplements the institutions already so usefully busy in our enormous population. The music settle-

ment has a center of attraction which is definite and alluring. It supplies a demand which does not have to be explained or urged upon those who wish to be



THE MUSIC SCHOOL SETTLEMENT.

Mrs. Howard Mansfield, 21 West 36th street, New York, is president of the Society of the Music School Settlement, Miss Florence Wardwell, 27 West 20th street, treasurer.



A TRIO CLASS.

taught music. Those who come to it come for instruction in an art in which they are expressly interested; an art in which they cannot receive elsewhere so excellent a training at so little cost. For the children of the Music School Settlement are actual customers. Individual children who show talent are helped by scholarships, but the rank and file of the children have the self-respecting privilege of paying a small fee for their lessons. When they cannot pay, other provision, when thought wise, is made for them.

The new institution is, indeed, a "settlement" in the technical sense, with its social clubs for the pupil teachers; parents, and friends; summer outings; a friendly hold upon the families of the pupils; and, in addition, the thorough teaching of a profession always in demand.

As in the case of the kindergarten and other social and educational work among the tenements, there is a constant uplifting effect on the part of the music settlement upon the individual and the

neighborhood. The love of music, when trained into a love of good music, is an elevating force, which here is added to the usual good influences of a social settlement. The children of the people are fortunate whose musical temperament enables them to be educated in one of the high arts; our population, especially that part which comes from Eastern and Central Europe, teems with such children;—and in these conditions the work of a music settlement tends both to good citizenship and in an especial way to the building up of the musical future of the community.

For, above all, the Music School Settlement is a musical institution; a serious conservatory of music for children and young people of both sexes. The musical standard is of the best; some of our finest professional musicians and most accomplished amateurs are interested in the institution; the taste of the pupils, no matter how crude at first, is soon lifted. Whatever in music is refining, inspiring, ennobling is laid open to them.



HER FIRST LESSON.

We are supposed to lack a musical atmosphere in America; here that atmosphere is being cultivated among the very masses. These children are to be a part of the critical audiences of the future; and many of them are to be self-supporting teachers and performers—from the talent already shown, some of them, doubtless, artists of distinction. Already many of the older scholars are now earning their living by teaching in the school and some of them have private pupils among their own people. The musical critics of New York have put the stamp of approval upon the standard of teaching at the settlement by their praise of the public performance of the pupils. Of one concert the *Herald* critic said: "There were some genuine surprises for even the critical musicians in the temperament and technical proficiency displayed by the younger pupils, more than one of whom proved an artist in miniature." Said the *Times*: "There was talent shown by many of them, and there were also taste, an appreciation of the meaning of good music,

and a correct method of performance. The string orchestra played with an energy and a finish, a uniformity of phrasing and bowing, that might be imitated by other orchestral players of more than their years and inches." The *Tribune* set forth the classical character of the program, and the *World* spoke of the earnestness and ability of the work of the youthful orchestra. To see and to hear this orchestra is one of the most moving and suggestive experiences that one can have.

The Music School Settlement now occupies a couple of old-fashioned and newly arranged houses on East Third street, just beyond Second avenue (55 East Third), built at a time when New Yorkers of moderate means could still afford comfortable, well-lit, roomy, separate homes for their families, near the center of city life. Availing themselves charmingly of the possibilities, the women interested in the work have given the air of a refined home, simple and at-

tractive in its furnishings, to the remodeled houses. The pictures on the walls are as artistic as they are appropriate. It is a great pleasure to see the happy, industrious, refining life of the place—the eagerness and wholesome ambition of the scholars; the patient, wise drill and instruction of the teachers—those who come to be taught not only giving intense heed to their own lessons, but often lingering attentively for hours at the lessons of their companions.

I believe there are still mortgages that should be wiped out on the property of the settlement; but the money question is not so much one of relief as of op-

portunity. The real question with those who have the means to spend where it will be sure to do good—good of a practical as well as an ideal kind—should be: how can we help this most admirable institution to increase its power to do its great work, as well in its Third street home, as through the establishment of branches in other parts of the city; how can this already successful plan be endowed and forwarded here in New York, and in other communities throughout the country.

To be of help in this good cause I cannot imagine a fairer opportunity for the lovers of music and their fellow men.

Music For and By the Many

Alfred Lincoln Seligman

Probably no influence exists which tends to call forth the better emotions in the human race, greater than that of music.

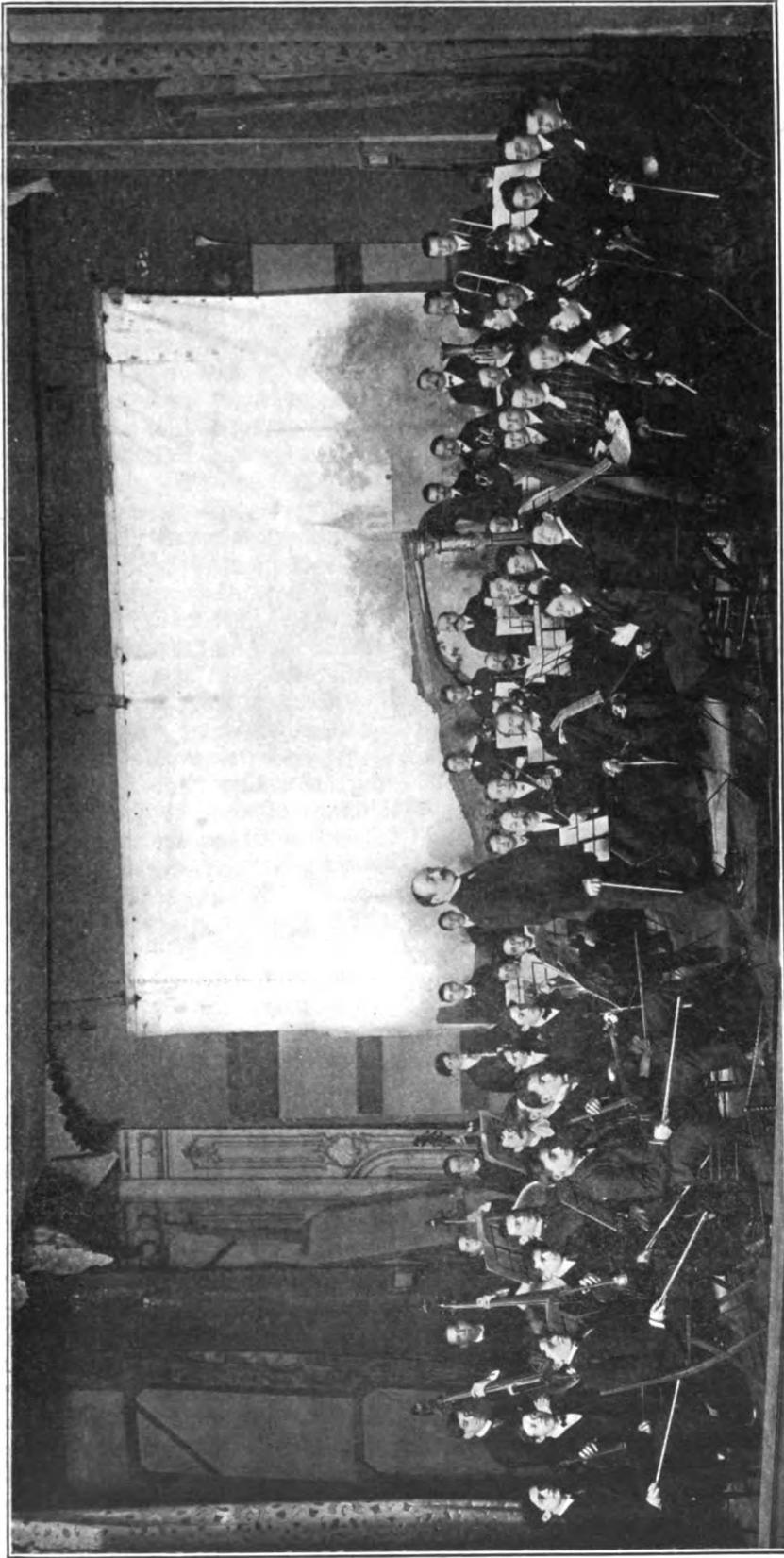
It is a universal language understood by all, and though its dialects may differ and its pronunciations vary, its meaning is ever clear and lucid, and its effects lasting and uplifting. The weird chant of the savage on the eve of battle, the crooning cradle-song of the mother over her babe, the sonorous peals of the church organ, the noble strains of the master's symphony, each suggests a different emotion—courage, love, devotion, thought—but the craving to express this emotion is identical, and the innate impulse finds its voice in music.

In our great cosmopolitan centers with their enormous foreign influx the process of welding together the varying characteristics into one homogeneous mass of Americanism is steadily going on, and, in its train, vexed questions and questionable solutions present themselves. How can those interested in helping the many be of the greatest assistance to them? Every endeavor in an altruistic direction, whether coming from the church, the settlement house, the educational organization, the public library, is of direct and generally great benefit; and yet, so frequently, it is the attempt to get close to the individual that meets

with failure. In order to help others efficaciously we must first gain their good will and sympathy, and then foster in them the desire to feel with and for others. Music is the pivotal point about which many of the highest emotions revolve, and sympathy is readily evoked through its medium. Many cases can be cited where the most hardened character has been softened, where the heaviest cross has been lightened, through a touching melody—of the rays of bright sunlight, and often, of the high-minded resolutions that a beautiful strain brings into some lives.

The appreciation of music by all sorts and conditions of people is too patent to admit of question. From personal observation it can be stated that no social function among the poor can be carried through so successfully as with the aid of music in some form, be it a pathetic ballad, a jingling ragtime, or an inspiration made of sterner musical stuff—and generally the rapt attention of the younger folks and the glistening eyes of the parents will attest to this.

The natural understanding and appreciation of good music by the musically untrained are also noteworthy, and seem to show that experience and opportunity are the most potent factors in the right musical judgment of the manv. Just as the Bard of Avon appeals equally



THE YOUNG MEN'S SYMPHONY ORCHESTRA.

to *hoi polloi* as to the refined bibliophiles, so do also the mighty classics of the great composers carry conviction and interest to the minds of all, when once their meaning and inspiration are made clear. In music, as in literature, it is always less difficult to appreciate than to properly convey the ideas of others, so the question of music for the many is of easier solution than of music by them.

Music for the many has already been tried in some of our cities, and among the attempts at its dissemination probably none has been better, nor more far-reaching in its results, than the splendid work done by the People's Symphony Concerts in New York, under the efficient direction of F. X. Arens. This gentleman not only has given of his time and energies, but also, for a period, of his purse toward the promulgation of high class music among the people at prices within the reach of all, and his interesting and lucid explanatory remarks regarding each composer's ideas and meaning are among the most attractive and instructive features of the concerts.

Since music of a high order can be appreciated by the people, and is recognized as one of the elevating factors in their lives, why should not the inborn talents among the masses be uncovered and fostered, and, above all, be employed as a bond among them, and as a tie between them and those who wish to help them? Many are the cases met with where poor uneducated parents make the greatest sacrifices, even strip themselves of the bare necessities of life, in order to pay for their offspring's music lessons.

About three years ago the idea of organizing an orchestra among struggling young musicians and students was adopted under the name of the Young Men's Symphony Orchestra. An airy, bright hall and the services of a competent musical director were secured. Instruments were provided for those unable to buy them, and free musical tuition for those who could not afford to pay for the instruction, while a general supervision over the educational and moral side was maintained. A wealth of latent talent, in some cases bordering on true genius, was discovered, and care was taken to foster it.

The time and place of the first rehearsal were given out to a few youths, and by them communicated to others. About twoscore players of stringed instruments responded to the call. It was a motley array of fiddles that were brought along. Some of the instruments had no doubt served the household gods as well as the shrine of St. Cecilia. One lad had a curious instrument of strict home-production and awe-inspiring appearance, from which he evoked a quality of tone that would have made Stradivarius turn in his grave.

The pathetic side, too, was in evidence. Attention was attracted to one of the youngest of the gathering, who had brought his bow with him only.

"Where is your violin?" was kindly asked of him.

"It is in the pawn-shop," replied the boy, shamefacedly. "I went out for an errand last night, and while I was gone father took it."

"Are your folks so very poor?" was the question.

"It ain't that we are so poor," responded the lad sadly, "but father drinks sometimes, and when he does nothing we have is safe. Please let me stay and listen, won't you?" he begged, "and by next rehearsal, I'll have saved enough to get it out."

He was told to draw a chair into the circle, and listened absorbedly while the director outlined the work that would follow. Then the youths began to rehearse a simple score, with which most were familiar. The boy, who had only his bow, moved uneasily; his fingers quivered nervously; his bow would not remain still. Finally the spirit of the music gained complete mastery, and he began to draw the horse-hair over imaginary strings. Another violin was put into his hands. Tears came into his eyes and the look of thanks he gave beggared description.

The enjoyment which the young people derive from the interpretation of good music is keen, and, apart from the healthy, clean environment, it became evident that the effect on the up-building of the character was marked.

Just as a good orchestral performer knows when to subdue his playing, or when to come to the fore and sustain the

theme, so must the spirit of self-abnegation and self-assertion in life's melody be learned, and with conscientious schooling this great lesson is accentuated in an orchestral body.

After the first few rehearsals, the fame of the orchestra spread throughout the neighborhood, and performers on other instruments swelled the ranks. A few older men, some members of the musicians' union, whose calling compelled them to play meretricious music in the cafés, applied for membership, and the body became complete in every orchestral branch. A number of the members have been taken into the leading professional orchestras of this city, Washington, Philadelphia, and Pittsburg, but their ranks are at once filled by other candidates for admission. The sole requisites for membership are respectability of character, some musical proficiency, prompt attendance at the weekly meetings, and a nominal contribution of fifty cents, annually. In some instances, even this tax was found too onerous, and it was, of course, relegated.

The climax of the season's work consists of two invitation concerts held at the Belasco Theatre, which David Belasco had generously placed at the disposal of the young men.

In so doing, he has added a great incentive to the boys' work and ambition, for the desire to show in public and under favorable auspices what one can accomplish is very human and rather pardonable.

The following criticism, taken from the columns of a well-known periodical, shows that artistically the work of the young men is recognized: "A year ago no orchestra in the city would have engaged these boys, most of whom had no preparatory training whatsoever. To-day some of them belong to the musicians' union, while others, who would be well qualified for admission, are not yet old enough to

enter. The ages of the boys and young men range from fourteen to about twenty-two. At the invitation of Mr. Belasco, who is interested in the progress of these young musicians, the orchestra which usually assembles at Mendelssohn Hall, was invited to give its concert at the Belasco Theatre on Sunday, May 15, 1904. Thither the writer went, expecting to hear the usual crude attempts of amateurs. Instead, he heard a performance characterized by a precision and earnestness of purpose, and a force and vitality rarely found even among more mature musicians. The boys are enthusiasts. As they played the movement entitled 'Ase's Tod' from the 'Peer Gynt' suite with its mournful, sombre funereal tread, their faces were a study. They were not elevated by frequently questionable scholarship, by a majestic calm of objectivity, above the music; they felt every note of it, and it was to be regretted that a photographer was not present to catch the expression of these young faces. Moreover, there was a quality in the playing, especially in that of the strings, which went straight to the heart—that indescribable quality characteristic also of a boys' choir. If we add to this unique effect, which it would be utterly impossible for men of maturer growth to produce, surprising technical skill, good intonation, a very fair balance of tone and rythmical precision, we certainly enumerate qualities sufficient to induce the public to give the young men their strong encouragement and support."

In conclusion it can be stated that the best music will be appreciated by the people, that the best music can be meritoriously rendered by them, that some of the finest musical ideas have emanated from them, as the wealth of folk-songs will attest, and that, through the art of melody, an excellent means is at hand to assist in bridging over the vast gulfs which separate the classes.

Music on the Lower East Side

A. Minnie Herts

The Educational Alliance

It has been said that genius is the ability to work fifteen hours a day, and as a balance for that liberal statement it has also been said that but three geniuses are born in each generation. As in the case of all highly radical and lowly conservative declarations, the middle course may be placed somewhere between the two; and still at present writing I would rather prove the former than discount the latter statement since absolute genius will find its way, whilst nothing but intelligent direction coupled with concentration will assist mere talent. The lower East Side is seething with musical talent in need of intelligent direction. The natural musical taste inherent in the Russian Jew is often wilfully dissipated by quacks and charlatans who set up so-called conservatories, call themselves professors of music, and daily strive to quench that spark of genius which expresses itself in enthusiasm for long hours and hard work. Let me put the matter simply and take for example a Russian or Polish family who have been living anywhere between East Houston and Jefferson streets for six months. Given six children in the family, and it would be nothing unusual to find three of these little ones have marked musical ability. I frequently visit families where all six of the children are musical and the parents also. These parents do not know one word of English, and soon after arrival here they receive circulars and letters printed and written in their own language, setting forth the advantages of sending their children to a certain conservatory which promises that a child will be taught to play all the airs from a certain opera in six months; moreover, that he will be fitted to perform on the concert stage in eight months; and that in a year he will get an engagement in a neighboring café or theatre. As a matter of course the parents, naturally intelligent but entirely unacquainted with conditions and very willing to believe that even a royal road to learning is possible in this wonderful new country, send their sons and daughters in scores and

hundreds to the care of pernicious instructors.

There is aside from such East Side conservatories another method of gaining pupils,—the organization of orchestras by various men of the neighborhood who frequently know less of their art than many of the smallest children. They will set themselves forth as unselfish philanthropists in establishing orchestra classes from whose members they will take no fee, but in the end they will have pulled out of the venture no less than fifty violin pupils. I have listened to many concerts on the East Side given by these orchestras established by advertisers, and if it be true that the soul becomes more harmonious by being accustomed to harmony, then the souls both of the players and their listeners must have been sadly perturbed and ill at ease at the unvarying discords.

I could go on citing the diverse and circuitous methods these quacks have of working upon the truthful natures of the people and of gaining pupils; and might even quote sentences from some of their circulars; they read very much as the announcements used for patent medicines. But, rather what I want to do is to emphasize the plethora, the abundance, the full measure pressed down and running over of musical talent on the East Side and the constantly attempted subversion and destruction of this divine gift by fraudulent representation to a people naturally trusting, naive and more than childishly gullible. Now what, in the natural course of events, happen to these children who have been nurtured by the advertising musical quack? They apply for engagements in reputable orchestras and of course are not eligible because of their lack of real musical education. Sometimes they receive poor engagements in down-town cafés or play at balls and weddings. Frequently numbers of children have been formed into orchestras traveling through the country and making large sums of money for the managers, whilst the children receive the merest pittance and continue in their musical degra-

dation. Under good instruction, and the best is none too good, while nothing less than the best is good enough, the development of these little ones is marvelous. I have in mind a company of eighteen children who had formed an orchestra class among themselves and were desirous of giving a concert at the Educational Alliance. I persuaded them to come under the care of the musical director of the alliance, and the improvement in one month was almost incredible. Where previously, because of bad instruction and no insistence upon harmony, it had been impossible for the children to carry out their plan of playing anything so pretentious as a Haydn symphony, they were able after several lessons to give creditably an interesting program and were willing to follow the director's advice to play what lay within their range.

Any one of these children might, after some years of the best instruction, become a self-supporting man or woman; since there is great need of the younger generation growing up well equipped to be adjuncts to the many excellent orchestras

now supported throughout the country. Were there enough good music schools to educate a great body of young people sufficiently well to be self-supporting musicians there would be less need for charitable relief. Spoiled musicians are poor wage-earners. There is a great, arduous and expensive work to be done on the lower East Side in the undoing of these spurious conservatories and in the up-building of good music schools. I say an arduous and expensive work because it is far easier to get money to support diet kitchens and kindred charities than it is to get money for the support of music schools; yet alleviative charity is often destructive and the proper kind of educational work is always constructive. How long will the great mass of people continue to believe that the life of the body is so vastly more important than the life of the soul? We do not create this love of music in the souls of these children. It is a gift divine and it should be our privilege and our great joy to meet it on the threshold and to minister unto it with grace and abundance.

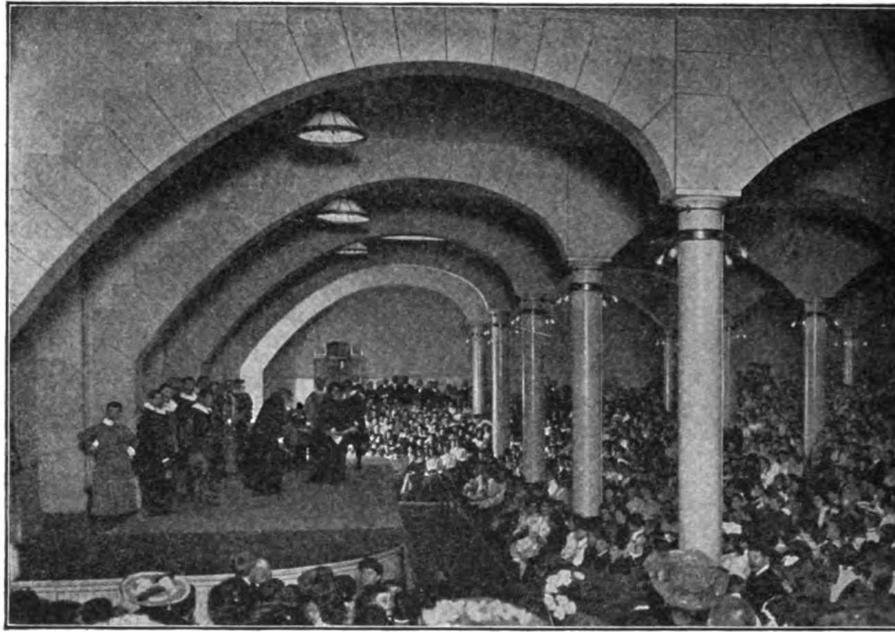
A Theatre for the People and the Public Schools

Charles Sprague Smith

On a Saturday afternoon, last May, the sidewalk and open space in front of the Cooper Union afforded an unusual sight. Hundreds of young girls of ages between twelve and eighteen were waiting for the opening of the doors. With them were a few score schoolboys. When the gates were opened the square emptied itself into the hall. Owing to the fact that the throng was composed mainly of the gentler sex, and of an obeying age, the exhortations of those in charge secured its passage with no greater injury than the disarrangement of a hair ribbon or two. Within a few moments after the first wave had passed the hall was filled. The spectacle was an unwonted one for those accustomed to look upon the ordinary Cooper Union audience. It was as though a field which had been hitherto devoted to some sober-colored useful herb had

suddenly been transformed into a brilliantly colored garden with roses, orchids and violets growing in scattered profusion. The ordinary silence of the waiting audience, disturbed only by the rustling of newspapers, had given place to the hum of voices, mingled with light laughter. A police captain grown old in the service, himself a father of six children, exclaimed "My isn't that a beautiful sight! I wish all those girls were mine!"

The audience was divided into groups, most of them in charge of older persons, teachers or parents. Copies of Shakespeare, with the page open at *The Merchant of Venice*, were in evidence everywhere. The stage was undecorated, presenting the usual appearance of the Cooper Union platform, the only change being the suspension of neutral-colored curtains between the arches so as to shut out the



A SCHOOL MATINEE—THE MERCHANT OF VENICE.

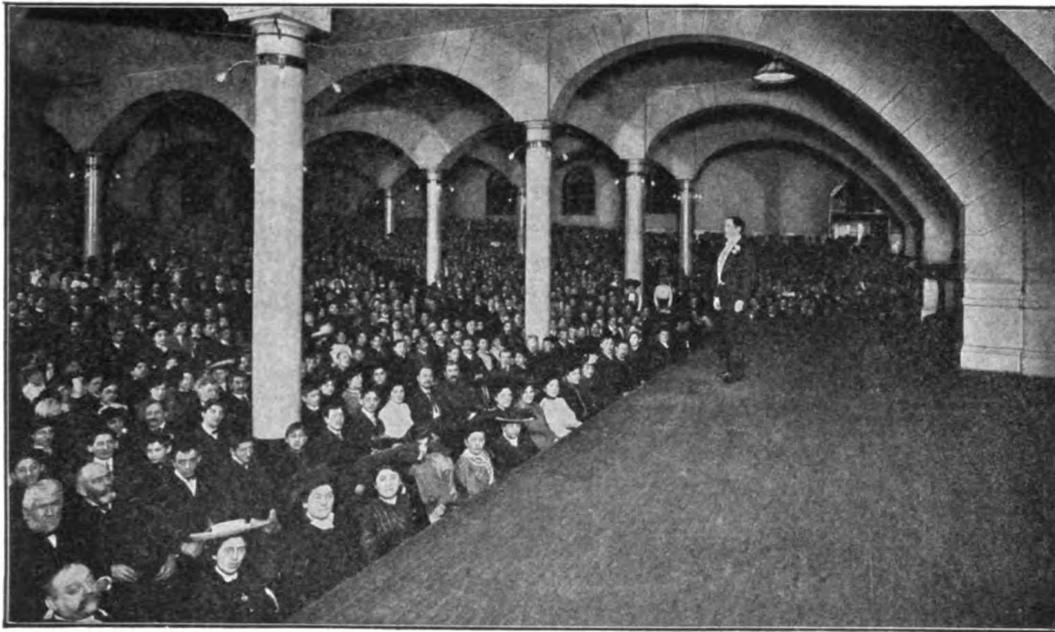
mirrors in the rear, and furnish entrances and exits for the players. Complete silence fell when Antonio came forward and began his monologue. The interest throughout was an eager one, culminating in the trial scene, when Edith Wynne Matthison as Portia, with consummate art, arraigned Shylock.

On the evening before this performance the same company, that of Ben Greet, had given *The Merchant of Venice* to an audience composed largely of residents of the East Side. Some thirteen hundred were present in the hall, which seats sixteen hundred. Many young children, familiar East Side types, occupied the ten-cent seats, and in their eagerness to hear and see all, stood during a large part of the performance. On the night following the school matinee, *Twelfth Night* was given to a similar East Side audience of about eleven hundred. It had not been possible for the management to give sufficient notice of the two evening performances, the license required for the presentation of plays having been secured only twenty-four hours beforehand, owing to serious unforeseen difficulties.

This dramatic experiment was of a two-fold nature, that of the matinee being an attempt to discover how far public-school children who were studying Shakespeare, would support a dramatic presentation of his plays, provided admission were of-

fered at a rate within their means; that of the two evenings being to determine what support could be secured for a theatre for the people which should present the plays under similar conditions. An entrance fee of twenty-five cents admitted to the entire house for the matinee, there being no reserved seats; that for the evening performances varied from ten to fifty cents according to location. The experiment was a complete success. The attendance and the interest displayed on both evenings, made clear that with sufficient advertisement the hall would have been easily filled, indeed over-filled. For the matinee, it had been possible to bring the matter to the attention of the schools by circular letters, thus avoiding publicity and facilitating the cancellation of tickets in case the license had not been issued. The Wadleigh High School took over seven hundred tickets. Other schools took each a hundred or more. The entire house was sold out long before the play was given. A few days later I received from a twelve-year-old girl attending one of the public schools a charming letter expressing her delight:

Saturday morning I was so happy over the prospect of seeing *The Merchant of Venice*, that I thought of nothing else. While helping mama, I was continually saying, "In sooth I know not why I am so sad," until she said her ears buzzed. The whole morning I was dreaming of Portia,



A SHAKESPEAREAN RECITAL BY MARSHALL DARRACH.

Antonio, Shylock, Bassanio. We obtained good seats, and saw very well.

In the morning Miss K— had shown me a picture of Miss Edith Wynne Matthison as she appeared in *Everyman*. There she was beautiful, but when I saw her as my beloved Portia she was twice as lovely. When Antonio came out and said, "In sooth I know not why I am so sad," Miss K— gave me a knowing look. Even though I knew that the pound of flesh was not to be forfeited I forgot it for the time being, and imagined that I saw it being confiscated, but that is because of the way in which Shylock sharpened that knife, and then felt it to see if it was keen enough to serve his cruel purpose. In the *Lamb's Tales* I have at home, there is a picture of Shylock sharpening his knife, and the likeness was very accurate. On the way home Miss K— asked me which I preferred, to read books or go to plays. I am very fond of reading, I did not know which I was most fond of. I said, "Of course, if all plays were like *The Merchant of Venice*, there would be no question about it."

As to the financial results—the gross receipts for the three performances were nearly \$1,000. This sum, enlarged as it would have been under normal conditions, would have provided for all expenses and left a modest yet adequate fee for the company.

The experience of these May days was the final step in an experiment that had been continued by the People's Institute for several years. Marshall Darrach had been engaged to give recitals of Shakes-

peare's plays, first in the small lecture room of the Cooper Union, seating some three hundred, later in the large hall. His ability to present entire plays, impersonating all the characters in turn in a natural and effective manner without stage accessories or costume had increased the interest in Shakespeare to such an extent that about as many were unable to enter the large hall at his recitals as obtained admission. At his recital of *Hamlet* on one of the most inclement nights of this season, several hundred people were turned away, and on January 6, when *The Merchant of Venice* was offered, under still more unfavorable conditions of weather, the hall was again overfilled.

A further test of the eagerness of the public schools to see Shakespeare's plays staged was made January 14, when a circular letter was sent to the principals of the high schools of the greater city and the public schools of Manhattan. Inquiry was made as to the number of students of Shakespeare desirous of hearing Mr. Darrach recite *Macbeth*. The letter reached the schools on Monday, and, on Tuesday, 4,400 applications for sittings were returned.

The Present Need.

Here, then, lies open a rich field of new possibilities. It has been demonstrated that audiences composed of the masses of the

people will support modestly a theatre upon whose stage masterpieces of dramatic art are presented, and that they are eager for such an opportunity. Also that the children in the advanced classes of our public schools are, if possible, still more eager for the privilege. Shakespeare is being studied everywhere throughout our public school system, yet a very large number of these young pupils are unable to see acted the plays they have read. They might, perhaps, by occupying seats in upper galleries, see some of Shakespeare's dramas staged, but even then the prices would be for them quite high, and more than likely the plays given would not be those they were studying. And who can question the educational and inspirational value to both classes of audiences of the staged Shakespearean drama?

Other great cities of the world are not slow to discern and avail themselves of this opportunity. Paris is about to construct a lyric theatre for its people, with prices that place it within the reach of all. The hall is to seat some five thousand, and on its stage the supreme dramatic artists of France are expected to appear. St. Petersburg also has one or more fully equipped people's palaces. New York city is not only without such a people's theatre, but an investigation undertaken last winter by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor disclosed the fact that none of the existing theatres were available for that purpose. Either the prices were too high, present or probable future engagements forbade, or the halls were unsuitable in equipment or location. Cooper Union, by the action of its trustees, has been closed to further dramatic representations. After careful examination of the building laws, it was concluded that full conformity therewith would require an expensive reconstruction of the hall if either musical or dramatic performances were to be permitted. Therefore not only have repetitions of such dramatic entertainments as those of last May been prohibited, but also the symphony concerts, that have won in the last few years, under the inspiring leadership of Franz Arens, so great response as to become a vital feature in the winter life of the East Side. It is not as yet clear what should be immediately done to

provide musical and dramatic opportunities for the people. The People's Symphony Concert Association has removed its work to Carnegie Hall, but the old East Side audience has not to any considerable extent followed it thither. It is possible that in Carnegie, or some other up-town hall, dramatic work for the public schools could be successfully carried on, but dramatic work for the people at large will have to search long, among present theatres and halls, before finding a suitable abiding place. The question, therefore, of the immediate provision for this double need is as yet unanswered.

Permanent provision for the need can only be made as Paris and St. Petersburg are making it: by the construction of a people's theatre or people's palace, though in our country such an institution would naturally be founded and supported by private initiative, not by the municipality. The disappointment felt by the People's Institute, in being debarred on the musical and dramatic side from Cooper Union after its years of experiment, is a keen one. In the musical work inaugurated by Mr. Arens in co-operation with us and in the enthusiasm aroused by the dramatic performances of last May, we had looked forward to a long series of experiments nobly rounded out. By this is not implied, in any wise, a criticism of the trustees of the Cooper Union. They have acted according to their best judgment with that consideration for the safety of the audiences under their care required of men in positions of responsibility. But the immediate disappointment should be the harbinger of greater ultimate success. If conditions prior to this definite refusal had indicated the need of a new hall for the people, this act indubitably affirmed it. Such a hall now becomes the prime necessity of the social life of the masses of our city. It would exercise also vast influence upon the lives of our public-school children.

Consider for a moment the manifold usefulness of such a hall. The People's Institute provides to-day a free forum, for the study and discussion of and the voting upon all public questions: one whose claim to be *the* people's forum of New York city will scarcely be dis-

*The Uses
of a
People's Hall.*

puted; also a people's church without creed, which seeks to offer on Sunday evenings religious and ethical inspiration, not only to those who have ceased to attend the churches, but also to the many who while still attendants feel the need of a larger and more unsectarian religious or ethical stimulus. This people's church gathers weekly an audience of fifteen hundred, mostly workingmen. On its platform appear in succession representative clergymen of almost every creed. The work of the symphony concerts and of the dramatic experiments has been already described. Moreover, as is well known, the institute offers lectures on varied themes, and has established a people's club.

The people's hall we have in mind would be on Sunday evening a church for our already gathered congregation of fifteen hundred, which, by the added musical attractions of an organ and the greater drawing power of a well-constructed and well-ventilated hall above ground, would be speedily increased to double that number. On other evenings it would be the place of assemblage of the people for the forming and voicing of opinions upon public questions and for listening to addresses on vital themes by leaders in public life, the people's forum. Again, it would be their hall of music, and, on still other evenings, their theatre. On suitable afternoons the advanced classes of the public schools would frequent it to listen to music, to see the great dramas staged, and to hear words of inspiration from men and women of power. That a large hall of this sort would form part of a structure worthy of the city, containing smaller halls, classrooms, a library, a roof-garden, and the like, would seem the

natural ordering of such a structure if it were to provide fitly for existing and future needs. There is no other social and educational work as yet undone in this city wherewith a donor, associating his name, can accomplish as much. Only the name of Peter Cooper would rival his, and only because Peter Cooper pointed out the way. For this people's hall, which will surely be constructed before a not remote period, will stand to the future New York city as the Cooper Union has to the New York of the last fifty years. Indeed, if speedily constructed, it will be an example which city after city will be proud to copy. If not speedily built, New York will follow rather than lead, for built it will be in many places. It is the natural expression in architecture of democracy on its social and its civic side.

With suitable financial backing, the People's Institute will continue its dramatic experiments, seeking a hall adapted at least to the staging of Shakespeare for the public schools. To satisfy the "dramatic hunger" of the East Side may prove a more difficult task, owing to the apparent dearth of halls suitable in construction and locality and not otherwise employed already. In the face of results already obtained, it would seem that this fresh field of work ought to attract those of abundant means, who, while desirous to aid their fellows, demand that such investment yield assured and abundant returns. Shakespeare staged for the public schools would become speedily if not immediately a self-supporting business undertaking. The returns in education and inspiration are not to be easily estimated.

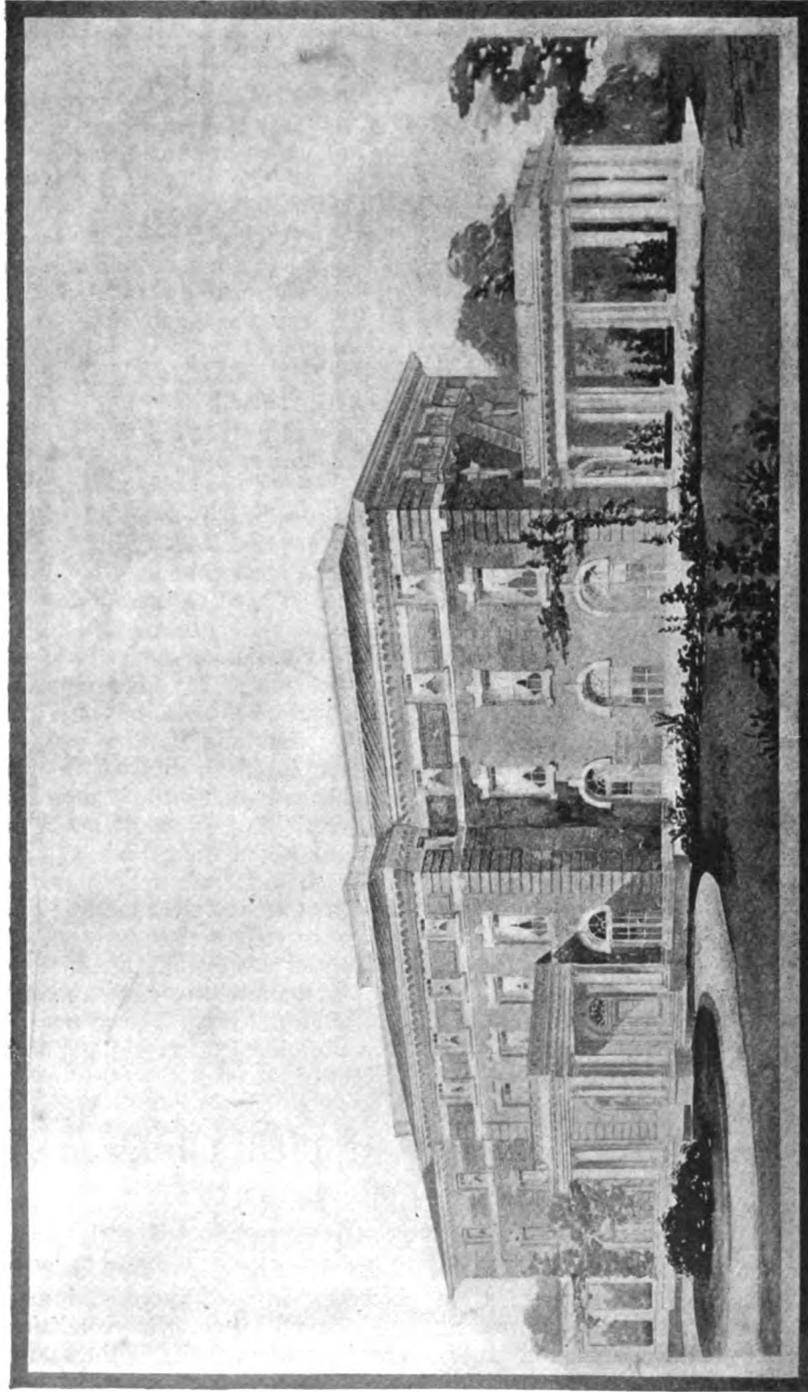
The Education of Crippled Children

Russell A. Hibbs, M. D.

Surgeon-in-Chief of the New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital.

The children that are so seriously crippled and for such a length of time during their school age as to prevent their receiving the educational opportunities offered the average child, constitute the class of crippled children for whom some special educational methods must be devised.

In devising plans for their education, however, it is of the first importance to understand that the condition which creates that necessity is the same, namely, disease and deformity, which creates the necessity for special methods of surgical treatment. And while it may be fairly stated that orthopædic surgery has



COUNTRY BRANCH AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL OF THE NEW YORK ORTHOPEDIC DISPENSARY AND HOSPITAL, WHITE PLAINS.

reached a point in the perfection of those methods where, under proper conditions, they may be successful in restoring these children to health, it cannot be said that those conditions have yet been fully attained and until they are, no educational plan can be entirely satisfactory.

The chief difficulty consists in our inability to apply any method of treatment continuously because we are unable to keep such children in a city hospital a sufficient length of time to accomplish a cure, owing to the limited hospital facilities and the great demand made upon them and to the fact that such an environment is not the proper one for these children during their prolonged convalescence. After a certain amount of success has been secured in their treatment at the hospital, we are forced to send them to their homes where they cannot have the proper surgical care, owing to their necessarily infrequent and irregular visits to the dispensary and the unhealthy surroundings in which they live—thereby sacrificing much in the duration of treatment and in the character of the result obtained.

While the increasing interest of the public in the education of these children is gratifying, it would be more helpful and practical if that interest was concentrated first, in an effort to secure those surroundings for the crippled child which would be most conducive to the restoration of his health. For what use is there in giving an education to one who is not securing a foundation for it in physical health, sufficient to make possible the use of those qualities of strength coming from it, upon assuming the duties of adult life?

The requirements of these children from a surgical standpoint, when fully met, will prepare the best way for their education. Each orthopædic hospital should have, as a part of its equipment, a convalescent branch in the country, where its patients could be sent, when discharged, to remain during the years necessary to accomplish a cure. Thus, there would be no break in the continuity of their

treatment and their residence in the country, in an environment of fresh air and sunshine, would both hasten and make more permanent their recovery. In this way the necessity of sending them to their homes and to the dispensary, would be avoided.

While the surgeon's care is of the first importance, the treatment is during the large part of its history of such a nature, being mechanical, that it need in no way interfere with the educational development, but should be helpful to it.

These two forces, the educational and surgical, may be combined to an advantage in such an institution, that is not possible, either in a city hospital or in the home.

The New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital has established, in its Country Branch and Industrial School, such an institution, situated two and one-half miles out of White Plains, N. Y. Its capacity is fifty-two children and they are convalescent patients from the city hospital. Its location, its equipment, and its nearness to the city, offer the conditions necessary to complete success. Being in healthful surroundings in the country insures an abundance of pure air and sunshine. It is near enough to the city for the staff of the hospital to make frequent visits, which, with the resident surgeon and staff of nurses, provides the proper surgical care and a staff of teachers, with sufficient schoolroom and equipment, cover the educational requirements. Here these children are to remain until their health is restored and their education accomplished. In such surroundings it is believed that their education will be no more difficult than in the case of any child. The difference in their physical condition is not sufficient to preclude their being taught in classes, as is done in the public schools, and their industrial training will be carried on very much in the same way as in other industrial and trade schools, so that upon leaving the institution, they will have acquired a common school education and a training which will fit them to be self-supporting.

Paternalism and the Immigrant

Broughton Brandenburg

Author of Imported Americans

In the next twelve months Congress is going to rehabilitate our immigration system, and in all probability it will be many years before the many varying interests urging reform will be united again sufficiently in opinion and backed by public alarm and anxiety, so that it behooves all true lovers of their country to consider well the steps to be taken. Everybody but the immigrant having been consulted, the affairs of the immigrant in the new world are to be cobbled into shape. If mistakes are not to be made before Congress is through then considerable enlightenment of that body must occur, for from some recent expressions, I can understand why the governments of Europe are confident that they will suffer no ill effects from our effort to gulp their surplus millions.

There are just three great tasks in this immigration problem. The first is to select healthy honest immigrants capable of making their own living. The possession of a few dollars more or less or the ability to read and write a language they will not use long here does not matter.

The second is to safeguard the selection and the immigrant in transit, for in other times and places I have shown the devilish ingenuity with which Europeans evade American laws and the mulctings, hardships, and brutalities the immigrant undergoes. I underwent them myself, to learn the truth.

The third is to prevent the congestion of the immigrants on the Atlantic seaboard and scatter them where they will do the most good.

It is of this third labor of Hercules that the most is to be said in this article for it has been conclusively proven that the facts as to whether an immigrant is fit or not to come to the United States are obtainable only in the village of his residence abroad and that by visiting inspectors. It is a gigantic, inhuman crime that the fourteen thousand people to whom

it was necessary to deny admission to the United States last year were ever allowed to sell their property, give up their work and ruin themselves in a futile effort to get into the promised land. No tongue can tell their sufferings. They should never have been allowed to leave home. But if we have done a great wrong we have been grievously treated in our turn. When in only one commune in Austria 180 of 270 criminals released last year from an overcrowded prison were sent at once to the United States, according to Special Inspector Marcus Braun's report, how many other thousands total of cutthroats told our officials they were honest and walked in unhindered?

Commissioner Sargent has proposed that every immigrant be compelled to bring a certificate of his character from the local authorities. This would merely make the graft of the communal offices that much fatter. Some of the consuls have thought it best that the immigrants be compelled to appear before them and obtain certificates. When it is a notorious though shameful fact that too many of our consuls are men appointed as a reward for political services and to get them away from trouble-making at home, it is to be imagined what beautiful uniformity would be obtained. Incidentally if there was to be any certainty that the immigrant's statements to the consul about himself were true, it would be necessary to send inspectors to the villages to check up the information from the communal records. So, why not send men to the villages in the first place? Also, in Russia and one or two minor countries, the applicants would not be allowed to travel to the consular seats. Another great advantage of visiting inspectors would be that by sending agents to Danish, German, Belgian, French, Scotch and English villages from which there is no immigration at present, a very desirable movement could be incited, because families who

have something to lose by coming to America will not now risk being debarred. If sure of admittance they would come.

*The Task
of
Distribution.*

But the first and the second tasks are complicated in no such way as is the third. There the only thing that the several thousand earnest people who are agitating concerning immigration distribution know in common is that there are too many immigrants in the cities. All have other fragmentary bits of intimate knowledge and on these they base their projects. Some of these projects can only be excused on the grounds of ignorance on the part of the perpetrators, and those grounds must needs be extensive to afford adequate excuse.

Having, after years of study of the complex situations of mixed life on both sides of the ocean, no real project to offer beyond one slight suggestion, what I may say since it will only be of conditions will be the entire truth as I have seen it, for nothing will be withheld to prevent a

theory's destruction nor will anything be adduced merely to support one.

The immigration of the next year will be the largest movement of human beings from any one continent to another the world has ever seen. It will run far over the million mark. Ever since Roosevelt's election more than two hundred thousand re-patriated Italians have been celebrating in their home towns with fiestas, processions, speeches and fireworks. They are assisted by those who hope to come and all will voyage to America if possible. My correspondents report over eighty meetings of rejoicing over the victory in southern Italy since November 18. But new immigration of the Iberic race will drop and the Slavic and Hebrew surge ahead once more. These two are the most important in considering distribution. The two forces driving them are first, economic and social pressure in Russia due to the war; and second, the increasing prosperity in America. Societies are operating all over the continent



A CROWD OF IMMIGRANTS ABOARD SHIP—THE MAN IN THE LIGHT SUIT IS PILOTING A GROUP OF HIS COUNTRYMEN—THEIR DESTINATION WAS DETERMINED BEFORE LEAVING ITALY.

to succor the Poles and Jews pouring over the Russian border and ship them to their already burdened countrymen in the United States. Slavs of all the national divisions are even now buying tens of thousands of tickets to send home to relatives to come over this spring in time for the grand rush of summer work.

There we have roughly the motives for migration. Not once in a hundred times is it an initial, uninfluenced move on the part of a whole family to take up residence in a new and better country. Among



AN IMMIGRANT BRINGING HIS WIFE TO THIS COUNTRY ON HIS SECOND TRIP—DESTINATION FIXED.

the Italians, Greeks, Hungarians, Poles, etc., the hardy laborer comes first and wins a foothold and then sends for the remainder of the family. Therefore the mass of the immigrants have a fixed destination very firmly decided upon by circumstances before they ever leave home and any information bureau established at this end of the line to endeavor to induce them to go some place else would be a waste of words and printed matter. If the immigrants are to be influenced in their destination it must be done before they leave home, for they are going where

their friends are and their friends are where they can get work and the places where they can get work are in the industrial centers and the industrial centers are in the congested sections. There has been no difficulty in getting abundant immigrants into Colorado, in fact, too many touched with socialism and anarchistic venom as the recent troubles showed, for there are mines in Colorado to employ them. As for the Jew, he goes where his relatives are or where the charitable society that is getting him out of Europe sends him, and the society is certainly not going to pay fare farther than New York.

The Scandinavian distributes himself. The German is too speedily assimilated to be dangerous or burdensome wherever he goes, except in Milwaukee, Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati or Pittsburg where the generation of anarchy, saengerbunds and breweries have offset each other. The Irishman has been displaced as a laborer by the Iberian and the Slav and is readily distributed by the employment agencies into domestic service. Two-thirds of the present Irish immigration goes at once to domestic service.

That narrows the distribution problem down to the Jews, the Slavs and the Iberians.

The Jewish Immigration.

There are 600,000 Jews in the state of New York alone, nearly all of these in the city of New York, and the 75,000 men, women and children who support the mass of the others are engaged in the tailoring trades. If the approximate 550,000 Jews in New York city are to be distributed over the country, are the tailoring industries which have centered and maintained them in New York to be distributed with them, or are they to have no work? Russia has committed a multitude of murders and worse deeds to make farmers out of her Jews. In three years the removal committee of the United Hebrew Charities has succeeded in removing from the city to the country but an average of 4,250 persons per year while as many fresh immigrants have arrived in the city in one week. The difficulty has been not a matter of funds or places for families, but of willingness of the families to go. If the struggling, sometimes starving Jews of New York refuse

to go to the country under the persuasion of their own leaders what good will it do to endeavor to effect inducement by railroad land-settling advertisements and pamphlets? One-eighth of all the Jews in the world are in the United States and yet there is but a handful outside the cities and eighty-six per cent are in cities of over 25,000. By what process is the Jew to be induced to take up a rural residence where he can get support only from the soil and that if he will dig it out with a hoe?

The Italian. On the other hand, the

Italian presents the farmer ready made, but the situation is even more difficult, for though nine-tenths of the Italians who come to the United States have followed agricultural pursuits, they are willing to do anything else for any rate of pay rather than continue farming. In southern Italy from which the mass of immigrants come, there is no considerable industry except farming, and men who are naturally gifted for other pursuits must do work in the soil to live; therefore each overburdened peasant has come to look on the soil as his master and he as its slave, and when they come to the United States nothing is farther out of the range of their expectations than to take up rural life. They are sick of the soil. There are three classes in Italy which as designated here have an influence on the immigrant's aspirations; the aristocracy, the "employed" class, and the peasants. The peasant who comes here and gets a job dodging blasts in a railroad cut writes home proudly that he has risen to the employed class. If on a railroad, best of all; but if in a trench, still very good.

And again, the Italians are expert farmers and irrigators in their own crops—grapes, figs, tomatoes, pears, apricots, berries, cabbages, hemp, beans, cotton, silk, etc., but compared with our agricultural processes, their work is all done in miniature. The spade takes the place of the plow in all southern Italy. If a large colony of Italians were put down, let us say in southern Georgia, a few years would see merely a reproduction of the tiny gardens, elaborated, channeled and watered, which they have known at home. They would not be able to compete with

the American farmer who produces on a larger plan, all other things being equal. This offsets the greatest inducement which could be held out to immigrants to go west and south; that is, ownership of their own land.

Lastly there is another phase of the immigrant's attitude which not one of the busy men who are planning to distribute him seems to have considered and that is the intention of the immigrant when he leaves his home. He only hopes to come to the United States for two or three years, get as good a job as possible,



AN IMMIGRANT PIONEER IN AN AMERICAN INDUSTRY—HE WILL BE FOLLOWED NEXT YEAR BY OTHERS.

save as much as possible, and get home again where he can get the most possible for his money. He has very little thought of remaining unless it is too hot at home for him or some relative is already firmly established in the United States. The idea of taking up a farm and buying stock and tools is the last idea that would be acceptable; and as for becoming a hired man at eighteen dollars a month and his board, there is no chance of inducing him to do that so long as he can live in the city for \$2.50 a week and earn thirty-three dollars a month at day labor. Also,

if he would go where farm labor is needed he must pay from ten dollars to twenty dollars railroad fare. Add to this the naturally gregarious instincts of the Italian brought about by the landowners, compelling the peasants for generations to live in villages, and one can understand why the Italians do not and will not go west to the open lands.

In Westchester county, N. Y., and on up into Connecticut some of the Italian families, living in the villages to be near the railroad, quarry or factory work, have taken up abandoned farms or bits of waste land, turned small streams from their channels, and done wondrous things in the gardening way. The most fruitful gardens I have ever seen in the United States are some little patches on rocky soil just north of Mamaroneck, N. Y. They would put an American or German gardener to shame, but the occupants do not depend on them for maintenance. These gardens merely show what can be done.

Two Ways of Appeal.

There are two ways of appealing to the natural keenness of the Italian mind under these circumstances and overcoming some of these prejudices and misunderstandings. If the Italian can be shown that it is much to his advantage to go to the country instead of living miserably in the city, he will go there. If the advantage cannot be shown he will not go there nor can he readily be forced to go. Already he is distrustful because he has been so egregiously lied to by the railroad immigration bureaus, land companies and others. The new colonization experiments which have been tried and failed, such as the one at New Palermo, Ala., have been discussed and rediscussed with bitterness among the Italians in the city colonies. One of the ways is to appeal directly to the class of Italians who have made money and are going home in the fall. Give them literature to take back with them and let that literature be prepared by persons who understand their wants. Every illustrated American souvenir book is passed from hand to hand in the villages. Instead of investing their savings in Italy the returned immigrants may come back the next spring and invest them in western or southern land. The

interests which make money from the immigrants understand just how to direct incitation. If a few hundred such investors prosper the remainder will be easy.

A second way would be to use the power of the padrone banker. The padrone bankers direct two-thirds of the stream of Italian immigration. They supply the railroads, the mines and the factories with the contract labor. If a demand for three thousand farm laborers in South Dakota were placed in the hands of any padrone to-morrow the men would be in Dakota at work in April.

The reader must not be confused by the statements that the immigrant goes where his relatives already are and that he goes where the padrone sends him. The padrone secures his fresh men through their relatives already under his thumb.

The Slavs.

Of the Slavs nearly the same things are to be said as of the Italians, only that a far larger number of Slavs who come to the United States are miners or factory workers before they leave home and there is not quite the same tendency to return home, especially among those who come from regions of political oppression. On the whole, they are far less mobile than the Italians.

In recapitulation I would strongly enforce the fact of the feeling among the Italians, Greeks, Hungarians, Montenegrins and several of the Slav divisions of being here for but a little while, the prejudices against the soil, the present improper presentation of any advantages that country life may possess, and the folly of attempting to divert the immigrant after he makes up his mind to immigrate, for when he does that he knows where he is going, he cannot be diverted en route, and when he reaches his destination it is too late.

Compulsory diversion to certain states would be high-handed, but effective. Suasion must begin very early and be conducted very patiently by men who understand what the immigrant wants and are in sympathy with him. The prospects are, though, that a very great deal of time, money, and enthusiasm are about to be wasted.

Pioneer Work in American Philanthropy

A Series of Reminiscences by Frontiersmen in Some of the Larger
Humanitarian Movements in This Country

Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES.

III

Beginnings of Prison Reform in America

Z. R. Brockway

All reforms begin in an inward impulsion of individuals, howsoever the impulsion may be derived. In every division of historic time some indication of an existing philanthropic interest in criminals has appeared. From the reign of Hammazah, the first dynastic king of Babylon, nearly 2,500 years before the Christian era, through darkest periods to the present day, here and there, now and then, kings, potentates, philosophers and private philanthropists have shown pity for condemned public offenders. Beneath crude criminal codes and cruel punishments there has been a slumbrous human sympathy, awake at times and manifest. Near the commencement of the nineteenth century, the humanity of Christianity produced a penitentiary system, replacing more sanguinary penalties. But proximity to the period of past severities and the then present puritanism conveyed to the penitentiary system a spirit of retaliation, which later alternating with hurtful remissive sentimentalism, coordinate with defective prison structures and administration, soon brought the system into disrepute.

In 1822, a remarkably able condemnatory document appeared in the form of a report on the penitentiary system of the United States, prepared under a resolution of the Society for Prevention of Pauperism in the city of New York, by Charles G. Haines, chairman of a committee composed of himself and six others, Cadwallader D. Colden, Thomas Eddy, Peter A. Jay, the Rev. James Milner, the Rev. Cove Jones, Isaac Collins, and Richard R. Ward. The investigations of this committee extended to all Europe, as well as throughout America, and embraced correspondence with very distin-

guished personages. In the appendix of correspondence is found the following estimate, which is in accord with the tone of the report itself. James Gould writes:

•However revolting to a human mind the conclusion may and must be, I am constrained to say that the present penitentiary system in our country must, I fear, at no distant day, be abandoned and a severer criminal code put in its place.

The same year (1822), S. M. Hopkins reported to the Senate of the state of New York that

Upon the whole view of our state prison system, as hitherto conducted, your committee are compelled to adopt the conclusion that, so far as reformation is concerned, it has wholly failed; and not only so, but that it operates with alarming efficacy to increase, diffuse, and extend the love of vice and a knowledge of the arts and practice of criminality.

*The Early
Reform Under
the Pilsburys.*

Practical improvement in our prison management began in 1827 with the removal of prisoners from Simsbury Mines to the new prison at Wethersfield, Ct., and with the advent of the Pilsburys as prison governors. Moses C. Pilsbury, the first warden of the Wethersfield prison, was the founder and head of improvements in our prisons, at least in the New England states. His sterling personal qualities and skill of management were transmitted to his son Amos, who in 1830 succeeded him as warden of the Wethersfield prison.

Amos Pilsbury remained in charge at Wethersfield until 1845, when he removed to Albany, and there built the Albany County Penitentiary, thus inaugurating the system of county and district industrial prisons for treatment of short-term, common-jail prisoners. Louis Dwight



AMOS PILSBURY.



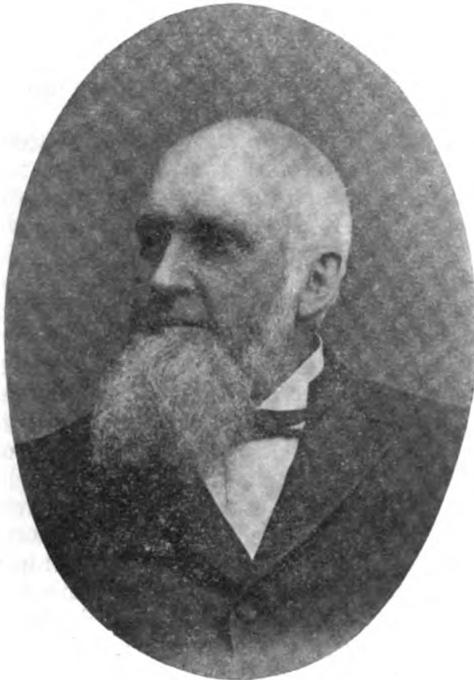
E. C. WINES



LOUIS D. PILSBURY.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES



Z. R. BROCKWAY



A. C. A. WINTER

Pilsbury, son of Amos, became the first superintendent of state prisons in 1876 under the amended New York state constitution, which created the office to supersede the elective board of directors which until then had controlled the prisons. Louis D. Pilsbury possessed the Pilsbury aptitude for prison affairs, and during his five-year term of service brought up the prison management of the three state prisons from a semi-chaotic disciplinary condition and great public cost for maintenance to admirable discipline and actual self-sustention derived entirely from profitable employment of the prisoners. The prison efficiency of the Pilsburys and public favor shown them were based on their economies of prison management. Roger Sherman said of them: "One competent to judge, who had made inquiry in this country and in Europe, declared that the Pilsburys were rated as the best prison-keepers in the world."

From 1810 to 1827, the money drawn from the Connecticut state treasury for the expense attending the support of the old Newgate Prison at Simsbury Mines, over and above its earnings, had been upwards of one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars; while, for the succeeding corresponding period of seventeen years, under the Pilsburys' management at Wethersfield, the profits to the state treasury, after defraying every expense for the support of the convicts, amounted to \$93,000. Public opinion in Connecticut approved of such management, and throughout the country public attention was attracted to this example of good prison administration.

Amos Pilsbury, the Nestor of this earliest practical prison reform in America, was of aristocratic mien, but real kindness of heart. Shortly before his death, in the feebleness of his last illness, he tenderly said to the writer, not with self-reproach but out of his generous soul, "I wish I had fed my prisoners better, and had never paid a dollar of their prison earnings into the public treasury, but, instead, expended their earnings for their benefit."

Any mention of beginnings of prison reform in America that omits honorable mention of Amos Pilsbury is both inaccurate and unjust.

Pecuniary advantages to the state dominated the reform movement down to 1845-50, and for many years thereafter remained a prominent factor. The pecuniary motive, mixed with good philanthropy during the period from 1845 to 1870, produced several county penitentiaries modeled after the Albany County prison-penitentiaries which were boarding prisons for misdemeanor prisoners from the jails of the surrounding counties. The county penitentiary system was itself a reform movement; and, at the Detroit House of Correction (the same class of prison by another name), notable innovations occurred in the internal *régime*, which brought to clearer view the philanthropic purpose.

During the latter period, public attention was also turned and held to the prison question by the agency of benevolent societies and individuals. Among these may be named "The Philadelphia Society for Alleviating the Miseries of Prisoners;" "The Prison Discipline Society of Boston," whose secretary and active agent was the Rev. Louis Dwight, a man so highly esteemed by Amos Pilsbury that he gave the name to his first-born son; "The Prison Association of New York," whose secretary, the Rev. E. C. Wines, is, in memory, so intimately connected with the later prison reform movement in both America and Europe; Prof. Theodore W. Dwight, of the Columbia Law School; Frank B. Sanborn, of Massachusetts; Frederick H. Wines, of Illinois; Edward S. Wright, warden of the Western Penitentiary of Pennsylvania; the Rev. J. S. Milligan, chaplain of Warden Wright's prison and for many years past and at present the efficient secretary of the National Prison Association which was first organized at Cincinnati in 1870.

The foregoing in so far as mention is made of living philanthropists is limited to participants in the organization of that congress.

Influence of such agencies upon public opinion is evidenced by the following incident: When, in 1876, the joint judiciary committee of the New York legislature was considering the then radical Indeterminate Sentence Bill, for committal of

*The Period
from
1845 to 1870.*

Elmira Reformatory prisoners, Senator Schoonmaker remarked in committee to our surprise and gratification: "I predict that this bill will pass the legislature without opposition. The publications and influence of the Prison Association of New York, these years past, has prepared the way for it."

The Prison Congress and Positive Reform. The before mentioned provisional beginnings were gathered and formulated at the Prison Congress held at

Cincinnati (1870), which is the historic time and place of a more positive commencement of the modern American prison reform movement. To Dr. E. C. Wines, who was then secretary of the Prison Association of New York, the world is greatly indebted for the convening of that congress, for its formulation of penological principles, for the published proceedings of that year (which is a sufficient text-book of prison science), for the permanent national and international organizations and meetings, and for the powerful impulse to benevolent scientific prison reform that have emanated therefrom. His impressive personality, great ability, exhaustless energy, and profound philanthropy in the field of prison reform should place him in history, as he is in the memory of those who knew and loved him, in the front rank of great reformers, side by side with Howard, whose name his son, our friend and collaborator, now bears. Memorable indeed is that congress, gathered as it was from Canada, from South America, and from twenty-five states of our Union, representing fifty odd prisons and reformatories, and some twenty philanthropic organizations; and numbering between two and three hundred earnest workers in the cause, more than seventy of whom were officers of penal and reformatory institutions. Among the distinguished members of the congress, composed chiefly of serious-minded men but not to the exclusion of women, were Rutherford B. Hayes, the presiding officer, then governor of Ohio, who after his retirement from the presidency of the United States became and remained until his death the president of the National Prison Association; Governor Conrad Baker, then governor of Indiana;

Ev-Governor Daniel Haines, of New Jersey; Ex-Governor Frederick Smyth, of New Hampshire; General Amos Pillsbury, official delegate appointed by Governor Hoffman of New York; besides judges, legislators, and honorable gentlemen prominent in the learned professions. Many differing shades of political opinion and religious tenet were represented, but such differences were merged in the absorbing grand theme of the congress. The gathering was remarkable for its combined intellectual strength, for the depth and dignity of the proceedings, and especially for its lofty spiritual tone. Not only were divergent native elements fused into one accord, but an enduring powerful inspiration was imparted and received. That first American Prison Congress served as a matrix to shape subsequent criminal laws, to more or less modify current notions of prison treatment of criminals; and it lighted a vestal fire of wise philanthropy, which, re-enchanted year by year at the annual meeting since held, has lived, and lives to-day, a sacred flame in perpetuity.

The Beginning of Indeterminate Sentence Legislation.

Following quickly on the heels of this convention, Governor Baker of Indiana moved to found the present Women's Prison and Reformatory at Indianapolis; Massachusetts created the Concord Reformatory and the Women's Prison in that state; Governor Bagley of Michigan out of his own benevolent statesmanship, quickened by reports of his returning delegates from Cincinnati, founded the Michigan State Industrial School for Dependent Children with its admirable educational scheme and complete system of supervising county agents; securing also the immediate construction of a school building at the Jackson State Prison, and the introduction into the management there of new educational and reformatory measures.

In several of the states a new impulse was given to establishing county and district prisons for the improved treatment of misdemeanant prisoners herded in the poor county jails. In New York new and effective interest was aroused for the completion and organization of the reformatory for male adult felons at Elmira; and, generally throughout the

country, in South America and in Europe, appeared an awakened interest in prisons and prisoners, an interest which originated or was fostered by the inspiring influence of the Cincinnati Congress. There—at Cincinnati, that year—was first brought prominently to public attention the doctrine of the indeterminate sentence. The legislatures of Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan were on their own invitation addressed on the subject by a Cincinnati Congress delegate, an advocate of that reform. A bill embodying the full indeterminate sentence principle was in 1871 introduced and brought to a vote in the Michigan legislature. It failed to become a law that year but out of the agitation for its passage came the appointment by that legislature of a board of commissioners for the general supervision of charitable, penal and reformatory institutions, and in 1873 that commission was charged with the duty of reporting on the revision of the laws for the care of the poor, the management of certain state institutions, the punishment of crime and control of offenders. The commission, in 1875, reported to the legislature its recommendation for adoption of the indeterminate sentence, in the following language, worthy of preservation:

After much and careful investigation, we are opposed to the system of time sentences, as it now stands, and recommend a change in that system, and the introduction of reformatory sentences applicable to all crimes punishable with imprisonment in the state's prison, with the exception of some of the most aggravating crimes.

The first legislative act applying the principle of the indeterminate sentence, had been an act of the Michigan legislature of 1869, what was known as "the three years' law," and which was of limited application since it applied only to dissolute women. This law—the preparation and advocacy of it in 1869—which was really the beginning of American indeterminate sentence legislation, led to the presentation and espousal of the principle at the Cincinnati Congress, led to the report of the Michigan Commission, with its sweeping recommendation; led directly to the enactment of the indeterminate sentence law of 1877, in connection with the organization of the reformatory at Elmira; and to the general statutes in so

many of the states where now the principle is adopted. To that law may be also traced the beginning of the changed and now favorable public opinion toward such legislation, which now so generally prevails. It is a germinal ethical principle destined (to use the language of the late Charlton T. Lewis) "radically to change men's habits of thought concerning crime, and the attitude of society towards criminals, to rewrite from end to end every penal code in Christendom, and modify and ennoble the fundamental law of every state."

For the dignity and sanity of the prison reform movement, the past thirty years, we are greatly indebted to the character and standing of some of its leading advocates and to many participants. For instance, the mere presence of General Hayes, ex-president of the United States, who was for so many years president of the association and presided at its annual meetings, influenced attendance in the different cities where the meetings were held of the wealthiest, noblest, and most influential inhabitants of the community. The same was true, in earlier years when so distinguished a man as ex-Governor Seymour, of New York, was the permanent president and presided in person; and during the presidency of General Raeliff Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; and, since the presidents of the association have been changed from year to year, its social standing has attracted the same influential attendance. The great men who served as permanent presidents, and the very appearance of the official delegates, served to dissipate at once any suspicion that the prison reform movement was only a sentimentalism espoused by cranks and extremists, or on the other hand an assemblage of brutal prison-keepers, out for a junket. If proof were needed of the high character of the movement, it is abundantly afforded in the papers and debates published in the annual volumes of proceedings, which of themselves constitute a library of American literature on the subject, devoid of gush, replete with information, and which tends to become more and more scientific in tone from year to year.

*The Leaders in
the Movement
in Word and Pen.*

Of writers and orators who, outside as well as inside of the association, have rendered important aid to prison reform, special mention should be made of Dr. E. C. Wines, whose great book of more than 700 pages, entitled *State of Prisons and Child-Saving Institutions*, his last publication (for Dr. Wines died while the book was passing through the press), is of itself a monument to the extraordinary amount of his information and to his marvelous industry. He was a voluminous writer of prison society reports, a prolific newspaper correspondent, and an orator of sound, convincing rhetoric. Dr. Wines must be rated as the great progenitor of the modern prison reform movement.

His son, Dr. F. H. Wines, by his book, *Punishment and Reformation*, his pamphlets and monographs, his university lectures and numerous independent public addresses, is one of the chief helpers.

F. B. Sanborn, universally known as author, editor, and orator, a prolific magazine and newspaper writer, was one of the original incorporators of the National Prison Association and has rendered, and now renders, inestimable service to charities and corrections, as he does to the various other branches of social science.

Charles Dudley Warner, *littérateur* and convincing public speaker, had keen appreciation of the principles and practices of prison reform exemplified at the Elmira Reformatory, and for twenty-five years, at least, of his later life devoted himself extraordinarily by pen and voice advocating the full indeterminate sentence plan and the rational system of prison management based upon it. His philosophical insight, charming literary style, naïve address, with entire self-committal to his theories, made his writings and his speech most influential. Mr. Warner excited no antagonism, but won over his hearers to his own view as by magic.

Charlton T. Lewis (deceased last May) was the most trenchant and powerful of juristic advocates of the modern movement; his native intellectual endowments rare culture, personal accomplishments, and attractiveness; his social standing, and official and professional connection with important corporative interests; his

comprehensive charity, and sound philosophy, his activity and distinction as a lawyer, and his fascinating diction gave to his utterances unusual effectiveness. From the view point of political science and the law no man has so forcibly presented the principles of the indeterminate sentence and probation of convicted offenders as has Mr. Lewis. He admired and earnestly supported the plan and administration of the Elmira Reformatory, from its inception, so long as he lived; and, as is evident from his language herein previously quoted, saw with prophetic ken the progress of prison science yet to be made.

The concrete exposition of penological principles furnished by the founding and furthering of the Elmira

Reformatory affords, doubtless, the most tangible beginning of the later American prison reform. This reformatory prison for treatment of adult male felonious offenders was opened in 1877, with its indeterminate sentence law (limited) which necessarily includes the parole or conditional discharge feature; which, in turn, required a reformatory instead of punitive *régime*. Some unique features of the Elmira institution soon attracted wide attention and following in our own country, and served to greatly interest philanthropists, publicists, and governments abroad. Since 1877, ten similar reformatory prisons have been founded in the United States; more than twenty-five of the states have enacted and put into operation parole laws of some character; the principle of the "indeterminate sentence" is now incorporated into the general criminal statutes of New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Illinois, Ohio, and Indiana; and the principle is constantly gaining favor elsewhere. In 1890, Alexander Winter published in Germany a booklet descriptive of the Elmira Reformatory; in 1891, it was translated into English, and appeared in England and America; in 1892, the same publication, translated into French, was distributed in France. In Italy (1890), Justice Moraes published a pamphlet of nearly two hundred pages, largely devoted to a description of the Elmira

Elmira Reformatory—Its Concrete Exposition.

Reformatory. Other booklets and pamphlets on the philosophy and history of the Elmira institution appeared, between 1895 and 1900, in Japan; in Spain, by Dorado; in Germany, by Hintreger; in Holland, by August Gall; and in Australia, by I. Day Thompson; the latter, perhaps, the most accurate of them all. Official foreign visitors, law journals, magazines and newspapers, at home and abroad, have discussed and described the reformatory, so that now, throughout the civilized world the institution is well known and has given name to one of the recognized penal divisions of prison science. The Pennsylvania System, the Auburn System, and the Elmira System compose the penitentiary systems of the world.

To-day and Its Responsibilities. Surely a beginning has been made for rational prison reform, but only a beginning. The common county jails remain, with here and there an exception, as they were

in Howard's time. The convict prisons—state penitentiaries—are, with some not very important modifications and exceptions as to the condition of imprisoned criminals, very much as they were a quarter of a century ago. The criminal laws and court practice, still retaining too much of sentiment, either of retaliation or remission, have not yet reached a truly scientific basis. The present recognizable beginning of prison reform in America is more in public opinion—our own views and feelings—than in laws and prison systems. The growth of public favor toward the absolute indeterminate sentence and the treatment in the open of first offenders, shows some surrender of the doctrine of a retributive punishment, in favor of practical public protection; which indicates the coming of a more scientific psychology and of a broader ethical basis, pregnant with most important public benefits.

The New Governors¹

Alexander Johnson

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The first message which a new governor sends to the legislature may usually be taken as a fair, if somewhat conservative, reflection of the public opinion of his state upon its affairs. During the past month newly elected governors have been inaugurated in many states. From the messages of twenty-one such governors, the writer has briefed and classified their recommendations as to new legislation or better administration in the departments of charities, correction and social reform.

It is interesting to observe the substantial unanimity of the opinions expressed in these messages. There is rarely a reactionary tone. Occasionally regret is expressed that the condition of

the state's finances makes needed improvements impossible, and one or two sound a note of alarm over growing expenditures. But these are the exceptions. There is a general desire evinced that improved and hopeful methods shall be adopted. The governors for the most part declare that their states are able to do what public opinion says should be done.

A few of the governors indeed take high ground for new and radical measures of industrial reform, but most of them are content to advise that improvements which have been tested and found salutary shall be copied, and frequent reference is made to the experience of other states.

The matters under the departments of charities and correction most frequently referred to are naturally the care of the insane and the management of prisons and reformatories. Subjects connected with adult and child labor come next in frequency; then the general administra-

¹The governors referred to in this review are as follows: Arkansas, Governor Davis; California, Richard C. Pardee; Connecticut, Roberts; Colorado, Alvah Adams; Illinois, Denneen; Indiana, Frank Hanley; Massachusetts, Wm. L. Douglas; Michigan, Fred. M. Warner; Minnesota, John A. Johnson; Missouri, Joseph W. Folk; Nebraska, John H. Mickey; New Hampshire, McClain; New Jersey, Stokes; New York, Frank W. Higgins; Oregon, Chamberlain; Pennsylvania, Pennypacker; Rhode Island, George H. Utter; South Carolina, T. C. Heyward; Tennessee, James B. Frazier; Wisconsin, LaFollette; Wyoming, Bryant B. Brooks.

tion of institutions, the care of epileptics and feeble-minded, etc.

To make a complete and critical report upon all these messages it would be necessary to analyze the present conditions in every state within each of the departments mentioned—manifestly an impossibility within the limits of a magazine article. In some few cases the message or its full text, has not been available in the month's time which has elapsed since the calling of the legislatures in the greater number of states. It was therefore unavoidable that there should be omissions. With this word of caution the following are presented as being the important recommendations upon matters coming within the purview of CHARITIES, made by the new governors:

THE INSANE.

Arkansas.—A special asylum on a simple home-like plan for the chronic insane; also an operating room at the state hospital.

California.—The cottage plan for the needed extension of accommodation of the state hospital is approved and its continuance, from the institution's contingent fund, is advised.

Colorado.—A farm colony for the state hospital.

Indiana.—An additional hospital, making the fifth in the state.

Massachusetts.—Regular and systematic additional accommodation in connection with existing institutions.

Minnesota.—A system by which the estates of the patients or responsible relatives shall pay at least a part of the cost of keeping the insane in hospitals; better medical work, especially with new and acute cases; a nurses' home in connection with each hospital in a separate building. Proper and separate accommodation for the criminal insane.

Nebraska.—Increased accommodation by repairing a wing of the old hospital.

New Hampshire.—More accommodation at the state hospital so that the insane in the county almshouses may be received there.

New York.—Hospital management by individual boards, financial control being centralized; an additional hospital at once and increased capacity at the present hospitals; increased efficiency of the departments which give special care to acute cases; the estate or responsible relatives of patients to contribute to the expense of their care.

South Carolina.—Gradual extension of the hospital, since it now receives not only insane but also idiots, epileptics and inebriates. [Gov. Heyward says that this will probably be the policy of the state for many years to come.]

Wisconsin.—Proper provision for the criminal insane other than in the state hospitals. Purer water supply and sanitary disposal of sewerage at the Mendota Hospital.

Wyoming.—Fire protection at the state hospital. More land for the employment of patients, with water rights for irrigation.

THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

California.—Greater accommodations at the state lunacy commission; provision of institution for the feeble-minded.

Massachusetts.—Two additional buildings each for one hundred inmates at the institution at Waverly.

New Hampshire.—Provision for custodial care of feeble-minded women at the state institution; the rebuilding of part of the school for feeble-minded that was destroyed by fire, at the same time making it larger and providing for a central heating plant and proper fire protection.

New York.—Provision at the asylums for idiots and unteachable feeble-minded at Newark and Rome, for adults now at Syracuse and feeble-minded adults now in poorhouses. [Gov. Higgins says this is the most urgent need of any of the state's institutions.]

Wisconsin.—Plans on a liberal scale for future increase of the institution so as to receive into state care all feeble-minded and idiotic of the state.

EPILEPTICS.

Connecticut.—A state colony for epileptics.

Indiana.—A state colony on the lines recommended by the commission appointed by the legislature of 1903.

New Hampshire.—A separate building for epileptics in connection with the institution for feeble-minded.

PRISONS AND PRISONERS.

California.—Better classification and segregation (defects of system deplored); also appropriations for better buildings and equipment.

Colorado.—Liberal appropriations for additional buildings and equipment of the state prison.

Massachusetts.—That prisoners suffering from tuberculosis be removed to a proper place for treatment.

New York.—State control of all persons convicted of crime. Transfer from prisons of all insane and feeble-minded prisoners to proper places for their care.

Oregon.—Immediate proper provision for insane at the prison with eventual transfer to a separate asylum for criminal insane; schools for the younger prisoners, with full time of chaplain employed; all sentences, except those for life, to be indeterminate and subject to parole.

Texas.—Parole law for all prisoners; protection and proper aid for discharged prisoners.

REFORMATORIES FOR FIRST OFFENDERS.

California.—Change of one of the prisons to a reformatory.

Colorado.—Appropriations to complete the new buildings.

Connecticut.—[Not advised, as at present unnecessary, owing to the indeterminate sentence law and the excellent management of the state prison.]

Missouri.—A reformatory for first offenders, with indeterminate sentence and parole.

New Hampshire.—A state workhouse for first offenders or a reformatory.

Wisconsin.—Appropriations for improvements and better equipment at the reformatory.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Arkansas.—A reformatory institution for colored and white juvenile and women prisoners; one institution with a separate cottage for each of the three classes.

California.—Better equipment, better agricultural, industrial, and trades teaching at boys' school. The commitment of young women and girls to benevolent institutions where their care may be more individual.

Minnesota.—Separation of the sexes and the creation of a new industrial school for girls.

New Hampshire.—A separate building for girls.

New York.—[The governor commends the changes made at Rochester and the change in prospect at the refuge at Randall's Island.]

South Carolina.—[The governor approves the attempt of women's clubs to establish industrial schools for young white offenders.]

JUVENILE COURTS.

Massachusetts.—Establishment of juvenile courts recommended.

New Hampshire.—Juvenile courts and probation advised.

Oregon.—Juvenile courts on the Colorado plan advised.

JAILS.

California.—That prisoners in jail be set at work and that thorough classification be insisted upon in the jails.

Connecticut.—That methods of labor be carried on to make prisoners self-supporting and improve their morals.

Indiana.—That jails should be merely places of detention for accused prisoners awaiting trial; all convicted minor offenders to be committed to district workhouses controlled by the state.

CONVICT LABOR.

California.—New industrial system in prisons; work on state account plan as in New York.

Illinois.—Preparation by convicts of road material for counties to be delivered by the state, free, within the county, on condition that county uses it within one year.

Indiana.—Abolition of contract labor and the substitution of the state account plan, manufacturing goods for other institutions or for the smaller political divisions of the state.

Massachusetts.—Employment of short-time convicts in agriculture.

Minnesota.—Abolition of contract labor and extension of the twine industry so as to employ all convicts at it.

Oregon.—A commission to inquire into the matter of renewing contracts for labor; also to experiment with road making, crediting convicts with double time for periods so spent.

Wisconsin.—[The governor gives qualified approval to contract labor plan, since labor is necessary and regenerative.]

MISCELLANEOUS CORRECTIONAL AFFAIRS.

Massachusetts.—The further extension of the probation system to cases of minor offenders, especially women and children; leniency in cases of vagrancy and non-employment and further extension of the probation plan to persons accused of vagrancy.

New Hampshire.—That failure to support, or desertion of, wife and children, fifteen years or under, be made a penal offence.

Pennsylvania.—That county constabulary shall no longer be appointed by private corporations, but that they shall be made state officers.

STATE SUPERVISORY BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

The boards of state charities are frequently commended for efficient services. Several governors express approval of the disinterested labors of unpaid boards and their conviction of the value of the system which successfully counts on public spirit and patriotism for the incentive to service.

California.—[Governor Pardee quotes the criticism of the new Board of State Charities on prisons, jails and reform schools.]

Indiana.—[Governor Hanley highly commends the State Board of Charities.]

Minnesota.—The desirability of some form of inspection and supervision of the work of the State Board of Control.

New Jersey.—The appointment of a commissioner of charities and correction to visit and inspect all institutions, who shall secure the assistance of a state architect and state sanitary engineer and to have as his advisory council the superintendents of the state institutions; in this way to secure economy and improved treatment of the wards of the state.

New York.—That the State Board of Charities be given power to order the transfer of an incorrectly placed inmate of one institution to another to which he may more properly belong.

Wisconsin.—The addition of a woman member to the State Board of Control.

New Hampshire.—That the prison and hospital for the insane be brought under the inspection of the State Board of Charities.

ECONOMY IN STATE INSTITUTIONS.

Indiana.—A policy of "strict but sane economy." "Needed repairs will be made, necessary improvements insisted on, value received shall be required for money expended." "To refuse actual need is not economy but extravagance."

Michigan.—[Governor Warner enumerates the large appropriations of recent years and larger demands on the present legislature.] Retrenchment when it can be done without injury.

New Jersey.—[The governor deplors the necessity of constantly increasing accommodation

for dependents and delinquents; some institutions, he states, have cost \$3,000 per bed, some \$1,000. The ordinary citizen can be well housed for less than \$500.]

New York.—That the various appropriations needed for new buildings and improvements at the different institutions be made the subject matter of a single bill before the legislature; purchase of supplies by competitive bids after due advertisement by all the institutions supported by the state.

Pennsylvania.—[Governor Pennypacker claims the institutions of the state are models for other states to follow.]

Wisconsin.—Increased acreage of farming lands in connection with the institutions.

CIVIL SERVICE METHODS.

Illinois.—The immediate enactment of a law to regulate the civil service throughout the state institutions. [Governor Deneen says that the time for discussion has passed; the time for action has come.]

Indiana.—[Governor Hanley¹ pledges himself that the good work of the past shall continue. "There shall be no removals of persons holding positions in any of the institutions except for the good of the institutions themselves. Upright and efficient service will guarantee tenure of position; negligent and incompetent service will insure immediate removal."]

New York.—That civil service rules be applied to the House of Refuge on Randall's Island; also that similar rules be applied in the larger counties of the state, mentioning Albany, Monroe, Onondaga, Rensselaer, Westchester, Oneida and Orange.

PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS.

Indiana.—The appointment of a commission to investigate the need of a state sanatorium, to report to the next general assembly.

Massachusetts.—That tuberculous prisoners be properly cared for.

Wisconsin.—Legislation in line with the report of the state commission. [Governor LaFollette shows that 2,100 or 2,200 deaths occur annually from tuberculosis in Wisconsin, and that there are 9,000 to 10,000 cases now existing in the state.]

DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

California.—That thorough industrial training of children maintained in private benevolent institutions at the state's expense should be a condition of appropriation for the purpose.

Colorado.—Sufficient appropriation for the home for neglected and dependent children.

New Jersey.—That more stringent measures be taken to make those responsible share the burden imposed on the state.

¹ It is interesting in connection with the above utterance of the governor of Indiana to remember that Indiana has no civil service law based upon examinations. Its theory has been, for sixteen or more years, to make the superintendent of each institution responsible, and to give him full authority for his choice of help. The spirit of civil service has been secured without the letter. While the results are a matter of gratification to the good citizens of the state, yet it must be remembered that the system is only successful as long as such governors as Matthews, Mount, and let us hope, Hanley, shall be elected.—ED. CHARITIES.]

DEAF, MUTE AND BLIND.

Arkansas.—Additional buildings at the school for the deaf.

New Hampshire.—A change of law so that persons not indigent may be admitted to schools for deaf and blind.

New York.—Provision for the instruction and employment of the adult blind.

LABOR.

Arkansas.—Change in the fellow-servant law so that the employer shall not be relieved of responsibility towards an employé who is injured through the fault of a fellow servant.

Connecticut.—Better protection against accidents and better provision to preserve health of workers in factories; prohibition of the employment of women and children in dangerous occupations; strengthening of laws regarding bureau of labor and inspection of factories.

Illinois.—Better protection against accidents; the arbitration of labor disputes; the state to gather and publish the facts regarding labor troubles, as a guide to public opinion.

Massachusetts.—Shorter hours of labor; prohibition of overtime work of women and minors; better care of the hygienic conditions of factories; methods of conciliation and arbitration; trade schools and agricultural schools; the use of waste and abandoned lands for the unemployed.

Minnesota.—The abolition of the fellow-servant law; "the true rule is the industry should bear the risk."

Missouri.—That the governor be empowered to attempt to settle labor disputes.

New Hampshire.—A change of law so that the state labor bureau may co-operate with the United States Census Bureau in getting statistics, etc.

Oregon.—That demands for repeal of law providing for bureau of labor be ignored; stringent laws to regulate employment agencies; also to regulate and add to employer's liability in cases of accident.

CHILD LABOR.

Connecticut.—Better enforcement of existing laws regarding child labor and school attendance.

New York.—That New York try to secure uniform legislation in neighboring states, so that her industries may not be subject to unfair competition; [child labor laws commended.]

Rhode Island.—That all factories employing women and children be subject to inspection; that the age limit for child labor be made to agree with school age; also that factory inspectors be made to require proof of age.

IMMIGRATION.

Minnesota.—A bureau to encourage immigration and induce settlement on agricultural lands of the state.

South Carolina.—[Governor Heyward commends the successful efforts that have been made to induce immigration, and advises continuance

by the encouragement of carefully selected immigrants such as will make good citizens.]

MISCELLANEOUS.

Arkansas.—Free text books for all school children.

Massachusetts.—Wider powers to cities and towns for municipal ownership of public utilities.

Missouri.—Compensation in cases of fatal as well as non-fatal injuries to unmarried adults.

Nebraska.—Fire insurance for all public buildings.

New York.—[Governor Higgins commends the tenement house laws, and says that there should be no change in them unless necessity is apparent.]

Rhode Island.—[Governor Utter reports on an inquiry suggested by the Slocum disaster, and recommends that mates of passenger vessels (some of whom at present do not even speak English), as well as masters and pilots, be required to possess certificates of examination.]

South Carolina.—A conservative beginning of compulsory education; that there should be a schoolhouse within reach of every child in South Carolina [Governor Heyward declares there are 25,000 white children between six and twelve in South Carolina who do not attend school; also commends the healthy public sentiment against lynching that has arisen, and the law and order leagues which have been organized, growing out of the determination that this evil shall cease.]

The Case of the New York Foundlings in Arizona

THE DECISION OF THE SUPREME COURT OF ARIZONA ADVERSE TO THE PETITION OF THE NEW YORK FOUNDLING HOSPITAL

Subject to review by the United States Supreme Court it was decided on January 20, 1905, in a decision handed down by the Supreme Court of Arizona, that seventeen children placed by the New York Foundling Hospital, last October, in certain homes in Arizona, and subsequently removed in response to indignant local public sentiment to other and better homes not selected by the hospital authorities, shall remain in the care of the families to which they were thus removed and shall not be restored to the custody of the hospital. The court, after an introductory summary of the legal points brought before it, makes the following statement of facts as having been established by the testimony and evidence:

Statement of Facts.

The New York Foundling Hospital is a corporation organized and existing under the laws of the state of New York for the purpose of caring for abandoned and deserted infants found in the city of New York, and such as may be voluntarily surrendered to it, of the age of two years or under; the act amending its charter providing that it should be under the care, management and control of the religious order known as the "Sisters of Charity."

While the act amending the charter of the hospital does not in terms authorize the institution so to do, it is shown that it has been, from the organization of the hospital, the practice of its managers to place infants of suitable age in homes within and

without the state of New York, to be cared for, reared, supported and educated in such homes by the persons to whom they are given, and that it so places some 450 children each year; and that the hospital authorities retain the right to visit such homes and to maintain a supervision over said children until they become of age. The evidence does not disclose the nature or extent of this supervision, nor the method by which it is exercised.

During the summer of 1904 the hospital authorities received a letter from a priest temporarily in charge of the parish of Clifton and Morenci, requesting that a certain number of children be sent from the institution to Clifton and Morenci to be placed within the homes of certain of his parishioners, who were represented by said priest to be of the Spanish race, but to be persons who spoke the English language; that it was the desire of these people that only children of fair complexion be sent.

In response to the application and upon the representations made by the priest, forty children were sent by the petitioner under the charge of Sister Anna Michella and two other Sisters of Charity, and an agent by the name of Swayne, consigned to the persons whose names had been previously supplied by the priest. These children were of the Caucasian race, and, as requested by the said priest, chosen from among those in the institution who were fairest and lightest in complexion; they were all children of unusual beauty and attractiveness; their ages were from eighteen months to five years. To the clothing of each child was attached a tag, giving the band number of each child, the name of the person to whom consigned, and the name and date of

birth of the child. To each person to whom a child was assigned was sent a letter, signed by the sister superior, requesting that the consignee, within a week after the reception of the child, fill out a blank, which was enclosed, containing the name of the child, the name of the foster parents in full, the business occupation and the post-office address of such foster parents, and forward the same to the hospital authorities. The letter also requested that the person to whom each child was assigned should write yearly, about the first of May, how the child was progressing and giving any other items of interest.

The Arrival in Clifton, Ariz.

On the evening of October 1, 1904, the children, in charge of said sisters and agent, arrived in Clifton in a special car. It having become a matter of notoriety in Clifton that a number of children were to arrive to be distributed to Mexican families, a crowd of Mexicans gathered at the station on the arrival of the train, together with a few American women of good families, the latter being attracted by curiosity and a desire to see the children, who they supposed were Mexicans. The children consigned to the persons in Clifton were taken from the car by those in charge of them, the Americans present assisting in taking them out. The latter were told by the agent that no disposition of the children to the Mexican families would be made that night, and, on being asked by one of the American women, said that in the morning an opportunity would be given her to make an application for one of the children.

Upon the arrival of the train the priest came into the car. The Sister Anna Michella then asked him what sort of people they were to whom the children were to be allotted. He thereupon said that they were all good American citizens, moral, and had no children of their own, and that the homes were all that could be wished for. Having noticed that some of the people were not as fair in color as she had hoped for and expected, the sister asked him if there would be any half-breeds among them, and he said "No." She asked him how the people lived, and he replied that they lived in frame houses. She then stated to him that it was the rule of the home that the children were only placed out on trial until such time as the homes could be visited by the sisters, and that if it were found that any of the homes were not as expected the children would be removed.

The children to be left at Clifton were taken to the priest's house, and fifteen of them, under the supervision of the priest, were turned over that night to the persons to whom they were consigned. No visit to or examination of the homes of these people was made at any time, either by the Agent Swayne, the sisters in charge or any one on behalf of the petitions. They relied entirely upon the statement of the priest.

The Families Utterly Unfit.

The evidence establishes without contradiction that the persons to whom the children were given as assigned, both in Clifton and Morenci, were wholly unfit to be entrusted with them; that they were with possibly one or two exceptions, of the lowest class of halfbreed Mexican-Indians; that they were impecunious, illiterate, unacquainted with the English language, vicious, and, in several instances, prostitutes and persons of notoriously bad character; that their homes were of the crudest sort, being for the most part built of adobe, with dirt floors and roofs; that many of them had children of their own, whom they were unable properly to support. Sister Anna Michella, who was entrusted with the matter of carrying out the instructions of the hospital authorities, was so struck by the unfitness of these people that in three instances she refused to allow the children to be delivered, and in other instances, as testified to by witnesses, gave them up "with tears streaming from her eyes;" and from her own testimony it appears that she was not satisfied with the people to whom they were to be delivered; but that she felt she could not over-ride the authority of the priest.

On the morning of the second of October it became generally known to the American residents of Clifton that the children had been distributed the night before to these people. Much indignation was immediately aroused, and an informal conference of citizens was held to discuss the matter of the distribution of the children which had been made. A committee was appointed to go to Morenci and ascertain from the priest and the agent Swayne, their purposes, and to inform them as to the feeling excited among the Americans over the distribution of these white children to these half-breed Indian families. This committee was composed of one Jeff Dunagan, a deputy sheriff, and one Thomas Simpson. The committee left Clifton about 1 o'clock in the afternoon and arrived in Morenci shortly after 2 o'clock in the afternoon. They immediately went to see Mr. Mills, the superintendent of the copper company operating at that place, and one of the leading citizens of the town, and, in company with him, went in search of the agent Swayne, whom they found at the hotel. Dunagan then stated to the agent the feeling which had been aroused in Clifton, their purpose in visiting Morenci, and asked him what he would do in the matter.

Both Dunagan and Simpson testified that in response to their inquiries the agent Swayne, said that he knew his business, and did not propose to be dictated to by the people; that the children "had been placed and would stay placed." The testimony of Swayne qualifies the statements of Dunagan and Simpson as to what was said by him on that occasion. But whatever may have been the precise reply made by Swayne, it

is not disputed that Dunagan and Simpson telephoned the information to the people in Clifton that they had seen Swayne and that his reply was that he would not do anything; that the children had been placed and would stay placed.

The Children Gathered Up and Redistributed. Upon the receipt in Clifton of this information so telephoned, a meeting of the citizens was held and a committee

of twenty-five persons was named to collect the children from the people to whom they had been consigned, and to bring them to the principal hotel of the place. The members of the committee then visited the various homes of the persons having possession of the children and stated to the latter that they had been sent by the American residents to take the children from their possession; in each instance the children, without protest, were voluntarily surrendered, and were thereupon taken to the hotel.

Upon the arrival of the train in Clifton all the children were neatly clad, cleanly in appearance, and gave every evidence of careful nursing and proper attention. When the children were obtained from these people they were in a filthy condition, covered with vermin, and, with two or three exceptions, ill and nauseated from the effects of coarse Mexican beans, chills, watermelons, and other improper food which had been fed them; and, in some instances, from the effect of beer and whiskey that had been given them to drink. Upon the arrival of the children at the hotel certain good women of the place took charge of them, nursed them and secured medical care and attention for them. On the next day the children were given to the several respondents in these cases, who have since had them in their care, custody and control.

The agent, Swayne, and the priest on the night of October 2, returned with Dunagan and Simpson to Clifton, arriving there in the early morning. Citizens to the number of two or three hundred had assembled and were waiting for their return. At this meeting much excitement was manifested, but no act of violence was done at that or any other time; some threats, however, of a general character were made by certain persons against the agent, Swayne. Both Swayne and the priest made a statement of their position at this meeting. Swayne at that time was apprehensive that he might receive bodily harm. In his statement at the meeting he said that the children were placed temporarily in charge of the people to whom they had been consigned, but the understanding was that the sisters were to remain for a matter of two or three weeks, and if it were found by them that any of the children were placed in improper homes they would be taken from such homes and replaced. He protested against the taking of the children by the American residents; and neither by his consent nor that of the sisters were the children either taken

from the homes in which they had been placed or given to the respondents. On the next day other meetings were held, at which both the priest and Swayne were present. The Clifton children were not given up to the sisters or the agent by the people who had taken them in charge, for the reason that they feared if so returned the children might be again placed in equally unfit homes of Mexican-Indians elsewhere.

At Morenci. In Morenci, after the distribution of the children and after the fact had become known, the same indignation was aroused among the American citizens, and much the same course was pursued as in Clifton. Mr. Mills, in company with them, called upon the sisters and upon agent Swayne, and remonstrated with them against permitting the children to remain with the people to whom they had been distributed. As a result of these remonstrances and a statement by Mr. Mills that the American residents of Morenci would not suffer the children so to remain, the priest and the agent, Swayne, visited the homes of the Mexicans having the children and obtained a surrender of them and brought them to the hotel; and these children, with the exception of three, who were turned over at the request of Dunagan to be distributed among American residents, were subsequently taken back by the sisters and the agent to the east, and there placed in homes. It is shown by the testimony of Sister Anna and the agent Swayne, that they would not have given the three Morenci children to Dunagan except that they then believed that the people of Morenci would not permit any of the children to be taken away by them.

Character of the New Guardians. It is clearly established by the proof in the case, and it is not disputed, that each of the respondents is a fit and proper person to have the care, custody and control of the children; that they are people of sufficient means properly to care for and educate the children, and that they are fit persons, by reason of their character, standing, and age, to have and maintain such care, custody and control; that without exception they have become attached to the children, and the children have become attached to them, and that each desires to retain the particular child which he has, in order that he may rear the same as one of his own household.

On the 16th of October, applications were made by the respondents to the probate court of Graham county, Arizona, for letters of guardianship of the person of the child which each possessed; hearings were had, at which this petitioner was represented by counsel, and in each instance letters of guardianship were granted in accordance with said application, and each of said respondents duly qualified as such guardian. Thereupon this petitioner took an appeal

from the order granting said letters of guardianship in each case to the district court of Graham county. Pending said appeals these petitions were filed, and in response to the writs the children were brought before this court.

The opinion of the court rendered by Chief Justice Kent and concurred in by the three associate justices was as follows:

Holdings of the Supreme Court. This proceeding, though not presenting questions difficult of determination or points

of law that are novel, is unusual in many of its features, and is important as determinative of the disposition and welfare of a number of little children ignorant of the contest that is being carried on in regard to them. Our decision will determine the question of their environment, the circumstances under which they shall be brought up, the foster parents and homes they are to have, and will affect their future probably to a greater degree than any one circumstance that can now come into their lives. The importance to them of a proper determination of this proceeding has caused us to adopt the unusual procedure of hearing the evidence orally before the full bench, and we deem it proper, although the case has only in the past few days been closed, to determine the matter now while all the parties concerned are before the court, and to state the facts as we find them and our conclusions somewhat at length, although opportunity has not been given to formulate them other than hastily.

The question presented for our determination, primarily, is, What disposition of these children will be for their best interests? They are brought before us by the petitioner claiming its legal right to their custody. The respondents appear and claim their custody, alleging also a legal right. Whether a legal right exists, either on the one side or the other, such right is not conclusive upon us; and while it is properly a factor to be taken into consideration in determining the welfare of the children, such welfare is the controlling vital determinative fact.

The supreme court of Massachusetts, with that clearness of diction so frequently characteristic of its opinions, has in the case of *Woodworth vs. Spring*, 4 Allen, 321, the parent case often cited and followed, so fully covered the law upon this subject that we deem it desirable to quote here the greater portion of that opinion.

Here follows an extended quotation from the Massachusetts decision (Chief Justice Bigelow) to the effect that each state exercises the right to determine the status or condition of persons found within its jurisdiction; that the question

whether a person within the jurisdiction of a state can be removed therefrom depends not on the laws of the place whence he came or in which he may have his legal domicile, but on the laws of the state or country in which he is found; and that (in a case not unlike that before the Arizona court), it is for the courts to determine in the exercise of a sound judicial discretion, having regard to the welfare and permanent good of the child as a predominant consideration, to whose custody he shall be committed.

Justice Kent continues:

Legal Claims Denied. It will be noted that the case from which we have quoted differs from the proceedings

before us in that in the Massachusetts case the child was in that jurisdiction without the intent of its guardian to change its domicile to that state; while here the still stronger reason exists for following the doctrine enunciated, in that the petitioner in the exercise of its custody and control over the children voluntarily brought them to this jurisdiction, with the conceded intention of changing their domicile by placing them in the homes in this territory it then believed to be suitable ones. Following the law as we find it, and with it we are in full accord, we do not deem it important to the main issue to be decided to pass upon the contention of the respondents that the charter of the petitioner gives it no right either to place these children in homes or to reclaim them for any cause after they have been so placed; that the petitioner has no rights of guardianship; that whatever rights the petitioner has have no extra-territorial force, and can avail such institution nothing outside the state of New York; that if the petitioner has a right to place such children in homes, then admittedly it is a part of its business, and in placing these children in the home here it has been carrying on such business in this territory, and having done so without complying with the territorial laws respecting the filing of its articles and the appointment of an agent, it cannot now, under our law, maintain this proceeding founded on such business so done here. If the subject-matter of this proceeding were other than that of the custody of children, the legal propositions advanced by the respondents would merit careful attention; but in this proceeding it is sufficient to say that we do not recognize any of them as a bar to the proceeding brought by the petitioner, and that we recognize its right to present this application, and the power of the court under this application to award the petitioner the relief it seeks, if it be for the best interests of the children so to do.

Similarly, it is not necessary for us to

determine whether the petitioner is correct in its position that the letters of guardianship issued to the respondents by the probate court of Graham county give the respondents no legal right to the custody of the children, for the reason that an appeal having been taken to the district court where a trial *de novo* must be had, such appeal vacates the order of appointment and the letters issued thereunder; for if the letters be valid and the respondents the appointed guardians thereunder, such fact is in no way controlling upon us, and is but one of the surrounding circumstances at which we should look in the interests of the children.

We hold, therefore, that under the facts as we find them neither the petitioner nor the respondents have any such legal claim as authorizes us for that reason to award to either of the parties the care and custody of these children.

“Best Welfare
of the Children”
to Govern.

We have, then, to decide what disposition must be made of the children to subserve best their welfare.

The petitioner has frankly conceded that a great blunder was committed in the consignment and delivery of the children to these degraded half-breed Indians. The evidence satisfies us that it was an unintentional blunder on the part of the institution, and was caused by the misleading and inaccurate report of the local priest, who was not connected with the institution, and was a foreigner and unacquainted with existing conditions; that such blunder was not remedied at the time because of the tactless stubbornness of the agent and the feeling of the sister in charge that she must bow to the authority of the priest, who insisted upon such disposition. We recognize the desire of the institution to right now, and to right itself, the wrong done these children, and to secure for them now suitable homes to be chosen by it; and, with the record of its great service to humanity in the past, we have no doubt of its purpose and ability to do so; but as, in the full light of the history of this transaction, shown by the evidence adduced at the trial, of which the institution so far away can hith-

erto have had but partial knowledge, it appears that the mistake, as originally made, was made by one not connected with the petitioner, and that the ultimate purpose of the institution, that of finding suitable homes for their children, has in this instance already been accomplished, we do not believe that the best interests of these children will be promoted by allowing the petitioner to adopt the course which it desires.

The counsel for petitioner has eloquently argued to us that the interests of these children will best be subserved by allowing this institution to take them to the east and there place them in homes far removed from the knowledge of their antecedents, which by reason of the recent events has become so general where the respondents live. This argument would have great weight if we could be led to believe that a mere change of foster parentage would insure a condition of ignorance of the circumstances of their birth and desertion, either in the children when they come to years of discretion, or in the friends and families of their adoption. There can be at most but a chance that such would be the result. As it is, these present foster parents, persons of some means and education, from the day when, with humanitarian impulse and actuated by motives of sympathy for their pitiful condition, they assisted in the rescue of these little children from the evil into which they had fallen, down to the time of their attendance at this trial, at cost of much time and money, in their loving care and attention have shown that more than ordinary ties of affection bind them to these children, and that in no other homes that can be found for them are they so likely to fare as well. We feel that it is for their best interests that no change be made in their custody, and that, if anywhere, here in the changing west, the land of opportunity and hope, these children as they grow to manhood and womanhood will have the fullest opportunity that it is possible for them to have to be judged, not upon the unfortunate condition of birth, but upon the record they themselves shall make, and the character they shall develop.

The writ will be dismissed in this and the other cases.

Immigration for 1904

Reviewed by Kate Holladay Claghorn
Acting Registrar New York Tenement-house Department

The last report of the commissioner-general of immigration tells us in detail what we had already learned in brief from the newspapers, that immigration for the year ending June 30, 1904, dropped some forty-five thousand, only a trifle—comparatively speaking—below the high-water mark set in the previous year, the immigrants in 1903 numbering 857,046, in 1904, 812,870.

It is perhaps worthy of notice that the decrease was shown entirely in the male

immigration; female immigration showing a positive increase of 19,870 over the previous year. The total decrease of male immigration, then, was not merely the net decrease shown for all immigration but a total of 64,046.

This is easily explained. In years like 1903 of great industrial prosperity on this side, large numbers of young men are tempted forth to try their fortunes here, leaving wives and sweethearts behind to

await the result of the experiment. In years of industrial depression, as 1904 was to a certain degree, the stream of the pioneers is checked, but those who had made a start in the preceding year, are by this time ready to send for wives and children with the first fruits of their prosperity.

It has already been commented on, in this and other journals, that practically the entire decrease in immigration is caused by decreases from the southern and eastern European countries, with the exception of Sweden, which shows a shrinkage of 18,265, a drop of about two-fifths from the year before.

There were 28,855 immigrants fewer from Austria-Hungary, 37,326 fewer from Italy, and 2,747 fewer from Greece. These decreases, however, are not so great as to reduce immigration from these countries to the level of 1902, when immigration from them was already considerable.

In similar manner, the northern and western countries show increases, but these increases are not so great as for the year previous, so that relatively immigration from these countries, as well as from the South and East, is dropping behind.

As one important northwestern country showed a decrease, in contrast to the others, so one important eastern country shows an increase—that is, Russia, which sent us 9,048 more immigrants than in 1903—not a large increase, but enough to bring the total for that country up to 145,191, as against 177,156 for Austria-Hungary and 193,296 for Italy. These three countries together, then, notwithstanding the general decrease, gave us over half a million immigrants (515,593) or nearly two-thirds of the total immigration in 1904.

The increase of immigration from Russia was due entirely to the large increase of its Hebrew element, nearly 30,000 over the year before, while the Slavic peoples show the same decrease already shown by the related peoples in Austria-Hungary. Hebrew immigration from Austria-Hungary also increased, so that of all the race elements, northern or southern, eastern or western, as distinguished from nationalities, the Hebrews showed the only striking increase for the year, over a hundred thousand coming here in 1904 as against some 76,000 in 1903.

*Economic
Character of
the Immigration.*

The commissioner-general congratulates himself and the country that the character of immigration has improved, as indicated both by the regions from which it is drawn, and the larger amount of money shown by the immigrants. In 1904 this total was \$20,894,383, or \$4,776,870 more than was brought by the larger number of arrivals the year before. This increase is not due entirely to the relative changes in the sources of immigration as might be supposed at first thought.

The following table, computed on the basis of the tables of the immigration report,

shows that the increase is shared by all the principal race-elements of immigration:

AMOUNT OF MONEY SHOWN PER CAPITA BY
CERTAIN RACES.

Northern and Western.	1903	1904
English.....	\$49.40	\$65.97
Germans.....	34.55	48.44
Irish.....	22.51	29.47
Scandinavians.....	20.55	24.35
Southern and Eastern.		
Magyars.....	12.59	16.08
Croatians.....	12.37	15.12
Slovaks.....	12.00	15.44
Poles.....	9.54	11.54
South Italians.....	11.01	13.05
Hebrews.....	9.70	15.08

It may be suspected, however, that this apparent increase in wealth is due rather to the fact that in 1904 the immigrant thought it prudent to show a larger amount than he would have shown the year before, to secure him admittance. Whereas, for instance, in 1903 the immigrant with \$60 would be content to say he had \$30, when asked if he had more or less than that amount, in 1904, under the new law, by which he was asked to state whether he had \$50 or over, he would say that he had \$50.

Perhaps a more genuine indication of improvement is seen in the fact that the percentage debarred was slightly less than for 1903, while the percentage returned after landing (immigrants of 1903) was larger than for 1903 (immigrants of the previous year).

*Confused
Elements in a
New Race
Classification.*

A novel feature of this year's report is a more comprehensive classification of the race-elements in immigration, which, however, the disinterested student of the subject could well wish had not been undertaken. For we have in it not only what appears to be an incorrect classification in itself, but one that tries to embrace non-comparable elements.

The Federal census as yet, and the immigration bureau in former times, took account, in classifying foreigners, only of their country of birth—that is to say, their nationality. All immigrants from Austria then were "Austrians," whether they happened to be Magyars, Slavs, Germans or Jews. This was not a very profound or significant distinction, but it was at least definite.

Later the immigration bureau adopted a cross-classification by language, including, however, a totally anomalous class of "Hebrews" based not on language but assumed race. As a whole, however, the classification roughly indicated race, and proved to be serviceable for social purposes.

Now, however, the immigration bureau groups these language classes into what purport to be "race" groups, as "Keltic," "Teutonic," "Slavic," and "Iberic." A moment's analysis will show the confused character of the classification. As "Keltic" (which is really a cultural, not a racial designation) are classed the Irish, Scotch and Welsh, among whom something of Keltic speech survives, but who, ethnologically, are more like their "Teutonic" English neighbors than like the other members of this so-called "Keltic" group. In the same group are placed the French, among whom are found examples of all three main racial types, and who speak a Latin, not a Keltic, language; and here also are the North Italians, who are of the Alpine race type, sometimes called "Keltic," but, like the French, speak a Latin language.

As "Slavic" are grouped not only the peoples speaking Slavic languages, which is near enough for practical purposes to a Slavic race-classification, but also the Lithuanians, a people distinctly non-Slavic both by race and language, and, most curious classification of all, the Hebrews! It is true that over ninety per cent of our Jewish immigrants come from Austria and Russia, and that in these countries there has been some race mixture, giving the Hebrews a dash of Slavic blood, but it is certainly obvious that this originally distinct people has remained sufficiently distinct in all its wanderings to be classed as one race. If not, why not drop the name in the immigration reports, and call them "Poles" or "Hungarians" or "Russians," according to the language they speak?

The map given in the report to illustrate the tables accentuates these peculiarities of classification by giving to an entire country one tint representing the supposed predominant race group there, so that all Russia and Austria is overspread with the Slavic green, all France with the Keltic red, and all Germany with the Teutonic blue, notwithstanding the real mixture of races prevailing in these countries.

These peculiarities of classification would be of secondary importance except for the fact that they will inevitably be taken as the basis for many an argument on the problem of immigration, obscuring and exaggerating the question the classification is supposed to throw light on.

One instance of this is already seen in the report itself where a chart is given showing by these new "race" divisions the proportion of aliens in institutions here who are criminals, and also the proportion who had arrived within five years. The "Keltic" group, including as it does the French, Irish, Scotch, Welsh and, presumably North Italians, gives, in one indistinguishable whole, peoples who, separately, live under very different social conditions, and show in the home

country, different crime and pauperism rates. The same is true of the Slavic group, where the non-Slavic Hebrews, with a markedly different crime rate from the true Slavs, are mingled without distinction with the latter.

This census of aliens in penal, reformatory and charitable institutions,¹ just referred to, a new feature of the report this year, has already been noticed in CHARITIES (December 10, 1904), where its most striking defect was pointed out—the absence of population totals on which to base a ratio of criminality and dependence. Other defects that strike one are the meagreness of description of classes and kinds of institutions covered, whether all in the United States are included, or only a selected number; whether the census was taken on a given day, or protracted through a period, what time of the year it was taken, and so on. We also miss any explanation of the high criminality figures for newer peoples on the basis of the predominance in those peoples of the sex and age-period in which crime is most frequent, or of pauperism among the older comers, for the same reason.

The Problem of Distribution.

The commissioner-general's recommendations for legislation have also already been summed up in the number of CHARITIES just referred to. Of these, the one of most general interest is that urging adequate measures for the better distribution of aliens who are admitted to this country. The congestion of foreigners in dense colonies in our large cities is regarded by the commissioner-general, as well as by the public at large, as "the cause of the chief dangers to be apprehended from the enormous immigration of aliens," and in his opinion "it cannot in justice to the interests of our country and to the preservation of its institutions, be too urgently or too frequently repeated that, in confining our treatment of the all-important immigration problem to the exclusion of such of certain enumerated classes as we can detect, our policy is superficial."

Commissioner Sargent does not, in the report, develop any detailed plan for deflecting immigration from the cities, but that he has such a plan has been lately announced through the newspapers and otherwise. The working out of the method proposed by him will be awaited with much interest. It is understood that the plan calls for an appropriation of \$150,000 for the erection of buildings at Ellis Island, and the arrangement of other facilities whereby immigrants may be given an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the resources of other parts of the country besides New York.

Certain practical hindrances to the working of the proposed scheme at once suggest

¹ For a review of this institutional census from the standpoint of the New York State Board of Charities see CHARITIES, JANUARY 21, 1905.

themselves. One is the difficulty of persuading the immigrant to stay at the island long enough to be talked with on any subject, least of all as to changing the destination he had in mind when he started from home. Another is the difficulty of reaching the simple, emotional, illiterate peasant by "literature," even the most florid and sensational ever issued by a railroad or land company or by reasoned exposition in lecture form of the character and quantity of crops, etc. Another is the distrust of the immigrant in schemes offered him by strangers. And has not this distrust some foundation in the past history of attempts to colonize immigrants? Any one who wishes to realize vividly what might happen to the Italian or Jewish immigrant today, even under the watchful eye of the government, should look back to what happened to the English and Irish immigrant of the 50's, as shown in the pages of "Martin Chuzzlewit," in the description of that delightful Illinois colony of "Eden."

Possibly Commissioner Sargent has some sure means of sifting the reliable from the unreliable among the railroads and land companies that will flock to Ellis Island to display their wares, but to the lay mind it would seem to require almost as many inspectors as there are immigrants to ensure that they should not be led away to unsuitable locations, and left, without capital, to starve, or tramp back to the cities, as best they might.

*Foreign
Policy Charged.*

With regard to the evils of colonization in cities which this plan is meant to remedy, it seems a little unfortunate that, without producing definite proof of the fact, the commissioner-general thought fit to give as "an authoritative statement of one at least of the reasons for the existence of alien colonies in the United States, which the bureau has pointed out as the cause of the chief dangers to be apprehended from the enormous immigration of aliens," that certain foreign countries are actively engaged in maintaining such colonies. He says: "Our interest, if not safety, lies in the gradual naturalization, or Americanization, of our alien population. The interest of the countries from which that population comes, lies in the opposite direction. Those countries are taking measures to accomplish their ends." And further, that some of the public officers of those countries stated "that it was found expedient to colonize their subjects who come to this country for the purpose of maintaining in them a love of their mother country. This was accomplished through agents of the home government and church, sent here to keep them from imbibing a knowledge of and affection for the institutions of the United States, which might and probably would, result in their purchase of homes here and final expatriation from their own country. That result meant a

permanent loss to those countries of the allegiance and usefulness of such of their subjects as adopt our views and become American citizens, as well as loss of the enormous aggregate revenue sent back annually by those who cherish the intent of ultimately returning, buying homes and living on the proceeds of their earnings."

He says besides: "Those foreign countries where the labors of the ever active transportation agent have been most effective in diminishing native population have become alarmed, and have made futile attempts to check an exodus which threatens to seriously impair their self-supporting capacity. Failing in this they have taken the next possible step, that of minimizing the evil, and if possible of turning it to their advantage in the long run. Hence all the political and social, and occasionally the religious resources of these countries are being directed to one end—to maintain colonies of their own people in this country, instructing them through various channels to maintain their allegiance to the countries of their birth, to transmit their earnings here to the fatherland for the purchase of ultimate homes there, and to avoid all intercourse with the people of this country that would tend to the permanent adoption of American ideals."

*The Charges
Considered.*

These charges are serious indeed, and cannot be too plainly substantiated if made at all. One at once thinks of two governments in especial, in relation to them. The countries of northwestern Europe are not in question, as immigration from them is light, and there are no dense colonies of their people to hold together. Russia is so situated toward her immigrants that she could not, if she would, influence them sufficiently to hold them in colonies. There are left then Austria-Hungary and Italy.

Some confirmation is given to this idea as regards Hungary, in the reports of our consuls at Fiume and Budapest (Vol. XXX, Special Consular Reports), recently issued. The consular agent at Fiume writes that during the last five years the custom of sending money on deposit has developed abnormally; that "the system is well arranged," the new Hungarian emigration law providing definitely for the deposit, handling and sending home of the money saved up by the emigrants by means of the Royal Hungarian Postal Savings Banks or any other reliable Hungarian financial institution.

Our consul at Budapest states still more definitely that owing to the new Hungarian emigration law, the character of emigrants will change "from the fact that they will emigrate only temporarily, being taught to retain European citizenship and domicile and induced to remit their moneys continually to Europe, instead of investing them in American business or land. It is expected, through clergymen, newspaper

men, and others, to hold the emigrants under tutelage while in the United States."

But here again no concrete proof is brought forward to show in what way the new Hungarian law or the Hungarian officials, are at work to bring about this state of things, beyond the provision for the sending home of savings.

As far as Italy is concerned it is true that the money sent back by emigrants is an element of prosperity for the home country; it is true that the Italian law, like the Hungarian law, provides for the receipt of deposits and remittances from emigrants; it is true that the Italian emigration law contains strict and detailed regulations for the protection of the emigrant until he lands on these shores; it is also true that a "Royal Commission of Emigration" exercises some oversight as to countries to which emigration is freely permitted, and sends out inspectors to investigate conditions under which emigrants live. But there is nothing on the face of these provisions beyond a natural and humane intention to protect the emigrant, as an individual, against gross wrong and abuse until he is settled in this country. Then all "regulations" of the home government cease to apply.

It happens very curiously too that the chief officials of the Italian government on this side for the last number of years have been particularly outspoken in their desire and active in plans for the distribution and assimilation of Italian immigrants. The present ambassador, Baron Mayor des Planches, has recently announced, and is understood to be at work on a practical plan, to enable the migration of Italians from cities into rural communities.

The former consul-general at New York, Comm. Branchi, showed his interest in the rapid assimilation of Italians, by his practical support and assistance of the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants—a society composed of Americans as well as Italians, which has among its avowed objects the assimilation of Italian immigrants, their education, not only in the language of the new country, but for citizenship, and their settlement, as far as practicable, in country districts. Largely due to his advice and approval of the plan, this same society has been in receipt of a subsidy from

the Italian government to aid in carrying on its work, which seems to indicate that the government is not overly anxious to prevent its emigrants from coming in touch with Americans and American ideas.

The present consul-general, Cav. G. Tosti, is directly and practically advocating the settlement of Italian immigrants on farms, not as farm laborers, which would permit, or even encourage, eventual return to Italy, or at times when work was slack, but as farm owners, ownership of land being, of course, the closest link that could bind them to our country.

Readers of CHARITIES have already had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the consul-general's views on this subject.¹

And in the Italian press of this city, where his words will naturally have great practical influence, no American could speak more decisively of the evils of "colonialism" and the desirability, both for our country and for the immigrant himself, of complete fusion with the native element.

If then, Commissioner Sargent has evidence to show that foreign governments are playing an opposite part, should we not ask him to let us know which they are, in justice to the others, and just what means they are employing, so that we may take appropriate measures on our part?

In any event, however, it may be well to say, to reassure the anxious, no foreign government can long retain a hold over its former subjects after they have once established themselves here. Whether they remain in cities or go to the country, our newcomers are continuously subject to a stream of influences against which no calculated or artificial means of holding them together can make headway. The immigrant may go back home once or twice; but in the end he comes here to stay. He may send his money home for a time, but finally he brings his family to this side, and the golden current ceases. And, finally, whatever he may plan or think, his children will entirely cast off allegiance to the home land, refusing to be anything but Americans. In truth, perhaps they do this rather too quickly than the reverse.

¹ *The Agricultural Possibilities of Italian Immigration*, CHARITIES, May 7, 1904.

The Czar, for his newly-born Sonsky,
In the bank put a great sum of Monsky.
When asked why he gave
Such a sum to his babe
He replied, "That's my big Fresh Heir
Fundsky."

Among Prints and Publications

Upon his induction to the Tooke Professorship of Economic Science and Statistics in King's College, London, C. S. Loch delivered an inaugural address on the economic and social study of London. Like other writings of Mr. Loch, this inaugural address is a great clarifier of hazy ideas. The unity and the inequalities of the great community of London have nowhere been more clearly recognized than in this forecast of the city which Mr. Loch conceives it to be his duty and privilege to undertake. In eloquent, brief paragraphs he pictures the London of which others know parts or particular aspects, but of which the real unity as well as the real inequalities can be known only by those who have lived in London for the greater part of a lifetime, and who have worked in it and for it.

Mr. Loch depicts three distinct phases of thought—those of the Inequalist, the Equalist and the Functionist—implying radically different views of the nature and development of society. The Inequalists, whose creed, as Mr. Loch says, at least, is not the creed of the weakling, are sometimes called Individualists, and they are sometimes supposed to be the best exponents of the theory of evolution.

The Equalists, in Mr. Loch's definition, include such widely different classes as the socialists, the advocates of outdoor relief, and those who favor an old-age pension—all alike, he holds, whether consciously or not, advocating measures which increase dependence. To equalize is to impoverish not the individual only, but the nation.

The third position is that which leads those who hold it to favor measures which strengthen function. Neither equality nor inequality is the desirable end, but "the good life." London exists for the good life of Londoners. Statistics may indicate equality or they may indicate inequality, and in either case they show nothing final. The test is not quantity or equalization, but the attainment of unity and social welfare.

The recognition of the end indicates by implication the nature of the investigations which need to be made. Those facts should be ascertained and those principles discovered which will be of service in promoting functional efficiency. This principle Mr. Loch clearly applies and illustrates, closing with the repetition of his faith and belief that "the city exists for the good life;" and that students "whom the thought of such a sentence can stir to curiosity and endeavor will find in economic and in social science, and in the discernment that comes of observation and practical effort, a groundwork of study with the aid of which in later life they may do much to build up the city of their desire."

When the bibliography of the anti-tuberculosis movement is rounded out in its com-

pleteness at the end of—we will hope—twenty-five years, the number of titles which will be found opposite the name of Dr. S. A. Knopf of New York, will bear witness not merely to an indefatigable pen in the interest of the movement, but to earnest and consistent and indomitable perseverance in the way of enlisting personal work to further it. Since writing the essay which at once brought him into prominence in connection with preventive work in this field and afforded a clear-cut statement of the possibilities for checking the white scourge, Dr. Knopf has, perhaps, been most effective in grasping what might be called the battalion formations in the line of attack and putting before each section of the community those obvious duties which it should perform as its share. No better illustration of this could be had than four reprints which have recently come from the presses of well known medical journals, addresses all of them which brought home, the one to the dispensary, another to club women, a third to the public school-teacher, and a fourth to the family physician, how far and in what sense they ought to increasingly be a factor in the solution of the tuberculosis problem.

The American Civic Association is getting out some very serviceable departmental leaflets. One of these consists of tips to local civic association and other bodies promoting municipal reform, as to how to egg along newspaper men in carrying forward the publicity end of their campaigns. There are some "don'ts" which are well worth reprinting:

"Don't expect papers to give large space to promoting your organization unless you are really doing something besides 'talking about' civic improvement.

"Don't stop giving information about your work to the press because at times the editor has not been able to use it all. Yours is not the only organization concerning which publicity is important.

"Don't seek to use papers for personal publicity unless you are prepared to pay the advertising rates.

"Don't feel hurt if papers do not use your story word for word, even when you take pains to write it out; they do not wish to duplicate what others may use verbatim, and they have a right to a style of their own."

Another pamphlet, from the same source, takes up in a very practical form the subject of nuisances, showing that the essential question is at what point an annoyance becomes so unreasonably offensive as to properly constitute a nuisance, and as such, can be reached under the common law. Nuisances are classified under three heads: Direct physical danger to personal property, transmission of a specific disease, or un-

reasonable risk of such transmission, and offense to the mind through the senses. A bibliography is appended to which should be added, in dealing with the subject of advertising nuisances, sky signs and the like, reference to the very effective statutes recently passed at the instigation of the Massachusetts Civic League—statutes which should be known more fully in other states.

In the field of child labor two pamphlets have been gotten out within the past month, which hit two or three nails on the head apiece. One of these is in New York—the work of the New York Child Labor Committee, in the form of a report to Governor Higgins upon the failure of Commissioner John McMackin to enforce the labor law. It is a different sort of pamphlet from the picturesque broadsides issued by the committee a year ago when it was securing the passage of the laws which it now claims are not enforced, but it is quite as vital and quite as vigorous in its presentation of the situation.

The second pamphlet deals with child labor conditions in the South, and is written by A. J. McKelway, secretary for the Southern States for the National Child Labor Committee. "Do not grind the seed corn" is its suggestive caption, and under this have been grouped statements of the child labor laws in the different states leading up to a discussion of the country cotton mill of the South, of child life in the mill towns, and of the reasonableness and fairness to the best interests of the growing

southern industrial centres, that the children who must be the workers and mothers of ten years hence, shall not become stunted as citizens and dwarfed as producers—possible inmates of almshouses and broken homes in another decade.

A bunch of pictures are included, which are very suggestive; one is labeled "The Gutter." It is a picture of green grass and trees and open space, but of no children. Another picture is that of two little colored boys, ragged and grinning from ear to ear. And a third, a group of children workers, white children, boys and girls, thirteen, eleven, ten years of age, one with a bandaged leg that was cut in the mill machinery. By way of explanation is this—"Now when it is said that it is better for the children to be in the mill than to be playing in the gutter, it should have been noted that we are somewhat short of gutters in most parts of the South. Here is a pleasant pastoral scene just across the street from a cotton factory on the edge of one of the largest cities in the state, not two miles from the public square. The cow seems to be having a good time, and the children might also. But when we looked through the length and breadth of the village for the children, the only two that we could find in it of this size or larger, are the two in the picture above (the colored children). These are not at work, though they go to school. The white children are nearly all in the mill. If that does not suggest the gravest sort of a problem for the Southern patriot, we do not know what would."

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National Child Labor Meeting, February 15-16.

Some of the most forceful leaders, west, south, north, in the child labor campaign will be drawn to New York next week at the first annual meeting of the National Child Labor Committee. Three sessions will be held—Tuesday evening and Wednesday afternoon in the United Charities building, and Thursday evening in conjunction with the People's Institute at Cooper Union. The program shows the sheer weight, the non-provincial, many-sided representation, and the balancing of what is practical and what is ideal, which come of inter-state organization in social movements. The first session will be in a sense a muster of the forces arrayed against child labor; the second, a survey of the field in state and territory; the third, a statement of the challenge which comes of present conditions. The program is as follows:

FIRST SESSION.

Tuesday, February 14, 8 P. M., Assembly Hall, United Charities Building; presiding officer, Dr. Felix Adler, chairman of the national committee.

GENERAL TOPIC: *The Forces Arrayed Against Child Labor and Their Better Utilization.*

Letters from Cardinal Gibbons, and others.
The Church.—The Right Rev. W. N. McVickar, Bishop of Rhode Island.

The School.—Dr. James H. Kirkland, chancellor Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.

Organized Labor.—Edgar E. Clark, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

Employers of Labor.—Dr. Emil G. Hirsch, Chicago, Ill.

SECOND SESSION.

Wednesday, February 15, 3 P. M., Assembly Hall, United Charities Building; presiding officer, Homer Folks, vice-chairman of the national committee.

GENERAL TOPIC: *Review of Legislation on Child Labor, Methods of Enforcement and Present Problems in the Several States and Territories.*

The Test of Effective Legislation.—Owen

R. Lovejoy, assistant secretary of the national committee.

Legislation and Methods in the Western States.—Judge Ben B. Lindsey, Juvenile Court, Denver, Col.

Legislation and Methods in the New England and Middle States.—Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of National Consumers' League.

Legislation and Methods in Northern Central States.—Hanford Erickson, Madison, Wis.

Legislation and Methods in the Southern States.—The Rev. Neal L. Anderson, Montgomery, Ala.

Some Physiological Reasons Why the Premature Employment of Children Under Modern Industrial Conditions is a Menace to the Race.—D. L. Emmett Holt, New York city.

The Work of Women's Clubs in Securing Child Labor Legislation.—Mrs. A. O. Granger, Atlanta, Ga., chairman Child Labor Committee, General Federation of Women's Clubs.

What the State Owes the Child.—Samuel McCune Lindsay, secretary of the national committee.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday, February 16, 8 P. M., Cooper Union; presiding officer, Dr. Felix Adler, chairman of the national committee.

GENERAL TOPIC: *The Need of Protective Legislation for Working Children.*

The Evils of Child Labor.—Felix Adler, chairman of the national committee.

The Child Labor Situation in Southern Industry.—A. J. McKelway, Charlotte, N. C., assistant secretary of national committee.

Child Labor Legislation, a Requisite for Industrial Efficiency.—Jane Addams, Hull House, Chicago.

The National Consumers' League has long had its "black list" of non-protecting States.

"white list" of establishments and factories which meet the hygienic and labor standard which it sets as an industrial minimum. In its 1905 edition of the *Handbook of Child Labor Legislation*, just issued, is incorporated what could be called a "black list" of states and territories in which

there is as yet *no age or time limit by day or night* affecting the labor of children. The majority have been non-industrial sections, to be sure, but in not a few of them that situation is not one likely to be long continued. The list is:

District of Columbia,	Idaho,
Delaware,	Indian Territory,
Georgia,	Nevada,
Hawaii,	New Mexico,
	Oklahoma.

Bills defining an age limit and hours of labor for children are pending in the District of Columbia and Delaware, but in South Carolina and Maryland the laws protecting certain classes of children permit exemptions of such a wholesale character that they are perilously near the margin. Several new schedules in this report, of proofs of age, dangerous occupations, overtime, enforcement of child labor and compulsory education laws make this new edition of the handbook forty pages of exceeding valuable comparative material.¹

Rhode Island is stirred as never before on the subject of child labor legislation.

Two hearings before the house committee on special legislation have been held at the State House in Providence. Both were largely attended, the adjourned hearing on February 2, taxing the capacity of the room. Nearly all interests in the state were represented in the discussion, the treasurer of one of the largest manufacturing companies being present and speaking on behalf of the manufacturers in favor of improved legislation.

Among the prominent speakers at the first hearing, were Governor Utter, who urged that the child labor law should be made to conform to the compulsory education law, and Professors Gardner and Willett of Brown University, whose statistics showed the necessity of some action to relieve Rhode Island of its present burden of illiteracy, it being shown that Rhode Island has the highest percentage of any northern state and the highest per-

centage of white illiteracy of any state in the Union.

At the adjourned hearing, Lieutenant-Governor Jackson made a vigorous appeal on behalf of the children, urging their interests as paramount to any commercial consideration. After several effective addresses by representatives of labor organizations and of the schools of Providence and Woonsocket, the hearing closed with a powerful address by Bishop McVickar.

The attitude of the Rhode Island press toward the question is well indicated by an editorial in the *Providence Journal* of February 4, in which the *Journal* says:

The percentage of illiteracy in the state and the exceptionally large amount of child labor employed constitute a real disgrace, and the facts permit nobody to deny it. . . . The wide and earnest interest in the matter shown at the hearing represents an aroused public sentiment which the General Assembly cannot safely ignore. The details of the needed legislation are for the members of the Assembly to decide, under the guidance of those who have made special duty of the situation. But the legal age of employment should certainly not be permanently left below fourteen years, with perhaps a higher limit for night work.

Three bills are before the house—the first prepared by the factory inspector, J. Ellery Hudson; the second, by a committee in Providence organized to advance child labor legislation; and the third, “the standard child labor law,” presented by John W. Hogan on behalf of the Providence School Committee. The representatives of these three measures, by the advice of the National Child Labor Committee, have conferred and have in preparation a substitute for the three bills embodying the most practicable features of all, one of the most important being provision requiring proof of age. This bill will, it is said, restrict the employment of children at night, raise the age limit to thirteen throughout the year, including vacation time, and without exemptions and, on January 1, 1907, to fourteen, and further prohibit the employment of illiterates under sixteen years of age.

Such a measure is in a sense a compromise. With the manufacturers, the more conservative business journals, and the labor unions committed to reform,

¹ Edited by Josephine C. Goldmark and Ma-teleine Wallin Sikes. Copies may be had for 10 cents from the National Consumers' League, 105 East 22d street, New York.

and with such an expression of public opinion as that in evidence at the hearing, why is not the time ripe to strike for a measure that will make a fourteen-year-old age limit immediate as in Massachusetts, New York and a score of states, and an eight-hour day for juvenile workers, as in Vermont and Illinois. Surely the manufacturers of Rhode Island would resent the insinuation that in business ability and industrial equipment they are so far inferior to their competitors in other New England states, that it will take them a year and ten months to adjust their industries before they can meet others on an equal footing. The fixing of a fourteen-year-old limit nearly two years hence is admittedly an advance over the factory inspector's bill which called for a thirteen-year-old limit and which possibly represented the concessions the less progressive manufacturers were disposed to make at the outset. The fact that they have themselves joined in the cry to raise Rhode Island to a respectable rank in the scale of states and in the matter of child protection, is proof of the thorough rousing of public opinion throughout the state, but is no grounds for the champions of the reform to let these latter day recruits set the metes and bounds to enactment. It would not be easy to convince an outsider that the boys and girls of Rhode Island who are twelve years old this winter are to-day any less promising and worth protecting, any less subject to disease, any less responsive to schooling, or any less likely to become stunted and anaemic than two winters hence will be the boys and girls of Rhode Island, who will be thirteen then.

*Child Labor
Legislation De-
feated in
North Carolina.*

The house committee on Manufactures of the North Carolina legislature last week reported the pending child labor bill unfavorable and chances of progressive legislation there this winter are probably over. The report followed a three hours' hearing at which representatives of the manufacturers, A. J. McKelway, assistant secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, and others, spoke. Two years ago the first law regulating child labor was put upon the statute books of North Carolina—the

result of a compromise arrangement. This has been in operation a year and the opposition of the manufacturers, coupled with a tacit understanding, alleged to have been made, that there would be no further legislation at the session of 1905, killed the measure and satisfied those who, according to the *Raleigh Post*, "think like we do, that conditions should not be disturbed."

The charge was made by one of the speakers at the hearing, according to the *Raleigh Observer*, that the national committee has its backing among the New England cotton manufacturers—apparently without reckoning that this committee includes such Southerners as Hoke Smith and Clark Howell and the Rev. C. B. Wilmer of Atlanta, Senator Tillman of South Carolina, the Rev. Neal L. Anderson of North Carolina, Beverly B. Munford of Richmond, and Chancellor Kirkland of Nashville, N. B. Feagin, J. B. Gaston and Edward Gardner Murphy of Alabama.

Other arguments advanced by several of the manufacturers in opposition to legislation were more significant as showing what lines of opposition may be expected. One of these was S. J. Durham who, it would seem according to his own statements, "represented a natural humane impulse," and "represented the interest of the humble people of the hamlet of Bessemer City." "When you say a child of twelve or fourteen can't work," said Mr. Durham, "you take away its right to provide for the necessities of life. (!) Give them the right to work and such of them as have it in them to do so, will be educated, refined, strong men and women."

Another argument has been that if the North Carolina laws should prohibit child labor, their operatives will leave them for adjoining states where the standards are lower. A. A. Thompson of Raleigh, maintained that there are other interests and other questions to be considered besides those of the children. He told of a mother leaving a factory to go and nurse her child and then coming back to work—of a widow, sick, with nothing to eat in the house, and nobody to work except a child who had been sent home by the superintendent because he thought she was under age, although the child said

she was twelve. "Education?" said Mr. Thompson, "do you believe a hungry child can take an education? Would any manufacturer take away the chance of an education from a child? On the farms the women work harder than they do in the mills; the children work harder. If they didn't work they would starve. Nearly every mill has its schoolhouse or helps support a school. In the mill communities the term is generally eight months instead of four, as in the rural districts generally. Why do they single out the mills? There are hundreds of occupations which are harder than the work done in the cotton factories. The employes can't do without the money, and the mills can't do without the labor. The mills draw their labor from the farms. Why does it come? It is because the people get at the mills better feed, they are better paid and clothed, and they have greater facilities for self-improvement." The speaker closed with comparing the child labor reformer to Thomas Jefferson in his effort to write a new testament for himself, but from which he left out the plan of salvation.

An amendment which would seriously weaken the compulsory education law of New York state has been introduced in the Assembly by Mr. Thompson of Niagara County. The proposed amendment applies to children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, whom it would permit to remain away from school, provided that they are regularly employed, the wording of the present law being "regularly and lawfully employed." As the law now stands these children cannot (except in a few occupations such as farm labor, domestic service and the street trades) be employed legally. By this elimination of the two words "and lawfully" children found at work without the Board of Health certificates required by the child labor law could not be returned to school. As the two laws—child labor and compulsory education—were drawn at the same time with the express purpose of dove-tailing one into the other, so as to permit of no interval of idleness between the time of leaving school and that of entering upon employment,

the proposed amendment, whether so intended by its author or not, would aim a deft blow at the delicate mechanism of the law. If, as reported in the dispatches, Mr. Thompson's object was to permit farmers' boys to remain at home to help their fathers with the apple crop, his bill is wholly unnecessary, farm labor coming within the "regular and lawful" definition of the present law.

A Program to Rally to in Pennsylvania.

It cannot be gainsaid that in the face of entrenched opposition to reform, it is practical politics to make certain of moderate advance a given year than to stand out for more thorough-going measures likely to arouse such antagonism as will swamp all legislation.

The Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee which has been criticized for the low standard presented in its bill now pending before the legislature at Harrisburgh, makes such a defense.

There are three bills before the legislature—one presented by the factory inspector, providing for a re-organization of the factory department and nearly all the legislation under which it operates, including provisions relating to child labor. This bill proposes to raise the age at which children may be legally employed from thirteen to fourteen, to prohibit night work under sixteen, but leaves the certification of age and the issuing of employment certificates practically as at present under the thirteen-year-age law. This bill also limits the number of hours to sixty per week. The second bill is that of the textile workers, which has for its main object the reduction of the hours of labor to fifty-five per week and the raising of the age limit for children to fourteen years. The third bill is that of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee, which has now also accepted the fourteen-year standard, but lays its chief emphasis on a better form of certificate and the prohibition of night work for all children under sixteen.

The position of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee has been misunderstood in some quarters. In a nutshell it is as follows: "The committee is anxious to maintain the highest possible standard, but it realizes the enormous

influences that will be brought together to defeat any child labor legislation at this session of the legislature, and it prefers to have the present law more rigidly enforced and to have some means of preventing the evasion of the law through parents obtaining false certificates, rather than additional legislation, which would rest upon no more secure basis than the present. It has not attempted to change the present law relating to hours of work, because that would add very greatly to the forces opposing such legislation. It simply lays the stress upon, and bends all its energies to, obtaining a prohibition of night work for children under sixteen, and a satisfactory age certificate in which the co-operation of the school authorities as well as of the factory inspectors may be enlisted in its enforcement."

Concentration upon these two propositions, together with the raising of the age limit from thirteen to fourteen, to which all three bills are now committed, is a program that should rally to its support every true friend of child labor legislation in Pennsylvania and all of the progressive forces of the community.

In the New York Assembly on January 16 minority leader Palmer of Schoharie County, New York, introduced a resolution providing for an investigation into the purchase of the Isaac V. Baker farm at Comstocks, Washington County, as a site for the new state hospital for the insane. Of course, the Democratic fathering of the resolution gives it a partisan flavor, but the matter is one that deserves looking into.

As a result of this resolution the reports of the experts employed by the commission to examine the various sites under consideration have been made public. It appears that in the summer of 1903, when Dr. Frederick Peterson was president of the Lunacy Commission, four superintendents of state hospitals—Drs. Charles G. Wagner of Binghamton, W. A. Hurd of Buffalo, Charles W. Pilgrim of Hudson River, and George A. Smith of Central Islip—representing institutions of from 1,400 to 3,700 patients, were requested to make a careful examination of seven sites in Wash-

ington County, situated at Greenwich, Cambridge, Shushan, Comstocks, Granville, Salem and Whitehall. The superintendents all favored either the Cambridge or the Greenwich site, and in their summary of recommendations, either ignored or condemned the Comstock site. During the same summer a New York engineer, J. M. Whitham, went over four of the sites and reported unfavorably on the Comstock site. Nothing further was done until a year later, when in August, 1904, three experts examined the Baker site alone. These examinations were made by Henri Dickinson, a New York engineer; C. E. Parsons, the chief engineer of the Hudson River Water Power Company, and Dr. Carlos Macdonald, an ex-president of the State Commission in Lunacy, and now superintendent of a small private hospital in Westchester County. Of course, the engineers reported only on such matters as water supply, sewage disposal facilities, etc., which they found adequate if certain conditions were fulfilled. Dr. Macdonald reported on other features of the site, and recommended it, but as he saw none of the other sites, he cannot be regarded as preferring this to the others. It thus appears that the commission accepted the opinion of Dr. Macdonald, who had seen only one of the sites, against that of four of the best and most experienced medical superintendents, who had seen all seven sites. It is to be remembered also that Dr. Frederick Peterson, ex-president of the commission, was opposed to the selection of the Comstock site. It is understood that the commission was not unanimous in its decision, as it is said on what appears to be good authority that Mr. Lockwood of Buffalo, the Democratic member, voted against the selection of Mr. Baker's property.

The facts as to the purchase price which are made so much of by the press are comparatively unimportant; any price would be extravagant. It would be extravagant for the state to receive the site as a gift, in view of the necessity for all time to come of hauling supplies and transporting patients and their friends from markets and centers of population to this out of the way spot. To be sure, it is understood that the commission

has secured the promise of especially advantageous railway rates for both passengers and freight, but equally or more favorable rates could probably have been secured to a more accessible site, and the length of a journey is sometimes more important than its cost.

*Past Experience
in Site
Selection.* The State Commission in Lunacy, in its thirteenth annual report for the year 1901, when Dr. Peterson was president, has this to say on the subject of sites for state hospitals:

Institutions have too often been located in out of the way and inaccessible places. It would be difficult to estimate the exact annual cost to the people of some of the sites chosen in the way of passenger tariff and price of delivery of supplies. In some the saving that might have been effected by a better location would, it is safe to say, go far towards building a new institution every ten or fifteen years.

The sites which the commission probably had in mind were those of the Willard, St. Lawrence and Gowanda state hospitals, established by the legislature in 1865, 1887 and 1894, respectively, as these are the only sites which are not well chosen. Willard, in Seneca County, is so out of the way that the hospital has to run a railroad of its own to reach it, but this site was selected for the chronic insane in the dark ages when insanity was regarded as a disgrace, and the insane were, in the picturesque vernacular, "put away." When the St. Lawrence state hospital site was selected, some fifteen years ago, better counsels should have prevailed, but for some inscrutable reason a site was chosen, excellent in itself, but on the north-western boundary of the state, 140 miles from the city of Syracuse which was to furnish a large proportion of its patients. A similar blunder was made in selecting, for the site of the homeopathic state hospital for western New York, the town of Gowanda, Cattaraugus County, in the southwestern corner of the state within forty miles of another state hospital at Buffalo, and in so thinly settled a part of the country that half the counties which must send their patients there are actually nearer other institutions.

In view of this experience this latest blunder of Comstocks is inexcusable. The reason why a new state hospital is to be

built is presumably to relieve the overcrowding of existing state hospitals and to provide for future increases.

*Where the
Greatest Need Is.* The preliminary question in selecting a site would seem to be as to where the overcrowding exists, and where the greatest increase is likely to be. The latest statistics published by the State Commission in Lunacy on this subject show that the part of the state requiring relief, not already made or to be made, by buildings already under way or definitely planned on the grounds of existing state hospitals, is the metropolitan district.

The five Manhattan and Long Island state hospitals, to which patients from New York city are sent, were overcrowded to the extent of over twenty-six per cent on October 1, while the overcrowding in the other nine state hospitals averaged only twelve and one-half per cent. Buildings are already being constructed to relieve all the overcrowding at these nine state hospitals, but for Manhattan and Long Island there is no relief in sight except at Comstocks, Washington County, more than 200 miles away. Of course, what will happen is that the insane from Albany and Troy will be taken from the Hudson river state hospital at Poughkeepsie and sent up to Comstocks, and their places at Poughkeepsie will be filled by patients from New York, making it necessary for patients from all three cities, New York, Albany and Troy, and the friends who wish to visit them, to go about seventy-five miles from home. Of course, if the interests of the insane and their friends were the only factors considered, the new hospital should be somewhere in the Hudson river district between Poughkeepsie and New York.

*East Side
Elevated Night-
mare Again.* A serious menace to the health and well-being of thousands of residents of New York's lower East Side is involved in the proposal of Borough President Littleton and the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, now before the Rapid Transit Commission, to erect elevated railroad structures connecting the three bridges, Brooklyn, Williamsburgh, and Manhattan. The pro-

posal involves the ruin of Center street, Grand street, and Delancey street as the Bowery is already ruined. Since these are the three main thoroughfares of the lower East Side, not already occupied by elevated structures, the magnitude of the proposal should enlist the opposition of all good citizens.

As CHARITIES has already said when similar proposals were advanced, no more elevated tracks should be built in the streets of Manhattan. The day for such structures has gone by. Elevated railroads in this borough are an evil legacy from the nineteenth century when electric surface roads and subways had not yet become practicable. When they were introduced, elevated roads were a makeshift for dealing with congestion of population before better means had become available. They belong in the same obsolete class with the horse-cars which still insult the patient forbearance of the dwellers in the tenement districts.

The twentieth century method of dealing with congestion is to build subways and extend surface electric railroads. If it be urged that subway building is slow, the obvious reply is that this is a most urgent reason for beginning at once to construct a subway under Delancey street from Broadway to Williamsburgh bridge. Indeed, this might well have been begun two years ago. The few months required for constructing a subway of this length constitute no possible argument for destroying for all time the noble thoroughfare already acquired by the city and only awaiting suitable development to render it an improvement worthy to be ranked with the finest thoroughfares of Paris. The first vast expenditure has been made. The city owns the land; the bridge awaits an approach; the people demand a subway below and a parkway above. Borough President Littleton and the Rapid Transit Commission will sadly mistake the public temper if they seriously propose to undertake further monstrosities like the present approach to the Brooklyn bridge.

Nowhere else in Christendom could the plan now pending before the Rapid Transit Commission, if carried into effect, work such harm as on the lower East Side of New

York city, for nowhere else is there such congestion of population, such crying need of air, light, space and the best of modern transit facilities. It is an insult to the intelligence of the people of New York seriously to consider this proposition.

With the appointment of Prof. Livingston Farland, of Columbia University, as secretary, and the availability of the ten thousand dollars which the executive committee placed as a minimum before entering upon its general campaign, definite work is now being entered upon by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

The first annual meeting of the association will be held May 18 and 19 in Washington, D. C. There will be general sessions and three special sections—sociological, of which Homer Folks is chairman, and Lilian Brandt, secretary; pathological and bacteriological, of which Dr. Mazyck P. Ravenel of Phipps Institute, Philadelphia, is chairman, and Dr. D. J. McCarthy, also of Phipps Institute, secretary; and clinical and climatological, of which Dr. Norman Bridge, of Los Angeles, Cal., is chairman, and Dr. S. G. Bonney, of Denver, secretary.

Notes of the Week.

New Jersey State Conference.—The fourth annual meeting of the New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Corrections will be held at the State House, Trenton, February 16-18. The sessions and speakers are such to attract not only a large attendance from throughout the state, but from New York and Philadelphia as well. Friday morning will be given up to discussions of the care and protection of children; Friday afternoon, of public outdoor relief; Friday evening to the care of defectives—an especially strong session, and Saturday morning to such practical measures as the need of a reformatory for women, and the extension of probation and parole systems throughout New Jersey.

Congress About Boys.—A decennial Congress about Boys will be held February 14-16 at Channing Hall, Boston, in connection with the Third Convention of the Religious Educational Association. The topic will be *The Boy in the Country and in the City*, and it is an interesting program that has been mapped out.

Charity and Social Developments in Two Southern Cities

THE IMPRESSIONS OF A VISITOR¹

Charles F. Weller

General Secretary Washington Associated Charities

I—RICHMOND

Richmond surprises one who has in mind chiefly its historical associations and so comes here thinking mainly of ancient landmarks. Business energy, modern buildings, clean streets and a general air of wholesome prosperity impress the visitor who spends a day or two in studying Virginia's capital. But the most interesting feature of all, to me, has been the recent development observable in the community's charitable work. It will not be surprising if the next few years witness a good deal of progress in this direction for a nucleus of noble-spirited, modern-minded social service has been developed.

This social nucleus appears to be the Visiting Nurses' Society and their Nurses' Settlement. By referring to this work chiefly I do not mean to overlook the older and much more adequately embodied philanthropy of St. Andrew's church. The latter's beautiful modern buildings, providing for manual training, sewing, and other day and evening classes, with a deaconess and other helpers in residence, constitute a kind of social settlement united with a church and Sunday-school. The modest donor who has provided the entire group of impressive stone and brick structures supported mainly by her funds and personally directed by herself in accordance with suggestions gathered by frequent visits to New York, has set a standard which must exercise a strong influence upon the city's ideals. There have also grown up recently in Richmond a Methodist Institute for Christian Work, familiarly called the "Nineteenth Street Mission," and a "Neighborhood House" which is a lodging place, wood-yard and chapel for homeless men,

¹ Mr. and Mrs. Weller recently lectured in the southern cities described, and gratifying reports have been received of the interest following their visits.—Ed.

established by the council of Baptist churches and conducted by the Rev. and Mrs. James Buchanan. These workers were called from Brooklyn for the purpose and are advocating in Richmond some of the general principles of modern charitable endeavor. While the "tramp" and homeless man has been, as usual, the first to receive adequate charitable attention, the two missions are having a definite influence outside this one line of work for men. The older Methodist mission has organized girls' classes and some night-school work, while the first public playground of Richmond was developed last summer in its hospitable yard. As an outgrowth a school of domestic science has been established within the last two months by women of the Methodist church who have been fortunate in securing Miss Ann Guley of the Visiting Nurse Society and Settlement to inaugurate their neighborhood clubs for girls and their domestic training for these neighbors and for young women to be received in residence in their new, old house. An anti-tuberculosis campaign is also developing in the capital city of Virginia. There is a "Civic Improvement League" about two years old with a progressive young business man as secretary, a man who exemplifies the growing philanthropic spirit of the place by finding time outside his private business hours to teach night-school classes, distribute flower seeds for neglected backyards and help in the establishment of the city's first playground.

The organized relief work of Richmond has centered mainly in what is termed the "City Mission," a long established undertaking which has recently been somewhat reorganized and enlarged. It is known now as the Associated Charities. The work is done by women volunteers, to each of whom a certain district is assigned.

There is an office secretary who is paid only fifteen dollars a month (the visiting nurses receive but \$37.50) and it is already appreciated by some of those most interested that Richmond's chief need is for the adequately-paid trained service of a worker familiar with modern methods of charitable work in other cities and capable of serving as a leader and organizer for the rapidly growing philanthropic activities of the city.

But what I started to speak of mainly is the class of trained nurses who graduated from the "Old Dominion Hospital" of Richmond in 1900. They afford an inspiring example of what can be accomplished by one unselfish, public-spirited woman who draws about her a half dozen earnest followers whom she instructs in progressive methods and inspires with the gospel of personal service. The best things in modern Richmond seem to center in this woman who resigned her place at the head of the nurses' training school at the hospital and has refused a score of excellent positions since to serve for \$37.50 a month as a visiting nurse at the head of the corps of three nurses and the group of six who constitute the Nurses' Settlement. The development of trained nursing in Virginia has been largely due to this leader. Her pupil colleagues are manifesting such intelligent, resourceful, and devoted social spirit as makes one wonder what modern miracle has converted young women from conservative southern families into a band of servants of the neediest, whose consuming enthusiasm is for the development of Richmond's philanthropy and the up-building of her poorest people. One comes to understand this miracle when he traces some of the best charitable developments back to the modest head nurse whose one desire is to get the work done and done by some one else if possible.

II—RALEIGH

In Raleigh, North Carolina, there is need for such leadership as is supplied in Richmond by the group of trained nurses. An Associated Charities was organized eighteen months ago in North Carolina's capital, and its work is being developed by a "governing board" of influential men

and a "general committee" of women. Both groups manifest intelligent interest in the problems of the poor and a promising sense of responsibility for the development of wise charitable work. As yet, the association is merely a relief society which aims to suppress street begging, to decrease uninformed almsgiving at the house doors and to gather all the general relief work of the community into a center of co-operative, intelligent administration. Voluntary contributions, largely in the form of monthly pledges, brought the association an income of \$1,950 last year and \$3,000 is asked for the present twelve months. A local clergyman is paid to give three hours' service daily largely in office work. The city is divided into seven districts, each assigned to an unpaid woman volunteer who investigates applicants and administers relief.

A good beginning has thus been made. Rapid improvements are probable, and the local leaders already appreciate the need of securing information and suggestions from more experienced charity organizations in other cities. Such hints are now brought in by William B. Streeter of the North Carolina Children's Home Society residing at Greensboro, A. J. McKelway, assistant secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, with his residence at Charlotte, and Miss Daisy Denson, secretary of the State Board of Charities at Raleigh, who, through their publications, has studied the philanthropic methods of other communities. It is quite possible that the next step will be to enable the present superintendent to attend the summer school of philanthropy in New York city and to inspect the Associated Charities of several eastern communities.

A woman's club has recently been organized in Raleigh which also gives strong assurance of growing study and leadership in philanthropic lines. Its members are interested in the Associated Charities, the Board of State Charities, the proposed reform school and in practical plans for a women's workroom, which some of the leading members advocate.

One of Raleigh's advanced social measures, which I wished that my own city of Washington might copy, is the "dispensary." Twenty-four saloons were replaced about a year ago by this plain supply

depot, where liquor is sold in packages varying from a half pint to a quart. These cannot be opened upon the premises, but there are two special places nearby which provide a place where a bottle is opened and a glass provided for a service fee of two and a half cents. One of these two saloon-like resorts is said to do so little business that it changes hands continually and is closed a large part of the time.

Raleigh's public dispensary enjoys an enforced monopoly of all lawful retailing of liquor in the city, and in the whole, or a portion of four or five surrounding counties. Of course people still drink, although no incitement to do so can be found in this unattractive, cramped store-room, with its unconcerned clerks, its register of all purchasers, and its habitual refusal to sell more than one package at

a time to one customer. While there was much opposition at first, it is said that the dispensary is now regarded more favorably—a fact which may suggest that it is not so strenuously repressive as prohibitionists would naturally desire.

It certainly impresses an observer to have the retail liquor business of a community entirely intrusted to the management of its sworn enemies—the church leaders, temperance advocates and friends of prohibition. Obviously the system is a compromise and no one denies the continuance of many evils. The most frequent objection seemed to spring from the feeling that the state ought not to countenance the liquor traffic by engaging in the business and reaping large financial profits.

Pure Candy Counters

Lilian V. Robinson

Boston

Homer Folks, ex-commissioner of public charities in the city of New York, has recently made a striking statement in regard to disease and dependence. "Sickness," he says, "is always one of the leading causes, and is usually the leading cause of dependence.

"We must think not only of the number and care of those who actually become dependent, but must include as germane and closely related subjects, all those measures that look to the improvement of sanitary conditions, the protection of water and food supply, the improved housing of the people, the limitation of child labor, the control of inspectors, diseases, etc."

Since the health of the public depends so largely on a pure food supply, and since sickly children are not likely to become robust men and women, it would seem that the food supply of the child ought to be carefully watched. However wide the divergence of opinions of experts in regard to the injurious effects of chemical antiseptical and coloring matter, of the relative effects of "good" and "bad" whiskey, of glucose and sugar, competent observers, physicians, trained nurses and social workers of experience, regard with

no doubtful disapproval the candy-eating habit of the children in the poorer quarters of our cities. Much of the candy is sold in Boston in the basement shops of tenements, the counters below the level of the street and the uncovered candy exposed to the dust and foul air of the small dimly lighted shop-room.

Some of the candy, under chemical analysis, shows nothing more harmful than glucose, vegetable dyes and paraffin; in others ether is found, a cheap insoluble form of glucose and deleterious coloring matter. Often, however, the amount of harmful matter used in the candy eaten by a child at any one time is too small to appear under analysis, yet its continued use—and the children eat of the candy daily—produces injurious effects. Even with healthy children, the tendency of cheap candy is to disturb the stomach and diminish the appetite, as pure candy will not do if taken in the same quantity. The natural sequences of the use of such candies seems to be (1) disorders of the stomach; (2) reduced appetite; (3) refusal of food; (4) anæmia or general weakness; (5) the loss of power of resistance to disease.

Under these circumstances a "pure

candy counter" seemed to the United Workers of the South End, a lawful part of the pure food crusade, and the first "counter" was opened in the Hawthorne Club playground last summer. A small folding table was placed near a little bubble fountain on the shady side of the playground and the candy daintily arranged on the white lace paper which good confectioners use. For several weeks only Huyler's plain sweet chocolate and peanut balls were sold, and the children were told that as the candy was of a better quality than that bought in the district a smaller quantity would be given them for their money. The management at Huyler's readily agreed to supply their simple candies in large or small quantities at wholesale price. Ninety per cent, perhaps, of the candy they would not recommend for children. To the intelligent and helpful suggestions of their management the early success of the counter was largely due.

The candy was sold to the children without profit, and under this arrangement about two-thirds as large an amount could be given for a cent as in the shops of the districts. The daintiness of the little "counter" first drew the children, and soon a taste for clean attractive-looking candy seemed to take the place of that for cheap candy.

The Hawthorne Club Counter. With the closing of the playground and the opening of the Hawthorne Club in the autumn, a request came from the children for "another pure candy counter." The little table was then placed daily in one of the rooms of the clubhouse, the children having the right to buy from it as they went to and from their classes. Several new candies were added, nut chocolate (a nutritious mixture of nuts and chocolate); several kinds of taffy, and tiny sticks flavored with chocolate, cinnamon, lemon, etc.; lemon-sours; matches of sugar with the "brimstone" of chocolate; and little barley animals, letters, etc. It seemed best to give the children a variety before they tired of the first kinds—to consider that that which pleases the eyes and delights the fancy of the child (such as the candy matches and barley animals) is the thing which

wins his penny. Quantity is not by any means the deciding point.

Later it seemed well to make the counter serve for something more than a mere selling of candy and a child was made "salesgirl" and taught to serve her customers with patience and courtesy and to keep accounts of the sales as neatly as possible.

Now the cooking classes in the club are beginning to make "pure candy" to be sold at the counter, the children computing the cost of material and considering a fair sale price. The boys in their cooking class have made delicious "peanut-brittle" which they found could be sold at eight and one-half and nine cents a pound, if only the cost of material were considered, even with the material bought in small quantities. Such things as the children cook they usually eat or take home, but the boys seemed very willing to turn over the results of their lesson to the club counter.

The following account of the Lincoln House counter at Lincoln House is given by Mr. Adams, the resident director: "At the candy table established by Lincoln House for its young children, sales are made Thursday afternoons and Saturday mornings when the younger members of the house assemble for their weekly play-hours. As a preliminary the Mothers' Club was interested in the project by means of a talk and a demonstration of the materials which are used in making candy. The objects for this demonstration were samples of white and brown sugar, chocolate of known purity, and of a bottle of Breton coloring matter loaned by a confectioner. The process of making pure candies from these simple materials was then described. A small tube of glucose, ground gypsum, and paraffin in the form of a candle were the illustrations used to show the ingredients used in making candy of the cheapest sort, and the speaker was careful to explain that these materials were harmless if taken in moderate quantities—that glucose, indeed, is as wholesome as sugar, though less than one-half as sweet—and that the low cost of the adulterants makes the question of cheap candy one of the pocket-book and the palate as well as of the

stomach. The point was made that the purchaser of cheap candies was not getting the worth of the money expended. The mothers did not need to be urged not to eat paraffin and aniline dyes, of which a bottle of red ink served as an example, nor would many of them taste the glucose though they were urged to do so after the close of the informal talk. They were interested in the possibilities of home-made candy and the importance of limiting the amount of candy eaten as well as of other rich foods which were mentioned. A word was also said in condemnation of the common practice of giving small children strong tea thickened to a syrup with sugar.

"The Lincoln House candy table supplies pure sugar candies and chocolates to children at cost and a beginning has been made toward a more critical taste in sweets. Those who have observed the candy table have no doubt that children instinctively prefer the better grades of candy and that if allowed to choose, would of themselves settle to a large extent the evils of the cheap candy trade."

Some Pros and Cons. By no means is it thought by the originators of the pure candy counter that the scheme is flawless. Two objections occur at once to the thoughtful observer—both largely economic. By selling pure candy at cost, or nearly at cost, and cultivating a distaste for that commonly

sold in the shops of the district, we injure the small shopmen's trade; for there is no doubt that the spending money of the children of the poor is often larger in amount than that of the children of the rich. The mother who goes out to work by the day often trusts her child to buy his or her own noon meal, and the writer has known of as large a sum as twenty-five cents being put into a child's hands for that purpose. The taking of the children's trade from the small shops might therefore in time materially injure their proprietors. But it seemed to the United Workers that the health of the children was a more important point than the prosperity of the shopkeeper and this objection was set aside. A second criticism followed: The candy counter, it was suggested, is a grave menace to thrift. The pennies which the child might give to "stamp saving" go instead to the counter. This is perhaps the more serious objection of the two, but it may be lawfully argued that the children who wish to buy candy pass a dozen small shops daily, and that if the habit of the child is to buy, instead at the pure candy counter, it will soon be seen whether she buys a larger amount than is good for her, and just how large an amount she spends, as a record of each child's spendings is easily kept. Thus the club-worker has an excellent chance to remonstrate with the child and a better chance probably than she would otherwise have to guide her.

Employment Exchange

*Address all correspondence (enclosing postage) to
"Editor Employment Exchange Department"*

TRAINED LIBRARIAN wishes position in a settlement. Would be willing to devote part of her time to clerical work, etc.

YOUNG MAN who speaks French and German and who has held position of trust in institution desires non-institutional work.

WOMAN who has taken her doctor's degree in sociology and has taught the subject for several years would be interested in any position which would enable her to be of benefit to working women.

YOUNG COLLEGE WOMAN about to enter upon the study of law in New York city wishes employment during the summer and for evenings next winter.

YOUNG WOMAN who has had charge of a children's home is open to engagement as superintendent of a day nursery or in other position for which her training has fitted her.

YOUNG MAN of experience in Y. M. C. A. work wishes position as director of boys' clubs or other settlement work.

COLLEGE MAN of experience as teacher wishes to enter social or philanthropic work. Could act as superintendent of school or other institution.

TRAINED NURSE, experienced in visiting work, would do public school nursing, etc.

ATEACHER of Domestic Science wishes further engagements in settlement or club work.

ATAINED SETTLEMENT WORKER, experienced settlement resident, desires position as head-worker

AKINDERGARTNER with special training in music, desires settlement position as club leader or accompanist. Has taught violin, piano and dancing.

WANTED—A Jewish woman probati n officer to reside at a settlement. One with experience or knowledge in sociology.

WANTED—Correspondence with men and women trained to take responsible positions as investigators, inspectors, superintendents of schools, secretaries of organizations, etc.

CHARITIES

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The School Situation—“Where Are We At?”

The agitation last winter following the proposal to discontinue the vacation schools, recreation centers, night schools and popular lectures in Greater New York, is in a fair way to bear fruit. The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor provided the funds from 1894 to 1897, necessary to maintain the first vacation schools in the city. To meet this new situation it endeavored to obtain from the reports of the Board of Education accurate data which would show the cost per pupil and results from these outside activities, as they are called. But no such data was available.

The services of Frederick A. Cleveland, secretary of the National Committee on Uniform Accounting for the American Economic Association, and William R. Patterson, formerly registrar of the New York Tenement-house Department, were enlisted to review the reports of the board and these reviews are issued this week in pamphlet form by the association. They bring out how confused and unworkmanlike are the present methods.

The matter has been brought home administratively by a letter from R. Fulton Cutting, president of the association, to the Board of Education, which has been followed by the appointment of a committee of investigation by President Tift.

The situation has more than a local bearing. It is not only the New York Department of Education that has failed to adopt such obvious modern business methods in accounting as the grouping of expense items around units of results obtained. The pamphlet should be equally valuable to institutional managers, heads of city departments, members of state boards, trustees, etc., whose business it is to set forth the work carried on under their administration.

Permanent Problems Back of the Bread Lines.

The interest which has been aroused the past few weeks in New York city in the question of the unemployed and in the rapidly extending bread lines, despite the fact that employment bureaus and the like continue to give out statements that there are fewer applicants than a year ago, will be turned to good account if the public opinion thus aroused can be fastened upon certain permanent elements in the situation. One of these factors lies in the conditions under which the floating population of New York is housed. If these conditions are such as to decrease personal cleanliness and with it self-respect; if they make for disease among just those persons in the community who need every ounce of resource, physical and moral, to make a fresh start; if they tend to drag down the young men who drift into New York without trade or training, attracted by the very bigness of the city, or the older men who come here as their last chance after failing in their home towns—if they drag these down to the level of the mission rounders and the pan-handlers who make New York their winter quarters, then there is need for vigorous direct action that will remedy such conditions, that will outflank the bread lines.

The investigation made by Mr. Kennaday, secretary of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society, of the hundred lodging-houses in New York, and the other hostleries which should fall within the same category, points definitely toward the necessity for architectural standards of ventilation and decency, and for inspection and enforcement comparable within this limited field to that afforded in the tenement house districts by the tenement-house law and the tenement-house and health departments.

*New Municipal
Lodging-house
in New York.*

The need for a new Municipal Lodging-house in New York has been felt for some time, the present quarters being inadequate, both as to capacity and adaptation to the needs of such an institution. There are actual sleeping quarters for 299 applicants in the present building, and during the severe weather, when there has been unusual demand for care by homeless people, the overflow has been given shelter in rooms on the Twenty-sixth street dock of the Department of Charities. The present quarters are in many ways unfit for such an institution, the building being an old remodelled tenement-house.

The Municipal Lodging-house has, however, served such an admirable purpose in the community in making it possible to do away with the old method of lodging homeless people in police station houses, that it is gratifying to learn of definite progress made in the direction of new and more suitable quarters.

Superintendent William C. Yorke has recently made known in outline the plans that are at present under consideration. A lot 100 feet by 100 feet has been purchased on the south side of Twenty-fifth street, 400 feet east of First avenue, at a cost of \$41,500. The building will be of fireproof construction throughout, and five or six stories high. The lot will not be wholly covered by the building, open space being left on all sides. The general arrangement of the present building will be followed, the basement containing the heating and lighting plant, shower-baths, the laundry, storerooms, a storage vault for 100 tons of coal, lockers for the house help, and the fumigating plant. It is hoped to install a new method of fumigation, using formaldehyde-gas instead of hot air with an infusion of steam as in use now. It is almost impossible to fumigate clothing by the present process without leaving it a mass of wrinkles. The stamp of the institution is unmistakable on many of the men's clothes as they walk the streets next day. Formaldehyde-gas has its drawbacks however, for it leaves a very disagreeable odor in the clothes. Experiments are being made to overcome this difficulty, which, if successful, will insure its installation. It

will then be possible to fumigate hats and shoes which at present have to be left out, since the intense heat (about 250 degrees Fahrenheit) destroys them.

The first floor will contain the main office, dining-room, kitchen and linen room. In addition there will be a line of hand basins in a hall near the entrance to the dining-room, this hallway being used in the morning to segregate state cases which are to be sent to the Bureau of Dependent Adults. The doctor's room will be set apart on this floor, and used in the morning to separate court cases from the rest when the men are examined for dismissal.

The upper floors will be used as dormitories with single beds, the "double-decker" type being entirely done away with. There will be sleeping capacity for about 600 and the women's dormitory will accommodate at least fifty with three or four separate rooms for women having small children.

Several isolation rooms for any who may be taken ill will be provided for both men and women. Elevators connecting the baths with the dormitories are also contemplated. As far as possible, the inside walls will be of enameled brick in order that all necessary disinfecting may be the more thorough.

According to present plans the estimated cost of construction will be between \$150,000 and \$175,000, of which there is on hand from an appropriation already made by the city, only \$73,000. It is hoped to secure the guarantee of the balance soon, however, in order that the work may be pushed in the spring.

*Wanted
a Subway.*

Borough President Littleton's plan for destroying the three good thoroughfares of the lower East Side of New York city by erecting elevated railroad structures upon them is still pending. It has not been rejected by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

Meanwhile Commissioner Best of the Department of Bridges has come forward with an alternative plan calculated to ruin Delancey street throughout its entire length.

The only excuse offered for the proposals to destroy this thoroughfare is the

obvious need of access for the residents of Brooklyn to the business district of Manhattan. It is also imperatively necessary for the working people of Manhattan in large number to be able to move to Brooklyn, coming and going to their work in Manhattan. The past delay of the city officials in arranging subway facilities for these purposes constitutes, however, no excuse for their now proceeding to waste the noblest opportunity open to them for establishing for all time a thoroughfare comparable to the finest of Paris.

Delancey street is cut through the most crowded district in the civilized world. On both sides stand blocks of tenements, the like of which disgrace no other city in this, or any other country. Several millions of dollars have been paid to property owners for the space (from the Bowery to the Williamsburgh Bridge) which is now clear and awaiting development. To meet this opportunity the Municipal Art Commission has submitted a plan for a subway beneath and a parkway above, which would afford air, light, space and rapid transit, the four cardinal needs of the regions traversed. Further, Charles B. Stover, on behalf of the East Side Civic Club, has secured the introduction into the legislature of a bill prohibiting for all time the erection of any elevated structure upon Delancey street.

The fate of Delancey street is a matter of national importance. If these plans of the borough president of Brooklyn and the commissioner of bridges of Greater New York are received by the people with the rejection and the opprobrium which are their due, the metropolis of the Republic may now set the example for the rest of the country which Paris set two generations ago for the rest of Europe by establishing a monumental thoroughfare of great beauty and dignity through the very quarter which has been for many years a shame and a disgrace wherever the tenements of New York are known.

Family Desertion Bill, New York. A family desertion bill in the form of an amendment to the Penal Code in relation to the abandoned children, has been introduced into both branches of the New York legislature. It is a moderate

measure and omits several excellent provisions which have been incorporated into the legislation of other states on this subject. The legislature should be urged to give favorable consideration to the bill, as it represents the conclusions reached by a conference of charitable societies and others interested in this subject. If, however, it can be amended in such a way as to provide for the desertion of the wife who is left by her husband in destitute circumstances it would in our opinion, be improved.

Within the past few months no little progress has been made in the movement to reform New York's employment agencies. With the organization of the ten best East Side agencies into the Employment Agencies' Protective Association two weeks ago, another step in the series necessary to fairly begin the fight was begun. With the law, a department to enforce it, a model agency and home around which the few honest men could rally and a strong organization back of these, the task of cleaning out the "system" which traffics in green, helpless women has been begun. Four criminal assaults committed in an agency run by Hussar and his employes with the result of three illegitimate children, have put these men out of business and two have fled the city. The second in the group was reached when Ritter's agency license was revoked for repeatedly violating the living room provisions—a chief element in the success of these nefarious agencies; the third, when Baumgartner's license was revoked because he employed a man convicted of sending women to disreputable houses when he owned his own agency. There have been on trial or scheduled no less than thirty violations of the clause which prohibits agencies in living rooms and four licenses have been revoked on this ground. Other violations, as of registries, references, failure to give receipts, etc., and agencies conducted in saloons are among those scheduled for a hearing. Running agencies without a license and gambling in saloon agencies are among the complaints this week. Perhaps the most signal success was the revocation of George Harbo-ray's license which was accomplished by

Laying Hold of Evil Employment Agencies.

Commissioner Keating. This man was the one who so readily offered women for disorderly houses during the investigation before the law was passed. Harboray had money, political pull, and a patronage of from one to three hundred immigrant girls each day. His facilities for vice were thus unlimited. In putting him out of business on the proved charge of sending women to disorderly places the commissioner has reached the very heart of the twenty-five or fifty East Side agencies which form the ring and has brought terror to the weaker disreputable agents. The East Side Association and the New York Association for Household Research have some six investigators at work and these together with the aid being given by the investigators employed by Jacob H. Schiff and others in their crusade against East Side cadets, and the inspectors from the Department of Licenses have formed an alliance from which much may be expected in putting the business of furnishing employment to helpless and penniless immigrant men and women in responsible hands. It is to be hoped that they will crush out the twenty-five or more agencies which form the system which is the backbone of the cadet system, and which are so closely in touch with the boarding-houses—some only a cover for immorality.

State Boards and Commissions.

California. The first biennial report of the California State Board of Charities and Corrections, covering the period from July 1, 1903, to June 30, 1904, has been received. This report gives an excellent account of the work performed by this new state board during the first year of its existence, and a comprehensive view of the condition and needs of the public institutions of charity and correction in California. It also gives in full the more important laws with relation to such institutions together with many useful statistics respecting their work. The total maintenance cost of the state institutions under the supervision of the board for the year ending June 30, 1904, was \$1,513,483.51, of

which \$653,552.97 was expended for salaries.

The county hospitals in California are to almost all intents and purposes, the almshouses of that state. These vary from finely equipped buildings to hovels. In the main, however, they are said to serve well their function and to compare favorably with similar institutions in other states.

Much space in the report is given to the Whittier state school and Preston school of industry, and the following is quoted from the reports of the first named institution: "While it is the endeavor of the state to make this school thoroughly practical and first class on the lines which it has adopted, yet parents should not forget that there are many bad features to which a child in this school must be subjected. The principal objection is that of being thrown with children and youths who are seriously criminal. The administration does all it can to separate the different classes of children and to prevent this intermixture of the comparatively good with the dangerously bad, but it is impossible to do this completely, and parents and friends and judges should always remember these adverse conditions."

The following recommendations for legislative action are made by the board: "Increasing the capacity of the state prison at Folsom; restricting the use of the strait-jacket as a means of punishment; amending the law providing for the sale of grain bags; providing for the construction of the hospital for the criminal insane by convict labor; providing for the classification of pupils in the reform schools; directing that all commitment to the reform schools shall be for the period of minority; permitting the commitment of girls to the Whittier state school until they reach the age of twenty-one years; providing for the deportation of non-resident and alien insane; directing that insane patients be taken to state hospitals by hospital attendants."

New Hampshire. CHARITIES is in receipt of a letter from Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter, chairman of the State Board of Charities and Correction of New Hampshire, with relation to the sugges-

tion contained in the issue of January 21, as to the recommendation of the New Hampshire board that a separate building for girls be erected at the State Industrial School. The opinion was expressed that this is of doubtful policy and that a separate institution for girls, such as exists in other New England states, is desirable. Mrs. Streeter says, "Your remarks about the separate building for girls at the State Industrial School are perfectly just and correct. We have received several letters from various quarters of the country giving the same criticism."

Mrs. Streeter explains that the state board believes that one of the greatest needs of the state is an entirely separate industrial school for girls, but that it is impossible to hope for it at present. The board thereupon decided to ask for what it considered the next best thing, namely, a separate building for girls at the present school. Bills were already before the legislature calling for large appropriations, including \$200,000 for the state hospital for the insane, \$66,000 for the state school for the feeble-minded, \$20,000 for the soldiers' home, \$50,000 for a state sanatorium for consumptives, \$50,000 for a state workhouse, and these with other passing needs, made it impracticable to ask for a separate industrial school for girls at this time.

The position of the state board on this subject is gratifying and no doubt, as Mrs. Streeter predicts, New Hampshire will sooner or later be in line with other states in New England and elsewhere and have its own separate school.

New Jersey. The press of New Jersey is not in agreement as to the recommendation of the governor that the office of commissioner of charities and correction be created, such official to command the services of a state architect and a state sanitary engineer. The *Newark News* of January 31, fears that the experience of New York, where delays in construction work for state institutions have been unfavorably reported upon by the State Board of Charities, might be repeated if the state architect suggested by the governor as a part of the plan, were appointed. This would, however, prob-

ably depend largely upon the ability of the architect chosen and whether or not he attended to state work rather than to private business. It would also depend largely upon the means given to him to carry on his work, for it must be remembered that even good architects need sufficient help to do their work promptly.

Nebraska. Of ninety counties in Nebraska, according to a recent report of the State Board of Charities and Correction, thirty-eight have jails without a single prisoner, and forty-three of the jails have an average of but three inmates apiece. A total of 2,632 people are receiving public aid in or out of the almshouses. These institutions give shelter to 743 of this number. The per capita cost ranges from \$1.02 to \$4 per week. The board, it is reported, believes that intemperance is the chief cause of dependence in Nebraska.

Ohio. The twenty-eighth annual report of the Board of State Charities for the year ending November 15, 1903, is received, bearing date of December 31, 1904. This report, as usual, contains much valuable information with relation to the state and other public institutions of Ohio.

The *Ohio Bulletin of Charities and Correction* for the quarter ending September 30, 1904, published by the board contains, among other items, detailed reports of townships and municipal aid for the year ending June 30, 1904, which are full and interesting. As somewhat similar reports are now published by three states, New York, Ohio and Indiana, a useful comparative report of their statistics would seem desirable.

Indiana. The *Indiana Bulletin of Charities and Correction* for the year ending October 31, 1904, published by the Indiana Board of State Charities, contains an excellent article on county jails and their administration, together with plans of new jails in St. Joseph and Jay counties.

Iowa. The *Bulletin of Iowa State Institutions* for October 31, 1904, published by the Iowa board of control, contains a number of valuable papers on tuberculosis in the institutions of that state.

Washington, D. C. The report of the Board of Charities for the District of Columbia, for 1904, has been issued by the government printing-office. This is an interesting contribution to the history of charity work in the district and like some of the reports mentioned above, deserves more space than can be given to it in CHARITIES. The board recommends unification in the management of the district institutions, the discontinuance of lump sum payments to private institutions, and in some cases of all public appropriations. During the past year the board has paid special attention to the subject of fire protection at the institutions, many of which have already taken steps to comply with the resulting suggestions.

In the Field of Organizing Charity.

*Extensive Work
of Organized
Charity
in Indianapolis.*

The Charity Organization Society of Indianapolis has been an extremely useful organization, not only in the city where it works, but throughout Indiana and the Middle West. More than many others, it has realized the necessity of trained workers and the responsibility which is laid upon the officers of thoroughly organized and successful societies to help the general cause in places where organization does not exist.

In carrying out this excellent missionary work, Mr. Grout, the secretary, has made it a matter of the society's business to take into his offices a succession of well educated, capable young people, and give them training that would prepare them for work in other places. The societies of Muncie, Anderson, Evansville and other cities in Indiana began with secretaries who had their preliminary training in Indianapolis, and several of the best agents of the Chicago bureau began there.

Carrying out this plan further, and in the hope of securing the attention and interest of many volunteer workers, the Indianapolis society is conducting a series of practical lectures on various phases of charity, which are given on Thursday afternoons during the winter. The lectures have been well attended with encouraging results.

It has long been a matter of wonder that more of the strong and prosperous

charity organization societies have not felt the urgency of helping the cause in other places than their own city. The schools of philanthropy which have so much of promise at the present moment, have come but tardily to fill the urgent need. It is gratifying to recognize the work of the Indianapolis society in the line of philanthropic education, and to remember that its founder, Oscar Carlton McCulloch, organized one of the early series of lectures on scientific charity, in connection with Plymouth Institute, fifteen years ago.

To those who sympathize with the aim of charity organization and those who would know what it means, this "creed" of Miss A. M. Humphrey, recently published in an "occasional paper" of the London Charity Organisation Society, is commended and the creed is defined as follows:

- (a) Charitable help should be the work of the head as well as of the heart.
- (b) It should aim at the prevention even more than at the relief of distress. It should be adequate for the present need, and, if possible, should prevent the necessity for charitable help in the future.
- (c) There should be neither waste, bribery, nor favoritism in charity.
- (d) It should not be undertaken without careful inquiry and consideration both of what is to be aimed at and how the aim is to be reached.
- (e) It should endeavor to call forth all that is good and strong in the person it helps, and more especially such qualities as thrift, foresight, temperance, industry, and family affection, for charitable help does more harm than good if it weakens instead of strengthening the character of those who receive it.
- (f) There can be no real charity without personal service. In order that this personal service may be something worth giving and worth receiving, the Charity Organisation Society believes strongly in the power of education, and its members are very glad to help anyone who cares to have the benefit of their experience in charitable work.

*Common Sense
in Philanthropy.*

In an address before the Women's Club of Roland Park, Baltimore, which is engaged in a very useful educational work, Dr. J. H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins University spoke recently on the theme of common sense in philanthropy, and called it the expression of utilization of

scientific truth. He made clear beyond reasonable doubt that there could be no clash between common sense and science.

"There is nowadays a change in the attitude of men toward benevolence," said Dr. Hollander, "which redounds greatly to our advantage. We now refuse to give charity without knowing where it is going. The purely emotional side is abandoned by charity givers and we have grown more scientific. This does not mean that we neglect the positive cases of distress which we see around us, but we now go back first to the cause of the distress and attempt to relieve it by 'common sense' or 'scientific' method instead of the traditional emotional and unscientific method."

Science and common sense are one; science is sometimes thought to be vested with hard-heartedness, but it is certainly true also that a soft head is never the antidote for a hard heart.

*Two Applications
of the Doctrine:
Peoria and
South Bend.*

On October 1, 1904, the Associated Charities of Peoria, Ill., became the investigating medium for county aid. Its experiences during the past few months tallies with that of other cities where this plan has been tried. Of thirty-five families considered by the case committee at its first regular meeting, nineteen were either able to provide for their own serious needs or should not be aided at all, eight were considered favorably, while the rest were granted aid pending further inquiry.

In South Bend, Ind., the tax levy for the relief of the poor in 1898 was fifteen cents on each \$100 valuation and \$13,102.60 was expended in that year for outdoor relief. Last year the rate was two cents and but \$1,494.21 was expended, while this year no levy is required as the two-cent rate was ample for a two-years' period.

These comparisons would be invidious if they implied that the poor and unfortunate were left unhoused, unfed, uncared for. On the contrary, business men, ministers and public vie with each other in declaring that South Bend's poor are better cared for than ever before and largely through the intelligent service of the Associated Charities.

*Half a Century
of Charity.*

The St. Vincent de Paul Society of Brooklyn, celebrated its fiftieth anniversary on January 8 with a pontifical mass in the Pro-Cathedral, and a concert and lecture in the evening at the Montauk Theatre. It was especially fitting that Archbishop Glennon of St. Louis should be the preacher of the day, as it was at St. Louis in 1845 that the St. Vincent de Paul Society was first introduced in the United States. Archbishop Glennon drew the picture of Christ before Pilate and said, "These two systems stand today facing each other—truth and untruth, charity and selfishness, for Christ represented not alone the teaching of truth, but also the operation of charity. Whereas Pilate knew not truth and cared only for self. Through the ages these two systems have fought—one ever changing, because error ever changes, and self uses oftentimes a cloak to conceal its intrinsic meanness; the other changeless, because truth is changeless, and charity fears not to live where the light is, and though condemned by the world, still will be fostered by the spirit of Christ." At the evening meeting Mayor George B. McClellan was one of the speakers, and pointed out that in a consideration of municipal problems, it is of the most vital importance to determine where the charitable work of the city shall stop and where that of the individual shall begin. "On behalf of the people of New York," he said, "regardless of nationality or creed, I offer thanks for the work you have accomplished, for the work you are accomplishing, and with the grace of God, for the work you will accomplish in the future." The late Bishop Loughlin had just taken up the labors of his episcopate in the new diocese of Brooklyn when a St. Vincent de Paul conference was established in New York city. In 1854 he formed the first conference in Brooklyn—that of St. James' parish. Since then the progress of this lay work of charity has developed consistently. For thirty-two years Thomas W. Hynes has been president of the Brooklyn Society, a record said to be unprecedented in the annals of the St. Vincent de Paul Society anywhere in the world.

*Organized
Charity in the
Exposition City.*

The organization of charity in St. Louis is becoming a fact rather than a theory. During the past few years the St. Louis Provident Association has been winning the co-operation of the reputable charities of the city. The most pleasant relations exist between it and the St. Vincent de Paul Society, the United Hebrew Charities, Children's Home-placing Society, and various hospitals, orphans' homes and settlements. This co-operation has found its best expression in a series of conferences which have been conducted in the assembly room of the Provident Association during the last four years with an average attendance of about fifty at each meeting, representing nearly every public and private charity of St. Louis.

Out of these meetings has grown the organization of a special committee for the sterilization and modification of milk. This committee has opened one of the best equipped laboratories in the West which was in active operation during last summer and is preparing for more extensive work the coming year.

Another important work promoted by the Provident Association is that of the St. Louis Tuberculosis Commission, which has been greatly encouraged recently by the offer of a tract of land situated on the Iron Mountain Railroad near Montesane Springs, Mo., to be used for a tuberculosis colony. Upon it, without cost to the commission the Provident Association will erect a model pavilion to be used as a hospital and administration building, as well as other pavilions of from one to six rooms for such patients as may wish to purchase them, the ground for the cottages being given free. It also proposes to locate on ground furnished by patients pavilions which may be purchased by them in installments as they may be able.

Meanwhile the state of Missouri is asked to make provision for its tuberculous poor by erecting a state sanitarium for consumptives, for which an appropriation of \$100,000 is asked. A bill is also pending before the city council of St. Louis to provide for the reporting of cases of tuberculosis by physicians and for in-

spection of all such cases by the sanitary department of the city.

The expectation of St. Louis charitable societies that destitution would be much greater in that city following the period of the World's Fair, has not been realized. On the contrary during the two and one-half months of winter the applications to the St. Louis Provident Association have decreased twenty-two per cent. The amount of direct relief given by the association is growing less year by year, while the amount of money expended for indirect relief in the management of laundries, sewing rooms, day nurseries, kindergartens, cooking schools, industrial schools for children, and other educational efforts, is increasing. Less direct material relief is being given, but more money is expended than ever before.

*A Year's Work
of the Springfield,
Ill., Associated
Charities.*

While the seventh annual report of the Springfield (Ill.) Associated Charities gives evidence of fewer calls for aid from its resident poor and speaks of greater prosperity and more regular employment for its citizens, it is a noteworthy fact that the sojourners whose goal was the World's Fair at St. Louis, have tested the generosity of this community as of many others on the highways of direct travel and have swelled the demands for charitable relief materially. This group included unfortunates, blind, crippled and stranded of many communities and of many lands. Never before has the value of inter-society service been so largely tested and its value been so fully recognized.

But Springfield has not been devoting itself mainly to the transients. The widow, deserted wife, the sick in their homes have been aided systematically or brought back to self-support. With all, the society has not forgotten that "the best way of doing good to the poor is not by making them easy in poverty, but by leading or driving them out of it."

The Defective.

*Classes for
Atypical Children,
Cleveland.*

Three classes of about fifteen pupils each have been established in the Cleveland public schools for children of the atypical type—using Dr.

Groszmann's application of the term—and one class for more pronounced mental defectives. The first three classes are in charge of skilled primary teachers and the last in charge of an expert from one of the state institutions. The children of the four classes were selected as follows: In each of the districts chosen for the work, the principal of the school made a list of those apparently defective. These were examined by the supervisor of physical culture in conjunction with a physician who is a specialist, and about fifteen were chosen as members in the school. The first step in special instruction was taken last year when in twenty-two of the school buildings, classes for backward children were organized. These classes consist of children who are simply behind their classes for one cause or another, in one or more studies. In most cases the special teacher taught, in turn, classes in arithmetic, reading, language or grammar, for the children were gathered in each case from all the grades in the school.

If the experience of certain of the Eastern cities in attempting to care in the public schools for really mentally defective children repeats itself, it is not probable that the class for the more pronounced cases will be continued for any length of time in Cleveland. Institutional treatment would seem to provide the only adequate means for meeting the needs of children of this class. More can be expected from the classes for atypical children. Those who have been identified with institutions for the defective would hold that here, too, it is a mistake to attempt permanently to do anything without molding environment and the whole life of the child more than is possible in the classroom. But it is hardly possible that for some years to come institutional provision will reach all children of this class and in the meantime practical experiments will have been carried out by progressive cities such as Cleveland.

The most significant fact of the present movement in that city is that definite steps have been taken to sift through the mixed population of the public schools from a psychical and physiological standpoint and this movement is bound to be a fruitful one.

*State Care for
Baltimore's
Insane.*

The erection of two new cottages of the Springfield Asylum for the Insane, Baltimore, holding about one hundred patients marks an important step towards state care. As soon as they are finished, patients will be removed from the City Hospital at Bay View and from the county asylums as far as they can be provided for in these new cottages. The process of increasing the accommodations at Springfield has been going on for some years and by this means about forty patients a year have been transferred to it from Bay View.

*Hospitals for
Inebriates,
New York.*

An excellent idea is incorporated in the bill of Mr. McManus, now before the New York assembly committee on affairs of cities, providing for the treatment of inebriates in a distinct hospital building under the care of "competent physicians and surgeons, skilled in the treatment of the disease brought on by the inordinate use of alcoholic stimulants and other stimulating drugs." It is unfortunately true that both the state and the city of New York have established institutions for the care of inebriates, and have subsequently—whether upon valid grounds or not—discontinued them. The general plan is, however, sound and sensible. The method of short commitments to the workhouse for intoxicated persons is both expensive and useless. Whether the bill now before the legislature is in all its details carefully considered, we are not yet in position to say, but if not those who are interested in the subject should lose no time in suggesting necessary changes and in supporting either the present or an amended bill.

*Increased Interest
in the Care of
Defectives.*

It is gratifying to see the general attention being paid to the care of epileptics and the feeble-minded. It is especially interesting to notice that more and more the theory of permanent state care of all those who may be properly classed as degenerates, is being recognized and although the humane side of the work is by no means ignored, its intense economic importance is being increasingly recognized. In the messages of the new governors, re-

viewed in the February magazine number of CHARITIES, five of the twenty-one recommended greater accommodation for the feeble-minded, one of them (New York) declaring that this was the most urgent need of any of the state's institutions.

The report of a joint committee of the Maine legislature, appointed in 1903, to inquire into the advisability of establishing a home for the feeble-minded, has been received and it is unanimous as to the need, the only difference of opinion being as to the amount of appropriation necessary to begin with. This effort in Maine was begun by the Woman's Council and the agitation has been kept up consistently.

One factor in maintaining interest in the cause of the defective is the *Journal of Psycho-Asthenics*, a quarterly published at the state institution at Fari-bault, Minn., and printed by feeble-minded boys upon the press of the institution. The journal is really the annual proceedings of the Association of Officers of Schools for Feeble-minded, published as a quarterly, so as to secure a wider circulation and possibly more attention, since a smaller amount of matter is given at once than if the proceedings were published in one volume. The September number includes a scientific study of nine selected cases by a professor of Clark University, in which the statistical method is used with considerable advantage, and a memorial for Dr. Powell, lately, for twenty-five years, superintendent of the Iowa school. There is a very interesting article and discussion of practical textile work for feeble-minded children in which the possibility of utilizing their labor in manufacturing many articles on hand looms, is brought out; together with a number of minor articles on epilepsy, feeble-mindedness, etc.

The *American Journal of Insanity* for October has an interesting article on the mental condition in cretinism, by Dr. Mayer, of Pittsburg, which includes a long list of cases. Dr. Mayer makes the distinction clear between Cretinism and Mongolian idiocy, which are very often confused. While the thyroid treatment is effective for the former, it has no particular effect on the latter condition.

To Re-establish
Local Hospital
Boards in
New York.

Bills have been introduced in the New York assembly and "senate to amend the insanity law, relating to the management of state hospitals, abolishing boards of visitation, and creating boards of managers therefor, and defining the powers and duties of the boards of managers and of the State Commission in Lunacy." The bill was prepared by the State Charities Aid Association after consultation with the governor, the State Commission in Lunacy, and leading members of the senate and assembly. While it cannot be said to have the unqualified approval of all those who have been consulted, many of their suggestions have been adopted, and there seems reason to believe that the bill will receive favorable consideration. There can be little doubt that it will be so received by medical and charitable societies, the press, and the people in all parts of the state who so actively and with one accord opposed the changes which were made in the system of managing the state hospitals three years ago.

The proposed amendments which are in line with the suggestions in the message of Governor Higgins to the legislature, leave intact the present centralized control of the finances of the state hospitals. The State Commission in Lunacy will still have absolute control over every expenditure of each state hospital. Nothing can be purchased until an estimate, covering the amount to be purchased, the quality of the articles and the price to be paid therefor, has been approved by the commission. The commission will continue to determine what articles are to be purchased for the hospitals jointly, by joint contract, and will still have the control of plans and specifications for building operations, subject, as at present, to the approval of the governor. Copies of plans and specifications of proposed buildings must, however, be sent to the board of managers of the hospital affected, and such board afforded an opportunity to express its views thereon.

The bill proposes to establish a board of managers for each hospital in place of the present board of visitation, and to confer upon these boards certain powers

in relation to the internal administration. The important powers conferred are as follows:

1. To establish by-laws, rules and regulations concerning the discipline and internal administration of the hospital, subject to the approval of the commission. It is provided that the present by-laws established by the commission shall remain in force unless and until so modified.

2. To appoint the superintendent, subject to the civil service law and rules, and subject to the approval of the Commission in Lunacy. Under the civil service rules this appointment is limited to an eligible list of three. As the board of managers is to be held responsible for the discipline and management of the hospital, it is felt that it should take the initiative in the selection of a superintendent from the eligible list, but in order to prevent local considerations or acquaintance from having undue weight it is provided that the selection shall be subject to the approval of the central authority.

3. To dismiss the superintendent for cause stated in writing and after a hearing. Although the power of dismissal is seldom, if ever, exercised, it is the only effective means of enforcing the views and policies of the managers. It is provided, however, that the Commission in Lunacy may present charges against any superintendent to the board of managers, and that the board shall be represented at the hearing of such charges.

4. Whenever a vacancy exists in the office of the superintendent the board of managers may, instead of making a new appointment, transfer a superintendent from some other hospital, under the civil service rules and subject to the approval of the commission.

5. The board is required to investigate charges or complaints made against the superintendent or any other officer or employé of the hospital. It is intended to secure prompt and effective investigation of all complaints from whatever source concerning any feature of hospital management.

6. Under the law under which the board formerly existed, they were required to meet but once a quarter, and to inspect the hospital but once a quarter, though many of them did so much more

frequently. Under this bill they are required to inspect the entire hospital once a month, and to submit a copy of their report thereof to the commission and to the governor. Any manager who is absent from meetings of the board for a period of six months, unless excused by the governor, vacates his office, and any manager who is absent for a year, with or without excuse, vacates his office. Each board is required to notify the governor forthwith of any vacancies so created.

The Scope of the Measure. It will be seen that the general plan of the amendments is to confer absolute authority upon the commission in regard to all financial matters, and to confer authority upon the board of managers in regard to internal discipline and management, and to require each of these authorities to afford the other a chance to express its opinion upon any important matter before final action is taken.

The bill would leave the state hospitals for the insane under a system analogous to that of the state charitable institutions.

A number of other minor changes in the insanity law are included. The per capita cost allowed for new buildings is increased from \$450 to \$550. The increased cost of labor and of building materials has made it impossible to secure satisfactory buildings under the former limit as to per capita cost. The Commission in Lunacy is required to meet with the managers of each hospital at least once a year, and to inspect the institution with them. The branch of the Long Island State Hospital, at Kings Park, and of the Manhattan State Hospital, at Central Islip, are made separate and independent hospitals.

At the close of each year a statement of the number of visits made by each manager to his hospital, and of the number of meetings attended by him, is to be sent to the governor. The superintendent of each hospital is to be *ex officio* secretary of its board of managers. Members of the boards of managers and of the State Commission in Lunacy are forbidden to recommend or request the appointment by any superintendent of any person as an officer or employé of any hospital. Each superintendent of a state hospital

is required to hold frequent meetings of the medical staff for consideration of medical questions and the treatment of recent patients. A conference of all the state hospital superintendents with the Commission in Lunacy is to be held at Albany at least once each quarter. Each board of managers may, in its discretion, send a member to such meetings.

The bill also includes features intended to carry into effect the suggestion of the governor that persons suffering from mental impairment not amounting to insanity, on account of old age, shall not be admitted to state hospitals, by including dotards, not insane, among the classes of persons who may be discharged from state hospitals.

The bill is certainly very moderate in its provisions. It safeguards the welfare of the insane and will give this large and growing class of public wards the advantage of the interest and the devoted services of nearly a hundred public-spirited, philanthropic, and intelligent men and women.

Care of Epileptics in Indiana. The last general assembly of Indiana appointed two commissions to report at the present session, one upon the subject of prisons and the other upon care of epileptics. The latter commission recommends a village on the cottage plan for which an appropriation of \$150,000 to begin with shall be made; proposes that the institution shall receive all classes of epileptics, including feeble-minded and insane, and shall use what buildings may be on the land when bought, as far as they will be available, so as to relieve some of the existing institutions at once. The commission evidently expects to take from the hospitals for the insane and school for feeble-minded, a number of their better grade of epileptic inmates who may be available for labor in the opening up of the new institution. The report was read both in the senate and the house and immediate action was favorable. Some of the strongest men of the legislature are in its favor.

The commission visited institutions in New York, Massachusetts and other states. They were evidently influenced in their recommendations by the fact that Craig

Colony began with a \$140,000 appropriation and found in the old Shaker village many buildings which were available for use for patients.

The report the commission makes on their visits is thoroughly interesting, and the probability seems strong that the state will take the advanced step recommended.

The Delinquent.

Prison Commission in Indiana.

The other commission appointed by the Indiana legislature in 1903 consisted of the warden of the state prison, the superintendent of the state reformatory, the secretary of the Board of State Charities and three citizens. They went about their task with considerable thoroughness, spending a good deal of time during the two years studying conditions of jails, workhouses, women prisoners, and the general question of prison labor. The report is a valuable document and will undoubtedly be followed by some new legislation. Radical changes in the law governing the jails are recommended, as follows:

1. That the jail should be a place for detention of prisoners awaiting trial, only.
2. That all prisoners convicted shall be sent to a district workhouse which shall be controlled by the state.
3. That all female prisoners shall be sent to the women's prison at Indianapolis, which will have plenty of room for them because the girls who have formerly been in one wing, which was used as a reform school, will be moved as soon as the new Girl's Industrial School shall be ready for occupation.
4. That the county jails shall be thoroughly supervised by the Board of State Charities, and that when they find a jail unfit for the confinement of prisoners the board shall notify the judge of the circuit court of its condition and needs, and he shall have the power to require the county authorities to remedy the same. That if this is not done within a reasonable time the Board of State Charities shall report to the governor and recommend that such jail shall no longer be used for its purpose. The governor may then notify all judges of the courts of

such county, etc., that the jail is condemned, and it shall not be thereafter used until it is put in condition to be approved by the Board of State Charities and the governor. The commission also recommend that the circuit court or criminal court, with the Board of State Charities, regulate the administration of the jail in their respective counties, providing for the separation of the different classes of prisoners, etc.

The recommendations that are made with regard to county jails, if carried out, will certainly reform those institutions in a very remarkable degree. Further, the commission recommends that non-hardened criminals may be paroled, in which case the suspension of the sentence shall be certified to the superintendent of the reformatory or of the state prison to which he would otherwise be sent, and that thereafter such prisoner shall come under and be subject to the provisions of the parole law as a paroled prisoner from the institution to which his sentence would have required him to be sent. If the charge against the prisoner is a misdemeanor only, the court shall have power to suspend sentence and parole him under such regulations as it shall provide in its judgment.

Prison Labor.

With regard to prison labor, the report lays stress upon the fact that some employment is necessary, that such employment must of necessity affect in some degree the laboring classes, and that any method should be such as to be adaptable to the humane principles and reformatory methods already adopted and put in practice by the state in its institutions. It is recommended that the employment must be upon lines which will be as little competitive as possible with free labor, the well-known objections to the contract plan, the road work plan and others, are stated, and a final conclusion is to the effect that the best method is to employ convicts upon state account in the production of articles to be sold to the state or used by the state in its various institutions, or by the political divisions thereof. The commission recommends that the contract system be abolished with the expiration of the present contracts, and

that it be obligatory upon the various political divisions of the state to purchase supplies at a reasonable price from the prison. The commission also declares in favor of a general policy to be adopted by the board of managers of the prison, to the effect that the prisoners employed in trade schools are not so employed for the purpose of producing merchandise in large quantities or to make profit, but to receive instruction as a means of reformation and self-reliance; that as far as possible such production shall be hand-work, dispensing with the use of machinery; that the aim in the production of all articles shall be to make a finished, superior article, satisfactory to those who will use it; and labor shall only be for such part of the time as will enable prisoners to attend the school of letters and obtain such education as can be given them in the institution.

Indiana has among the best, perhaps, because the most recent, laws governing her reformatory and state prison, and if the recommendations of this commission be carried into effect she will have among the best laws governing jails. It is intensely interesting to turn back to the early reports of the Board of State Charities of Indiana, which began in 1889, and see how the principles enunciated by such men as McCulloch, Nicholson and Johnson at that time have, one by one, been adopted until nearly all the early recommendations have been carried into effect.

New York State Commission of Prisons.

It is gratifying to read a report which is so progressive in spirit and so intelligent in recommendations as that just presented by the New York State Commission of Prisons.

The prison population of the state remains very nearly the same as last year, there being a small increase, but not of an alarming nature, and but slightly affecting the figures and results for the decade which show a marked decline in the prison population of the state. The total number of admissions to all penal institutions including state prisons, penitentiaries, reformatories, county jails, and workhouses was 101,554. Of this grand total the admissions to the three state prisons number but 1,124, to the

Elmira Reformatory 875, to houses of refuge for women 226, to penitentiaries 12,713, to county jails and workhouses 86,616. These figures show how vastly preponderant is the population of the county jails.

The most marked change of the year in the state prisons is the abolition of prison stripes for first-term men, and the substitution of a uniform of military appearance. The general nature of other improvements are set forth in the following paragraph:

By the discontinuance of contract work and the retention of the entire control of the prisoners by prison officials; by the total abolition of the lock-step and the partial abolition of prison stripes; by the entire separation of the sane from the insane; by the maintenance of the prison schools and the impartation of religious instruction both by the chaplains and volunteers; by the establishment of hospitals for the care of the sick, and the isolation of those having an infectious disease; and modern, open air treatment for those afflicted with throat and lung diseases; by active employment of the inmates in productive industries; by humanitarian methods of discipline and the introduction of parole, the management of these prisons is well abreast of modern thought and methods.

The cost of the maintenance of the three state prisons during the year was \$476,399.46. The sales of prison products for the year were \$708,828.17, which is an increase of \$37,455.35 over the sales of the preceding year. The portion of the receipts which may be credited to prison labor was \$111,684.02.

The commission repeats its recommendation that a reformatory be established for male misdemeanants. It urges extension of state control to misdemeanor prisons saying that "the commission believes as a matter of principle that the state itself by its own officers, should supervise the punishment of persons who have offended against its law, especially in those cases where the offenses were sufficiently grave to justify commitment to a penitentiary." A strong argument for this position of the commission is that no prisoners in the commonwealth are so well taken care of as those under state control. The commission further recommends the remodeling of the cell blocks of the state prison; increased facilities at Clinton prison for the care and treat-

ment of prisoners suffering from tuberculosis; an appropriation to build industrial shops for the Eastern Reformatory at Napanoch; and the extension of the parole system.

*The Whipping
Post at
Washington.*

The bill introduced in the House of Representatives providing for the establishment of the whipping post in Washington, D. C., for wife-beaters has been referred to the committee on the District of Columbia. The press of that city, especially the *Star*, has come out in strong opposition to the bill, and has published comments upon the proposition from various prison wardens and penologists in the country. Meanwhile inquiry at Washington shows that it is not probable that the committee will take any action upon it during the present short session of congress. Certainly there are other matters deserving the attention of that body of much more importance than this reactionary measure for re-establishing a nearly by-gone retaliatory punishment which experience has shown is not effective in repression. Wife-beating naturally arouses the indignation of decent men as being one of the worst forms of brutality; but it is to be remembered that in nearly all cases it arises from intemperance and that the problem of dealing with it is a part of the larger question of the legal treatment of drunkenness. There are other methods of protecting the wife than the whipping post, which has no power to make the wife-beater a better man, nor to cure an habitual drunkard of his love of liquor.

Communication to "Charities."

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

It is with keen regret that *Family Desertion*. I note in a recent number the announcement that the committee in charge has decided to recommend a bill making child desertion alone a felony. I cannot protest too strongly against this narrow view of the situation. The gentlemen who prepared the bill in question are either blind to the facts or are wilfully limiting the scope of the measure. Had they had any experience with this matter at first hand, they could not fail to recognize the urgent necessity of a law covering wife desertion and making it a felony. A deserted child can be taken care of in some one of our many municipal and

private institutions but where shall we commit a wife who is not a fit subject for a hospital? In my work in the legal aid bureau of the Alliance we are called upon every evening by deserted wives. A noticeable element common to most of these cases is that the women are about to become mothers. That seems to be the favorite occasion on which to desert. The desire to escape the added expense and burden of the new member of the family seems to be the incentive towards this most brutal of all crimes. What will the law as proposed do to relieve that situation? If the case is that of a woman with first child, there will be absolutely no further means than at present to compel support or to forestall desertion.

The gentlemen in charge of such reform measures should consult not only the lawyers and theorists but get the views of people who are called upon at first hand for succor. Here we have hundreds of cases of wife desertion of most aggravated nature, yet not a word addressed to us as to the actual conditions as we meet them every day.

I only trust that you will add your protests to the many others that are doubtless reaching you in regard to the proposed measure. I can only beg that the matter be reconsidered and the strong arm of the criminal law be brought to the aid of those who are endeavoring to combat this evil. I might add in conclusion that we find many bigamy cases arising out of wife desertion. The wife fails to hear from the husband and in despair cohabits with or without marriage with another man who offers some prospect of immediate support. Make wife desertion a felony and you will find an immediate decrease in that class of cases. I could expatiate at length on the innumerable evils bound up therewith. And yet with this notable opportunity for legislation of an effective character, we must content ourselves with such a half-way measure.

J. GARFIELD MOSES.

Educational Alliance.

Notes of the Week.

A Get-Together Dinner.—The Altruist Society (which is the unique name of the charity organization society of Montclair, N. J.) did as pretty a piece of social organization as has often been seen within the past month. The society arranged a dinner in the largest available hall in Montclair and sent out invitations, expecting to gather about one hundred people, men and women, among the more active residents of the suburb. The responses to the invitations were so many that plates were laid for 172, which was the absolute limit of the hall, and a number of people were turned away. The various institutions and interests of the town were represented in

brief talks, which the program said should be three minutes "short," and Dr. Bradford, the dean of the local ministerial circle, presided. The social efforts represented were, besides the Altruist Society, the Children's Home, the hospital, the town improvement association, the New England Women's Club (which is supporting a district nurse), the D. A. R. Chapter (which takes care of the summer play ground), the Fresh Air Home, the Political Study Club, the almshouse, the schools and the parks. Then came other speeches on such subjects as Italians, Negroes and others, prevention of tuberculosis, disposal of ashes and garbage, the health board question and a final talk of twelve minutes on co-operation in social work by Alexander Johnson, associate director of the New York School of Philanthropy. The good feeling and sociability which was evidenced was delightful. The plan seems to be an admirable one for towns and villages who need to "get together," to organize the social forces of their community, just as much as do the people of the large cities, where social needs though more obtrusive are no more important.

A Symposium on Alcohol.—The New York County Medical Society will present what it calls "A Symposium of Alcohol," at the New York Academy of Medicine, 17 West Forty-third street, the evening of February 20. Prof. Russell H. Chittenden of Yale, will speak on *Alcohol in Health*; Dr. George L. Peabody, on *Alcohol in Disease*; J. P. Atchinson, chemist to the New York Board of Health, on *Wood Alcohol*; Maynard Y. Clement, New York State Deputy Commissioner of Excise, on *Legislative Aspects of Alcohol*; Dr. Charles B. Fitzpatrick, on *Substitutes for Alcohol*; and Prof. Graham Lusk, Dr. Crothers, DeLancey Nicoll, Dr. Mason and others will take part in the discussion.

February Conference.—The February Conference under the auspices of the Charity Organization Society of New York, will be held the morning of February 21, at 11 o'clock, in the assembly hall of the United Charities Building. The subjects are as follows: *What Are the Sources of Demoralization Among the Street Boys After the School is Out?* Mornay Williams, president of New York Juvenile Asylum; *The George Junior Republic. What it Does to Make a Good Citizen of a Lawless Lad*, Mayor L. M. Osborne, Auburn, N. Y. *The Needs and Uses of Apprentice Funds*, Mrs. William Einstein.

Associated Charities, Des Moines.—D. I. Glascoff, a member of the staff of the Associated Charities of Washington, D. C., has been appointed general secretary of the Associated Charities of Des Moines, Iowa. He is a graduate of the Summer School in Philanthropic Work.

New York's Hundred Lodging-Houses¹

THE EVIL CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH A GREAT FLOATING POPULATION IS HOUSED

Paul Kennaday

Secretary of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis

A residence of several weeks at the Tuberculosis Infirmary on Blackwell's Island, where I came into close contact with the life of the institution, strengthened an impression already held of the large number of well-advanced cases of tuberculosis which are recruited from the lodging-house population of New York city, and suggested the desirability of an investigation which, after ascertaining the facts as to the condition of the lodging-houses, might propose some method by which there might be exercised over these houses and their occupants a surveillance approaching more nearly to the effectiveness of the present supervision of the tenement-houses and their occupants by the Department of Health and the Tenement-house Department. An investigation was accordingly undertaken by the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis to effect which I acted as a special unpaid inspector of the Department of Health.

There are in the Borough of Manhattan, exclusive of the Municipal Lodging-house with its 300 beds operated under the Department of Public Charities, 101 lodging-houses with a licensed capacity of 16,470 beds. If to these be added such places as the two Mills Hotels with their 2,154 beds and the large number of cheap hotels—lodging-houses in everything but in some respects just sufficient to take them out of the technical designation as such—we have a lodging-house accommodation in the borough of easily 20,000 beds. Taking into consideration the floating character of this population, coming from all parts of the country and going from one city to another, this total of 20,000 beds by no means represents the total of the lodging-house population. . . . Recruited to a large extent from the intemperate, the criminal and the shiftless class, easy preys to tuberculosis and other diseases, presenting in some phases the very worst

¹ The substance of a report made to the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the New York Charity Organization Society and to Dr. Hermann M. Biggs, medical officer of the Department of Health. A tabulated statement of detailed conditions in each lodging-house accompanied the text.

elements of our population, it would seem that the state would be entirely justified in taking such measures for the protection of these citizens as would at least protect other citizens against them. As under our present system, or in fact any system short of a complete and "un-American" change in methods of supervision, it is impossible to watch over the individual members of this shifting population, it is apparent that it is needful to exercise the greatest possible care over the erection and maintenance of their dwellings.

Of these 101 lodging-houses, sixty-three are situated along or in close proximity to the Bowery within the 5th, 6th, 11th, 12th and 13th police precincts. The prevailing type is a five-story structure, used as a store on the street floor, one or two lots in width and occupying nearly the whole depth of the lot, with windows back and front and, as many of these houses are on corner lots, not infrequently on at least one side. There are two general types—the dormitory and the cell or individual room—34 of the former type, 36 of the latter, and 31 which combine both the dormitory and the cell features. The rooms range in price from 15 cents a night to 25 and even 30 cents; the beds in the dormitory style are ordinarily 10 or 15 cents, these prices marking with fair accuracy the relative standards of cleanliness and comfort.

Ventilation. The advantage to the lodger of the cell method of construction is privacy; its disadvantages are many; it is dark, it is difficult to clean and, therefore, often it is not cleaned; and the ventilation is to the highest degree bad. Ordinarily these rooms (6½ feet by 5 feet) are arranged in long rows from the front to the back of the house, securing their only ventilation over the top of the six and one-half foot partitions which form the walls of the rooms. As in many instances one-half of the windows on a floor open directly into the end rooms, not being separated by a

corridor from the rows of cells, the occupants of these end cells can largely control the ventilation for the rest of the floor. A natural unwillingness to be subjected to draughts from these large windows opening directly on their beds, overbalances any possible wish to provide more adequate fresh air for those in adjoining rooms, and these windows are accordingly kept closed. Where rooms are perhaps 200 feet long, with several long rows of cells side by side, the only ventilation may thus be not more than two windows at each end of the room. Even where the cells are separated from all windows by a surrounding narrow corridor, the ventilation to the rooms a short distance removed from the windows is very bad, especially where as in rare instances "double-deckers" are used.

In the dormitory the possibility for better ventilation is made greater and at least it would not be impossible to air out all rooms once a day if any one were so minded. However, the all present dread of fresh air, the practice of placing beds directly in front of windows, the wish for a warm bedroom and an unwillingness to spend more money than is necessary for fuel, make the problem of properly ventilating even the dormitory well supplied with windows a difficult one. For instance, I have seen one large room having windows, twenty-two in all, on three sides, with but two windows open, each about six inches. This room was occupied by about seventy men and though ceilings were high and arrangement of windows almost ideal for good ventilation, the air in the room was heavy and foul. As a general rule the ventilation of lodging-houses is bad—in some cases highly so, but this is as much because this point has not been supervised and means devised for enforcing such measures as are needed as because of the inherent difficulties of the situation in some particular lodging-houses. The sanitary code with its provision (§20) that all water-closets "shall be adequately ventilated" in boarding-houses, lodging-house and manufactories and (§22) that only in boarding-houses or manufactories "every room in which any person may sleep, dwell or work shall be adequately

lighted and ventilated" seems to be indicative of the manner in which this important subject of the adequate ventilation of lodging-houses has been neglected.

The condition of water-closets has an important bearing upon the air in these houses. In forty-three houses the ventilation was found to be good, that is, there was a sufficient supply of windows or other openings onto the outer air; in thirty-six the ventilation was bad, of which the following cases may be noted by way of example: At No. — Third avenue on the second floor used by forty lodgers are two water-closets, the only ventilation to which is through one eight-inch pipe; at No. — Third avenue the four water-closets on each floor are ventilated by means of one window three feet by two feet so shuttered that but little air can pass through it to or from the three-foot air-shaft of the adjoining tenement upon which it opens; at No. — West Broadway on the first floor is a compartment against the wall in the middle of the dormitory which is ventilated only through a six-inch pipe, which when inspected was covered up by paper said to have been put there when the house was last fumigated (this leaving of ventilation pipes so covered was found in a number of instances); at No. — Bowery the six closets on the second and third floors are ventilated by an eight-inch L-shaped pipe; at No. — First avenue the two closets on the main floor are in a dark compartment with no ventilation pipes whatever; at No. — Bowery sixteen water-closets on the second floor are ventilated only through one eight-inch pipe; and so with the others of the thirty-six. I will not attempt to describe the condition of the air in these compartments or in the adjoining bedrooms. Suffice it to say that most of them are provided with old style plumbing that does not readily flush; that the lodgers, especially in the cheaper houses, are often drunk and even when sober are not cleanly in their habits; and that it is a very general custom to keep the doors leading into these compartments from the sleeping quarters open and tied back so as to prevent slamming and for the purpose of ventilation, as it

is quite evident that if the smell from these closets were not spread over the sleeping rooms through these open doors, not enough could escape through these pipes and openings to maintain in these compartments an atmosphere endurable even to the hardened Bowery lodger.

As to the number of water-closets, the charter requirement (§1308) that "every lodging-house shall be provided with as many good and sufficient water-closets, improved privy sinks, or other similar receptacles, as the department of health shall require, but in no case shall there be less than one for every fifteen occupants" was found to be with hardly an exception fulfilled, although in some instances there was a very palpable evasion of the spirit and intent of the law, as at No. — Bowery where ten seats are placed in the basement in one compartment as near together as possible, ranged on three sides of a square; or at No. — Bowery where closets are reached from the first floor of the lodging-house by a path leading with eight distinct turns down two dark flights of stairs to a remote quarter of the cellar. In 58 out of 101 houses the water-closets were found with tin sides and concrete or tin floors.

Baths. Forty-nine houses have free baths with hot and cold water, these ranging all the way from elaborate and satisfactory showers such as are found in most of the Children's Aid Society's houses and the Salvation Army's "Hotel" 2-6 Bowery to the more common one or two tubs which are washed out, if washed at all, by the lodgers themselves.

Beds. As repulsive as the condition of the water-closets are the beds in twenty-three of the lodging-houses.

In twenty of the total houses inspected the requirement of the Department of Health that waterproof coverings shall be placed over mattresses was violated by having a number of mattresses with no such coverings at all, the total without such coverings in one case reaching as high as one-third of the whole number, or by having mattresses with large holes worn through the covering. From my notes taken on the spot after having the

bedding removed and looking at perhaps ten mattresses at random on each floor, I take the following: "very dirty, one-half torn" (No. — Third avenue); "a number very dirty" (No. — Houston street); "very dirty" (No. — Bowery, No. — Rivington street, No. — South street, etc., etc.); "badly worn" (No. — Avenue D); "three out of five in bad condition, holes, dirty, etc." (No. — Bowery); "one-half without covers or with holes" (No. — Bowery); "very dirty, nearly all with holes" (No. — Broome street); "in bad condition, many badly worn and several without covers" (No. — Bowery); "twenty without waterproof covers" (No. — Bowery). "Very dirty," "bad," "worn," etc., are comparative terms which may perhaps be best understood when it is noted that I have been so far liberal in the standards which I have set that I have classified 31 lodging-houses as having "clean" mattresses, 27 as having "fair" mattresses, 20 as having mattresses "dirty and with holes" and 23 "very dirty." That is, I have not expected immaculate mattresses nor conditions impracticable to maintain; I have classed as clean such beds as may be found in most of the Salvation Army lodging-houses and the majority of the "twenty-five-cent" houses; beds which under other circumstances unhesitatingly would be called very dirty, with a due regard to the difficulties of the situation, I have classified as "fair"; "very dirty" then denotes a condition of filth and foulness which really must be seen and smelled to be appreciated, a condition which, with any standard at all, assuredly would be denoted by "very dirty" if not by more extreme terms.

As to the blankets and bedding 8 houses were found to be very clean, 55 clean, 23 dirty, and 14 very dirty. I was assured many times that the blankets were washed "at least" twice a year; no thought of cleaning them oftener seems to have occurred to the proprietors; this with lodgers often going to bed with their boots on, with floors dry swept so that the dust at once settles on blankets that as a rule are unprovided with coverlets, and with blankets and bedding never aired unless lying in a tangled mass on the bed

or floor in the brief space between the time the bed is vacated and the time it is made up for the next lodger may be called airing.

Usually a covering of ticking open only at one end is slipped over the mattresses which, with their waterproof covering would otherwise be cold and so slippery that the bedding would not stay in place when the bed is occupied. This covering often is very dirty and is washed not oftener than the blankets. It is objectionable too in that it prevents a ready and rapid inspection of the middle of the mattress itself, necessitating in every bed carefully inspected the raising of the mattress and the somewhat difficult slipping off of this covering. In some cases this slip was sewed or fastened down on all sides making proper inspection impossible without much trouble. In many houses all signs pointed to the fact that the assertion that these slips and blankets were washed even twice in a year was a gross misstatement. Sheets are usually said to be washed once a week for men occupying the same bed by the week, and every day for new lodgers. No such system, of course, is carried out except in the better twenty-five and thirty-five-cent houses.

Isolation Room. By requirement of the Board of Health each lodging-house must have an isolation or hospital room which must not be used for other purposes than the reception of such persons as may become sick while lodging in the house. In twenty-four houses the room was either used as a general store-room for blankets, etc., or used as a sleeping-room by the day or night clerk. In general there seemed to be a misconception as to the uses of this room, as I was repeatedly told that sick persons were not accepted or kept as lodgers.

Back Yards. In a number of instances back yards and roofs onto which windows of lodging-house open were found with accumulations of filth and rubbish evidently of months' growth.

Floors. Of the floors I found 45 clean, 38 fair, 12 dirty and 8 very dirty. Quite generally I was told that dry sweeping was never permitted,

but from the dust in blankets, the absence of water marks on the floors, and from meeting cleaners sweeping away in a cloud of dust with never a thought of sprinkling, sawdust, or wet paper, explanations to the effect that my inspection and the dry sweeping observed were singular coincidences, were placed in the same category with the assertions of the clerk who, after stating that his isolation room had not been entered in a year and of course was as it should be, and after an ingenious show of inability to open the door, finally disclosed a room with a bed lately vacated, clothes hanging on the wall and a loudly ticking twenty-four-hour clock.

Spittoons are provided in the main sitting-room in all houses except in the four boys' lodging-houses of the Children's Aid Society and the three women's lodging-houses; in only fourteen of the lodging-houses, however, is any water or disinfectant left in these spittoons and often the number of spittoons is altogether inadequate. In nineteen cases they were placed in the water-closets on each floor or in the hallways. At No. — Bowery where there are single twenty-five-cent rooms, wide shallow tin dishes easily cleaned were placed beside each bed. It is the general custom in lodging-houses to require those who spit profusely to spread a newspaper on the floor beside their beds. While this sort of a spittoon has the advantage of size, it is subject to the consequent disadvantage of rapid drying of the sputum. These papers are collected by the Street Cleaning Department and ultimately used for commercial purposes.

**The Remedy—
Inspections.** One very evident remedy for this state of affairs is more frequent and more thorough inspections.

While the city charter (§1313) states that it shall be the duty of the Board of Health to cause a careful inspection of every lodging-house at least twice a year inspections of some houses are actually made much oftener than this. The character of these inspections must be faulty if, despite the fact that the majority of the houses show an adherence to regulations, so many positive violations can be found and conditions of such a

shocking character as above set forth permitted to exist in any cases.

To remedy this defect it seems that inspections a certain number of times each year should be required and that detailed records of these inspections should be filed. The system of checking inspections in the Tenement-house Department of New York¹ has given satisfaction and I think could be followed to advantage. Inspectors would be provided with cards with appropriate headings under which figures or descriptive words could be filled in, which would reduce the work in recording conditions to a minimum and furnish the department with a ready reference and easy check upon improper work.

In addition to more thorough inspections, a higher standard of needful cleanliness should be adopted by those inspectors who it would seem have sometimes adopted the theory often advanced by lodging-house keepers themselves, that the condition of the men they harbor is a sufficient excuse for the truly abominable conditions sometimes found.

To facilitate the inspection of beds, I would recommend that the use of slips at present used over waterproof mattresses be done away with, substituting therefor what I have seen giving satisfaction, a covering with ends folded well under and sewed at the corners. This will permit of the quick removal or the raising of the slips in the middle for the proper inspection of the mattresses without delay or inconvenience, and at the same time will furnish a sufficient cover to the cold and slippery mattress.

A peculiar danger of infection lies in permitting blankets to be used as they sometimes are for as long a period as a year without being washed. Blankets and bedding should be required to be washed oftener. The use of comforters in place of regular mattresses should be prohibited.

Water-Closets. As to water-closets, following the Sanitary Code I recommend that "every person who shall be the owner, lessee, or keeper or manager of any tenement-house, boarding-house, lodging-house, or manufactory

¹See first report of Tenement-house Department vol. I, pp. 26-34.

shall provide, or cause to be provided for the accommodation thereof and for the use of the tenants, lodgers, and workers thereat, adequate privies, or water-closets, and the same shall be adequately ventilated and shall at all times be kept in such cleanly and wholesome condition, as not to be offensive, or be dangerous or detrimental to life or health" and until such time as these owners, lessees, keepers or managers conform to the law, I would have the law withdraw from them the license without which they may not engage in this business.

I recommend that a special examination of all water-closet traps shall be made; further, that all water-closet compartments shall be lined with tin or other non-absorbent material and that floorings shall be of concrete or similar non-absorbent material.

And further, in view of the very prevalent practice of fastening back doors leading from sleeping-rooms to water-closets for the purpose of facilitating communication and to prevent the constant noisy slamming of doors, thereby nullifying the requirement of separate rooms for these closets, I recommend that it shall be required that all entrances to water-closet rooms shall be provided with doors of full length, swinging both ways. I regard the swinging door as much more effective than the rubber cushion put in on door frames of some houses with little appreciable effect on the practice of keeping these doors open. Moreover, nearly all of these doors are raised six inches from the floor at the bottom, some as much as eighteen inches. To me this seems a very questionable regulation of the department's and I rather think that what is gained in freshness to the closets thereby, is lost to the bed-rooms.

Baths. While it would be desirable that "each new applicant for lodging shall not be lodged unless he shall have first taken a shower bath and that a lodger shall not be lodged for more than seven consecutive nights unless he shall have first taken a shower bath" as is the rule in Boston, the enforcement of such a provision would be so difficult as to be impracticable and therefore I do not advise any such system for New

York. I do strongly recommend, however, that every lodging-house shall be required to have for each 100 beds not less than one shower bath with hot and cold water attachment for the free use of lodgers at all hours. As some lodging-houses with baths have hot water on certain nights only, it is important that it be definitely stated that this hot and cold water is for the free use of lodgers at all hours. It is evident that a shower and not a bathtub is the proper thing in these houses.

Floors. For dirty floors my recommendation is to clean them, or rather to see that they are cleaned which is perhaps more difficult. Dry sweeping is here seen at its worst and I believe should be prohibited. At. No. — Third avenue in place of doors to the bed-rooms, portières of extremely dirty and foul smelling blankets are used. A better device for catching dust could hardly be formed.

Spittoons. I recommend that lodging-houses be required to have one large heavy spittoon containing water or disinfecting material for each fifteen lodgers and that at least one of these spittoons shall be placed on every floor. Repeatedly I have been told that it is not practicable to have these spittoons on bed-room floors as they will be used for improper purposes, but in a number of instances and some of these, too, in the cheaper houses where the least regard is paid to the decencies, I have found these spittoons properly in use. The lodging-house keeper in this as in so many other respects will find a way if he is made to. However desirable it might be to provide individual spittoons for each bed and to substitute these for the newspapers now in use, I do not believe that it would be practicable to do so.

Ventilation. For lodging-houses built on the cell plan, I recommend that all partitions be raised from the floor not less than, say, eight inches. This, as may be seen at the Salvation Army "Hotel," the Mills hotels and the West Side Hotel (162 Eighth avenue), helps in ventilating and cleaning not a little. I also recommend that all windows shall

be separated by a corridor not less than three feet in width from bed-rooms and I would vacate all rooms onto which windows now open directly. I would do away also with the so-called "double-decker" in bed-rooms and I would prohibit the use of double beds, it being quite bad enough for even one lodger to sleep in these compartments. Where there are more than fifty bed-rooms on a floor, any of which are distant more than fifty feet from windows, I would have air shafts, say, ten feet by ten feet, run up through the center of the house. The same requirements as to windows and air-shafts I would have applicable to dormitories.

There appears to be no well-defined legal distinction between a lodging-house and a hotel; the Charter and Sanitary Code definitions, such as they are, being applicable to hotels as well as lodging-houses. It thus happens that certain houses such as the Mills hotels, the West Side Hotel, No. — Bowery and No. — Bowery are not licensed as lodging-houses, though they have but little in common with the usual hotel.

How flagrant is the evasion of proper supervision permitted through this means is apparent at Mills Hotel No. 1 with its 1,500 and more beds let out any one of them by the night or by the week and in no respect superior to several of the better class houses which are classed and inspected as lodging-houses. The "Hotel —" at No. — Bowery has cells of the typical lodging-house character; the restaurant called "The Home Restaurant," which seems to take this house outside of the lodging-house law, is situated under the "hotel" just as any restaurant or store might be, but it gives no appearance of connection with it. The office of the hotel is reached through a separate street entrance and it is only at the office on the first floor and not at the restaurant and bar-room that arrangements for rooms may be made. No. — Bowery with 166 cells of the usual kind was shown to me by its proprietor who quite frankly explained that his kitchen and dining-room were for the sole purpose of evading the lodging-house law. For these 166 "hotel" guests a dining-room twelve feet by eight feet is provided in which are four little tables about

twenty-four inches by eighteen inches, long set with plates, knives and forks as was evident from the dust which had thickly settled upon them. For the preparation of the steaks, roasts, etc., offered upon a yellow fly-specked bill of fare nailed to the wall, a small portable gas range was found in the "kitchen," a room situated back of the office, used as a storeroom and some distance from the dining-room with which it has no direct communication. The ventilation for the bed-rooms in this house was particularly bad, the usual wood-partitions being surmounted by glass frames running to the ceiling.

If such evasions may actually prevail, many more lodging-houses might become hotels without much difficulty. A change in the statute definition of lodging-house is evidently desirable though it is difficult to frame; for this purpose the following rather cumbersome combination of the present charter definition of lodging-houses and the "Raines Law" definition of hotel is suggested:

A lodging-house shall be taken to mean and include any house or building or portion thereof in which persons are harbored or received or lodged for hire for a single night or for less than two weeks at one time, or any part of which is let for any person to sleep in for any term less than two weeks. A house or building in which persons are so harbored, received or lodged shall not be taken to be a lodging-house if it has separate rooms for each bed with partitions extending from floor to ceiling with independent access to each room by a door opening into a hall-room, each room having a window or windows with not less than eight square feet of surface opening upon a street or open court, light shaft or open air and each having at least eighty square feet of floor area and at least six hundred cubic feet of space therein; a dining-room with at least three hundred square feet of floor area, which shall not be a part of a barroom, with tables and having suitable table furniture and accommodations for at least twenty guests at one and the same time and a kitchen and conveniences for cooking therein sufficient to provide *bona fide* meals at one and the same time for twenty guests.

A unique condition of affairs is found at No. — Greenwich street, a small lodging-house which also contains three families having in all seven children. The house is old and very dilapidated.

Entrance is gained to it only through a dirty saloon on the ground floor and school sinks are in the backyard. It is said to be used altogether by farmers and truck gardeners. It is sufficiently plain that such a place is not the proper place for children and I recommend that it be declared unlawful to house children in lodging-houses where are lodged men over twenty-one years of age.

*Fire and Police
Regulation.*

With the fire chief in charge of the Bureau of Combustibles and Auxiliary Fire Appliances, I have inspected some lodging-houses, hotels and boarding-houses with especial reference to fire safeguards. The fire department seems to do its work effectively, its requirement that doors to end rooms (formerly shutting off fire-escapes) be removed, being particularly praiseworthy, a move in the direction of the recommendation herein, that the Department of Health shall require the removal of such end rooms as now shut off ventilation.

As to the police regulation we have the experience of Boston where the lodging-house licenses are granted by the police department and where, under their authority to enter lodging-houses at any time of the day or night, raids by the police have shown that about forty per cent of the lodgers had their pictures in the Rogues' Gallery. Section 315 of the Greater New York Charter which states that it is the duty of the police department and force "to carefully observe and inspect . . . all places of business having excise or other licenses to carry on any business" seems to give the police department such authority as is needed if regular inspection seems desirable. Personally I believe that this is an infringement of personal liberty not justified by results likely to be obtained.

If the course of this inspection has given no direct evidence of tuberculosis among the lodging-house population, nor of house infection, it has sufficiently demonstrated, to the writer at least, that in not a few instances conditions are absolutely inimical to health and quite ideal for the rapid progress and communication of this disease.

Public and Private Philanthropy of Missouri

Charles A. Ellwood¹

Professor of Sociology, University of Missouri

Missouri, it must be noted at the outset, is a typical American state of the Central West. It has the faults, therefore, and the excellencies which are typical of American society in general and of the states west of the Mississippi river in particular. Now the characteristic feature of American society, as contrasted with European society, is its extreme individualism, and as a resultant, a comparatively high individual development with a comparatively low social development. The average man in America is concerned so much with forwarding his own economic welfare, with making his "pile," that he gives little thought and less time to forwarding the welfare of the commonwealth, to bettering social institutions. This characteristic becomes more exaggerated as we pass from the East to the West. In Missouri the mass of men are so absorbed in their business affairs, or in building up their own social and political prestige, that they forget the service of the state, or imagine that it can be discharged by going to the polls once a year. We have on the one hand in Missouri an energetic, intelligent, cultivated, refined and hospitable people; on the other hand we have a comparatively undeveloped condition of social institutions and of civic life. And this condition is explained by the individualism and commercialism which the people of Missouri share with the American people in general. They explain why it is that our charitable and correctional institutions lag behind those of some of the older states, and of such European countries, as England, France and Germany. It is not because we lack wealth that we have not achieved as much along these lines; it is rather because we have been so absorbed in the pursuit of our own individual ends that we have neglected to develop the institutions which have no relation to self-seeking.

¹ In this article Professor Ellwood presents a survey of the field comprehended in greater detail in his presidential address before the Fifth Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction.

In a careful calculation, based upon the reports of the State Board of Charities and of private institutions and societies, I have estimated that at least three million dollars are spent every year by the people of Missouri for the relief of the needy through either public or private agencies. This vast sum was expended in 1902 approximately, as follows:

<p>A Budget of \$3,000,000.</p> <p>Four State Public Hospitals for the Insane.. \$594,498 Colony for the Feeble-minded and Epileptic: (a) support..... 23,665 (b) special..... 51,214 State School for the Blind..... 30,000 State School for the Deaf..... 75,000 State Training School for Boys..... 45,000 State Industrial Home for Girls: (a) Support..... 12,800 (b) Special..... 12,000 Federal Soldiers' Home..... 11,000 Confederate Soldiers' Home..... 8,000 Total for State Institutions..... \$814,672</p> <p>City Hospital for the Sick in St. Louis, Kansas City and St. Joseph (estimate)..... \$150,000 City Insane Asylum, St. Louis..... 150,000 City Poorhouse, St. Louis..... 150,000 Ninety-two county poorhouses..... 175,000 Outdoor Relief, 114 counties (estimate)..... 135,000 Total for City and County Charities... \$760,000 Total for public charity..... \$1,575,000</p> <p style="text-align: center;">PRIVATE</p> <p>One hundred and twenty private institutions of St. Louis..... \$800,000 Three general relief societies of St. Louis (Provident Ass'n, Catholic and Jewish)... 100,000 Sixty private institutions outside St. Louis.. 400,000 Private relief associations outside St. Louis.. 100,000 Relief given by private individuals..... 100,000 Total for private charity..... \$1,500,000 Total for all charity in Missouri..... \$3,075,000</p>	<p>based upon the reports of the State Board of Charities and of private institutions and societies, I have estimated that at least three million dollars are spent every year by the people of Missouri for the relief of the needy through either public or private agencies. This vast sum was expended in 1902 approximately, as follows:</p>
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This estimate probably understates rather than overstates the total amount spent, yet there is little public consciousness regarding charity in Missouri. I have characterized our charitable institutions as comparatively undeveloped. They are particularly undeveloped on the side of administration and organization. Yet even on the financial side their development is low as compared with that of older communities. For it must be noted that \$3,000,000 is a comparatively small sum for the people of Missouri to spend annually for charity. It is only one dollar per capita of our population. The state of New York spends for charity annually

over five times as much per capita, while London spends an even larger amount.

Let us examine in detail some of the phases of public and private philanthropy in Missouri to see wherein lack of development is manifest.

*Public
Outdoor
Relief.*

First of all comes the relief of the poor in their own homes by public officials. Missouri, like most American states, has no uniform system of public relief. Each county and each municipality dispenses relief to the poor in such ways and in such amounts as it sees fit. There is absolutely no state supervision of this charitable activity. From the statistics collected by the State Board of Charities in 1898, it would appear that between \$100,000 and \$150,000 are spent annually by the counties in this way. I have also found by investigation that the average Missouri county spends about \$1,000 each year in outdoor relief. No doubt much of this money is unwisely spent and does positive harm to the recipients. I have known many cases in which county courts dispensed it indiscriminatingly. Experts are agreed that this sort of relief when laxly administered is dangerous in that it produces a permanent pauper class in our population. It follows that some sort of central supervision should be provided for by the state. The legislature should make laws governing its administration and entrust its supervision to the State Board of Charities, that body being given one or two additional inspectors to see that the provisions of the law are carried out.

*Indoor Relief—
The
Almshouse.*

The fundamental institution for indoor relief in Missouri is the county almshouse. Concerning our Missouri almshouses I have already expressed myself at length,¹ but it is perhaps allowable for me to sum up the whole matter here by saying that the situation is absolutely intolerable. There are four main evils connected with our almshouse system: (1) The letting out

¹See *The Stockade and Log Chain of the Missouri Almshouse*, CHARITIES, February 28, 1903. *The County and Its Wards*, CHARITIES, September 10, 1904. Professor Ellwood's studies have been published in pamphlet form by the University of Missouri.

of the care of the poor by contract, at so much per head, either to the lowest bidder or to some other bidder who satisfies the county court; this I have characterized as the "lease system." (2) The presence of large numbers of mentally defective persons, especially insane persons who cannot be properly cared for in an almshouse under any circumstances. (3) The lack of a proper classification of inmates in our almshouses—a lack which permits the intermingling of paupers of every condition, both physical and mental, and even of the two sexes. (4) The lack of a vigorous work test for the able-bodied, which alone can keep our almshouses free from merely shiftless and dissolute persons.

*The Care
of the
Insane.*

Let us now turn to those charities which are in part supported out of state funds. The largest of these is that which is concerned with the care of the indigent insane. There are in Missouri several excellent institutions, and of the last erected of these, the hospital at Farmington (constructed on the cottage plan), we have a right to be proud. But no one at all acquainted with these institutions and with what has been done in other states would claim that the provisions for the insane in Missouri are at all adequate. There are in the state about 5,500 insane in institutions—3,500 being in the four state hospitals, about 800 in the St. Louis Insane Asylum, and 1,200 in county and city almshouses. The fact that there are so many insane in the almshouses is in itself sufficient proof that public provision for the care of the indigent members of this class is inadequate. I have already spoken of the possible removal of the insane from the almshouses through mandatory legislation, which is at present the only available means. But it remains to point out that the system itself is really responsible for the large number which remain in the almshouses. We have no state care of the indigent insane in Missouri in the sense of state support. All indigent insane in state hospitals are supported by the counties from which they come, but counties can support their insane in almshouses for about half what

it costs to keep them in the state hospitals. Hence the incentive to keep the insane at home in the county almshouses if they are not dangerous. As there is no law to prevent it, most counties do so to an extent.

*Institutional
Advance Checked
by Party
Interference.*

Here also may be discussed several matters connected with the general administration of public charitable institutions, which are especially illustrated in the administration of the state hospitals, although they affect all our state institutions. One of these is the entire lack of civil service rules for the appointment, promotion and discharge of officials and employes in the state charitable institutions.

This entire lack of civil service regulations means that management depends upon party caprice. Any governor who wishes can make a "clean sweep" in the state charitable institutions, for the local boards of trustees have repeatedly shown themselves utterly subservient to party influences. Fortunately, however, the political complexion of our state government changes but seldom; hence party politics have not demoralized the state institutions as badly as would have been the case had the state been politically an unstable one. On the other hand, while political parties have changed in power in Missouri but seldom, factional and personal influences have too often brought about changes in institutional management, which have not conduced to their progress. Several physicians connected with the state hospitals have repeatedly assured me that the one thing which stands most in the way of the advancement of those institutions is the danger of political interference. A single illustration will suffice: For a long time it has been acknowledged that there should be training schools for nurses and attendants in connection with the state hospitals for the insane, inasmuch as all attendants should have some technical knowledge and special training. But it has been impossible to establish these training schools successfully, for the reason that attendants are now appointed, not upon a basis of merit, but largely through political and personal influences, and often quite independent of the superintendent's judg-

ment. Hence, a graduate of a training school would have no assurance of employment, and hence there would be no incentive to take the course.

Under the present system, it may be said in general, no ambitious young man in Missouri will undertake to fit himself for a career in public charitable work, for he knows that his appointment and retention in such work would depend upon outside influences. Surely, with these facts in mind, the legislature should give us a comprehensive civil service law, which would free our charitable institutions from the danger of outside interference, and guarantee them the continued service of the ablest men.

This brings us to another matter which hampers, to some extent, the development of our public charitable institutions in Missouri. I refer to the spirit of localism which is manifested by some boards of trustees in the management of their institutions. Other of our state institutions, however, are entirely free from this spirit, and do not hesitate when they want a good official to look for him, if necessary, beyond the bounds of Missouri. A commendable instance of this sort is the recent action of the board of trustees of the State Training School for Boys at Boonville, who when they could not find a suitable man in Missouri to fill Superintendent Drake's place, did not hesitate to call a man (Mr. George Macomber) who seemed suitable from Indiana. Surely we are cosmopolitan enough and broad enough to throw open the positions in our institutions to the competition of the world and to seek to fill them with the best men which can be found anywhere for the money.

Children's Institutions Needed.

Missouri has no public institutions for the care of dependent or neglected children. It leaves their care wholly to private agencies, save for the few which it provides for in its county almshouses. There are over fifty private institutions and societies caring for orphaned, destitute and neglected children in the state, some of which receive subsidies from municipalities. In spite of the admirable work of some of these agencies and societies (particularly of the Missouri Children's

Home Society), those who have studied the situation most closely feel that there is need for one or more state institutions in this field. For healthy dependent children, there is need of a state school modeled along the lines of the famous School for Dependent Children at Coldwater, Mich. And for the diseased and crippled children there should be a state hospital and home, where they may be medically treated and cared for until they can be boarded-out in selected families, under the supervision of the State Board of Charities.

The Largest Prison in the United States in a Bad Way.

The condition of the State Penitentiary at Jefferson City can be regarded as satisfactory only by those who scoff at the idea of the reformation of the criminal, and who think that the highest achievement of prison management is to make the prisoner as nearly self-supporting as possible. Three years ago Mr. Drake said of this institution that it was "without a semblance of instruction considered reformatory," and I will add that the only possible reformatory influence in the institution is that of the chaplain, whose time is mainly taken up in acting as librarian and in reading and censoring the letters of 2,400 prisoners. In this vast population, which is larger than that of any other prison in the United States, and far too large for individual treatment of the prisoner, youthful first offenders are mingled both by day and by night with the most hardened criminals, and the result is that all are brought down to the level of the lowest. Probably the most crying need of the state in the way of correctional institutions at present is the establishment of an industrial reformatory for first offenders, between the ages of sixteen and thirty years.

Private Charities.

Let us now after this hasty survey of our public charities and corrections in Missouri take an even more hasty glance at our private charities. While we find in this field the beginning of a rich development in charitable activity, everything is here as yet unorganized and unco-ordinated with other private institutions or with the system of public charities. Each works for itself and largely

disregards the relations of its work to that of other institutions. For example, the work of the fifty different institutions caring for dependent children in Missouri is in no way correlated that I have been able to discover; and the same is true of other classes of private institutions. The development of private charities is destined to continue in Missouri, and the number of institutions will multiply many fold. The state cannot afford to let this movement go on unregulated and unsupervised. The dangerous results of a "let alone" policy with reference to private charities are abundantly shown by the experience of European countries. It is not too early therefore, for the State Board of Charities to be given general supervision, with the right of inspection, of private as well as public charities in our state.

The State Board of Charities.

This brings us finally to a consideration of the State Board of Charities itself. We have a board in Missouri organized upon the right principle, and we can congratulate ourselves that from the beginning it has been composed largely of self-sacrificing men and women. The board has accomplished much notable work. It has secured a new hospital for the insane, a colony for the feeble-minded and epileptics, juvenile courts and a probation system for delinquent children, and many other improvements. Other influences may have co-operated to bring about these results, but it seems to me that the first credit should be given to the state board. The time has now come, however, when the board must expand its activities if it is to meet the situation in Missouri. Its efficiency must be increased tenfold if it is to accomplish the work which should be accomplished within the next decade. Self-sacrificing men and women and a right principle of organization are not sufficient to constitute an efficient board of charities. Two other things are necessary: first, there must be money to do the work of the board; and secondly, capable men must be secured as assistants in its clerical and technical work. The members of the board themselves, being unsalaried, can devote but a part of their time. The board in Missouri has never had enough money to pay its secretary a

sufficient salary for him to devote his entire time to the work. The board has not one inspector to carry on its work of inspecting county jails and almshouses and state institutions, notwithstanding the fact that in such a large and populous state as Missouri, it is scarcely possible to cover the field without several inspectors. The Missouri board must have more money and more assistants if it is to do the work demanded by the charitable situation of the state.

It should be noted, in conclusion, that there is now a strong movement to establish a state board of control. I cannot discuss this question. I shall only say that if the movement succeeds we shall eventually have no State Board of Charities at all, merely a common board of trustees for all the state institutions. The friends of the Board of Charities are therefore fighting the bill to establish a Board of Control, which is before the present legislature.

The Necessity of State Care of the Adult Blind

F. Park Lewis

President of the Board of Managers of the New York State School for the Blind, Buffalo, N. Y.

Many of the states have been generous in their provisions for the education of the young blind. Some have established kindergartens at large expense, as has been done at Jamaica Plain, Mass., and at Overbrook, Penn., and so valuable is this early training that it is to be hoped that the example which these schools have set may be very generally followed. The measures, too, employed for the instruction of the blind during the period of their school life have been good in several of the states, although there is none of them in which more attention might not be devoted and more money advantageously expended than is now done in the primary education of the young blind.

As the close of the school period of their lives, however, at the most critical juncture, when their whole future is to be determined, in this country intelligent interest seems suddenly to cease.

They have outgrown the school and we have made no place for them in the active world. They have no business training, they have no knowledge of the world. Many of them have no profession—most of them have no trade. Some of them have been ambitious students in music or in piano tuning, have set out with high hopes and sanguine anticipations; many of them are brave spirited lads—determined to succeed—but unfortunately most of them are poor and without friends. They may be able and willing, even anxious to work, but to get started and established is an almost impossible task.

If the school training has been in music

or piano tuning which is usual if a correct ear and any natural ability are found, their still remains the great difficulty of finding pianos to tune or pupils to teach or a church organ to play; and lacking the opportunity to demonstrate their proficiency, the costly training given by the state too often goes for nothing and a life of unwilling dependency follows; but with the blind as with those who see, special gifts of mind are not common and a large majority are of average mentality only.

For them remains only the labor of the handworker. They may be taught to weave baskets, to make mattresses, or to cane chairs, but they lack the commercial faculty which will enable them to be both makers and sellers of their products. Their business at best is not profitable and the time spent in hawking their wares is taken from their workshop. Frequently earning just a little less than enough to live upon, they are obliged to forego all honest effort and become paupers.

An intermediary is needed who will bring the blind producer and the user together.

This is accomplished in Paris through the medium of the "Valentin Haüy Society." It is being attempted in Boston at the "Experiment Station for the Blind."

This is assuming that the blind man has been taught a trade. From statistics gathered by the commission appointed by the legislature in 1903 to investigate the condition of the adult blind in New York state, it was shown that 28.88 per

cent of those of the blind reported in the census of 1900 were between the ages of twenty-one and fifty years—13.84 per cent were between fifty and sixty years, making 36.72 per cent of the total blind of possible working age. If we add to these the 9.72 per cent who were under twenty-one years of age, and whose future must be considered when they reach their majority, we have nearly half of the blind of the state or 46.44 per cent. We find then that the adult blind are of two classes: those born blind, or losers of sight in childhood, who have had the education, general or technical, given in a special school; and that larger class to whom blindness has come as an unlooked for and dreadful affliction, and who are totally unprepared to meet the responsibilities of life in their new condition. The man in middle life—often as strong mentally or physically as he ever was—is left absolutely stranded when by accident or disease he is deprived of sight. For him neither the state nor private charity has made provision.

He may have been a mason, or a carpenter, or a foundry-man, but, for him blind, his former avocation is impossible. He must learn a new way of profitably using his energies. There are many things that a blind man or woman can do, but to him in his sudden affliction everything seems hopeless and impossible. He has never heard probably that a blind man can do any useful or profitable work.

Instead of the object lesson of a school shop, in which a blind man is taught to make brooms and purchasers found for

these brooms, he has the object lesson of a miserable dejected creature grinding a wheezy hurdy-gurdy, and sacrificing his self-respect in soliciting alms. Failing in this, is the other alternative of a strong well man spending half of his life as a pauper in the almshouse dissatisfied and unhappy, and at an ultimate expense to the community of many thousands of dollars. As an economic proposition the state should consider the needs of its adult blind men and women. Shop-schools where these people could be trained and a market found for the product of their labor should be established in every large center of population. The interest and sympathy of the local community should be enlisted in their behalf that personal contact may bring the aid and moral support to the struggling blind man that is lost in the machinery of organic state institutions.

The benefit accruing to the state and to the individual helper would be hardly less than that coming to the blind man himself in that one unit would be taken from the dependent column and placed on the side of the independent workers; the influence of one able to work yet receiving charity would be reversed; and the example of a blind man overcoming difficulties and standing alone would be a stimulus and an encouragement to every blind companion; while the consciousness of those supporting such an effort would be the happy satisfaction of helping the blind to a realization of their possibilities and giving them that highest satisfaction of remaining as fellow workers in a working world.

Dr. Forbush Comes to New York.—Those interested in boys' clubs and children's work generally, in New York, have had their ranks reinforced by the advent of the Rev. William Byron Forbush of Winthrop Church, Charlestown, who comes from Boston to the pastorate of the Madison Avenue (Dutch Reform) Church of New York, as colleague of Dr. Abbott E. Kittredge, himself, formerly pastor of Winthrop Church. Dr. Forbush is perhaps best known among social workers for his book *The Boy Problem*. He had led the way in applying the principles of modern psychology and education to the problems of the Sunday-school.

Legal Aid Society.—Cornelius P. Kitchel has been appointed chief attorney and counsel for the Legal Aid Society of New York, succeeding Rosalie Loew Whitney. Following his graduation from the Yale law school in 1901, Mr. Kitchel acted as secretary to Robert C. Morris, then president of the Republican County Committee, and since has been connected with the law firm of Morris & Fay. Mrs. Whitney has been identified with the Legal Aid Society for eight years, and her work has been marked by singular administrative and legal ability. Mr. and Mrs. Whitney are parents of a son.

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*Juvenile Court
Measures,
New York.*

Senator Armstrong, of Rochester, has introduced two important measures in the New York legislature affecting juvenile courts and probation. There is a strong movement in Rochester for the establishment of a separate juvenile court and these bills originated with the friends of that movement. They have been prepared after consultation with the attorney-general, representatives of the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, the State Charities Aid Association, and others.

Senate Bill No. 295 permits municipalities to provide—in their discretion—salaries for probation officers. It extends to the state at large a law passed last year relating to cities of the first class only, permitting children arrested for certain offenses to be paroled without bail in the custody of their parents or guardians until the following day. As to this bill no difference of opinion has been expressed.

Senate Bill 296 proposes to add to Section 289 of the penal code the substance of the Colorado law providing for the holding to their responsibilities of parents who omit to exercise due diligence in the control of their children, or who encourage, cause, or contribute to the delinquency of their children. The legal difficulties in framing a statute to adequately deal with this subject are admittedly serious. It is suggested by some that the existing provisions of the penal code providing for the punishment of those who cause or permit a child to be placed in such a situation or engage in such an occupation that its morals are likely to be impaired, and other kindred provisions, are adequate. On the other

hand, it is suggested that if these provisions are adequate their enforcement has been anything but general and efficient and that, therefore, some more explicit declaration is desirable.

The bill further provides that the probation system shall be made available for children brought before a court under Section 291 of the penal code, which relates principally to neglect or ill-treatment by parents. A provision similar to this is one of the distinctive features of the Illinois Juvenile Court law. In the childrens' courts in New York and Brooklyn a somewhat similar practical result is secured by adjourning or continuing such cases, the court requesting, meanwhile, some person to further investigate the circumstances. On the other hand it is held that it is better to authorize explicitly by statute the placing of such cases under the supervision of an authorized probation officer.

In regard to both provisions of this bill, Senate 296, there is, therefore, considerable difference of opinion. A hearing upon both bills has been announced for the afternoon of Monday, March 1, before the codes committee of the senate, and all interested should endeavor to be present.

*The Tenement-
house Law
Upheld.*

The New York Tenement-house law has again been upheld by the courts. Question was raised as to the section relating to tenements upon lots running through from one street to another. Where such a lot is more than 100 feet deep the law requires that there shall be, midway between the two streets, a yard not less than twenty-four feet wide and extending the entire width. The purpose of this section is perfectly clear—to

provide a yard at the rear of all houses in order to insure circulation of air down the middle of the block. The petitioners in this case filed plans with the Tenement-house Department for the erection of a building upon a lot running through from one street to another and having an average depth of 122 feet. They purposed having the house front on the two streets and allowed in their plans for courts having a combined area greater than the required yard. The tenement-house commissioner refused to accept the plans until the yard was provided. Thereupon the petitioners instituted mandamus proceedings seeking to compel the acceptance of their plans. In his decision Justice Leaventritt held that: "Courts cannot be substituted for yards. Inner or outer courts are additional to yard spaces, but cannot be substituted for them. The phrase 'entire width of the lot' is not of doubtful or ambiguous meaning. It does not mean two open spaces, interrupted by a solid wall of masonry, extending across the center of the lot midway between the two streets. It is, to my mind, so clear in its meaning that it cannot be better defined than by its own terms."

This decision is eminently wise and just. Had the mandamus been granted, speculative builders could buy lots on adjacent streets and erect huge dumb-bell tenements creating greater evils than those the law sought to prohibit.

Italy as "the Flower-Strewn Tomb" of Germany.

The Sanatorium Umberto I, erected at Leghorn for the consumptive poor of Italy, was opened in December. A distinguished physician of Pisa, who made the principal address of the occasion, spoke of the advantages of the Mediterranean climate in the modern method of treating tuberculosis and protested against the common saying that "the Italian coast is the flower-strewn tomb for the consumptives of Germany."

It is not improbable, however, that there is much of truth in the popular saying, just as it is true that in California a higher percentage of the mortality is due to consumption than in any other state. The fact is no disparagement to the climate of California or of the Medi-

terranean coast, but merely an indication that many consumptives go to it as a last resort; when, in fact, it is too late for them to hope for a cure anywhere.

Social Settlement Work in Newark.

The Newark Social Settlement Association, an organization of which J. William Clark is president, has issued a prospectus as the result of investigations carried on in Newark for the past few months by Royal L. Melendy, formerly of the Chicago Commons. The association plans first the maintenance of neighborhood houses, the first of these to grow up about the home of Mr. and Mrs. Melendy, at 555 Market street, in what is known as the "Iron-bound district"—the great factory district of Newark. This is the home of two large colonies, Italian and Slavic, the latter including Poles, Lithuanians, Hungarians and others. Beyond Van Buren street, "way down neck," and following the river, are the homes of thousands of German, English and Irish workmen and their families. Here are multitudes of tenements of evil type into which are crowded newly arrived, unskilled laborers, neat houses of skilled workmen and few houses of well-to-do families. The diversity of activities that the various needs of the district require was one reason for its selection. A second neighborhood house is planned among the negro population. Further, the association plans the investigation of social and industrial conditions in Newark and the establishment of a bureau of information. It will stand for co-operation with other agencies, for the extension of the settlement idea in homes advantageously situated, and for the bringing of the community as a whole "into a fuller sense of its social and economic unity." The task set is a large one—vitaly interesting because of the unique conditions presented in such a great manufacturing center as the city of Newark.

Recreation Centers Started.

The first definite steps taken in Newark as result of the work of the association and its secretary are auspicious.

The Newark public school system has been notable for its progressiveness. Newark was among the first cities in the

United States to establish a public high school; it has been in the forefront in establishing summer schools, evening schools and summer playgrounds. Its educational association has done effective work and one of the elements in the strength and balance of its system has been the organization of parents' associations connected with each of the schools. It was the federation of the parents' associations which took action which has now led the Board of Education to enter into what it calls "school extension work." Clubrooms and a gymnasium will be opened at what is known as the Commerce street school. The cost of remodeling rooms now unoccupied or only partially used will be slight, and during the experimental year Mr. Melendy has volunteered his services in charge of the recreation center. Assurances have been given that if successful, the plan will become a permanent part of the local educational system.

*Alcohol as
a Consumption
Remedy.*

Dr. W. H. Wiley, chief chemist of the department of agriculture, is reported to have made the statement, before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, that "among the food material which has justly attained a high place as nutriment for persons troubled with tuberculosis is alcohol, most commonly used in the forms of beer, wine, whiskey and brandy."

This item in the *New York Times* brought forth a characteristic letter from Dr. S. A. Knopf, who protested vehemently against the "harm that is done by such announcements in the public press, whether the distinguished scientist has been reported correctly or incorrectly." Dr. Knopf went on to say:

Extensive experience in the treatment of tuberculosis has convinced me that alcohol can never be considered a food for the consumptive. There is so little food value in alcohol, and it is so easy to overstep the amount that can be assimilated by the system, in which case the deleterious effects far exceed the benefit derived, that it is not safe to recommend it as a food at all. It may be possible to apparently arrest the disease in a consumptive by making a drunkard of him, but this will not be lasting; on the contrary, the disease will soon break out again, and the general

system will have suffered by the secondary effects of the excess of alcohol to such an extent that all the natural resisting power to the new invasion of the tubercle bacilli will have been destroyed.

To preach that alcohol is a food in tuberculosis is to my mind an error so grave, so fearfully dangerous, that I repeat that I cannot let it pass without the strongest possible protest. The average person will say that if good whiskey will cure consumption, it will certainly also prevent it. Alcoholism, with its fearful consequences, will be on the increase. A statement praising alcohol as a food in tuberculosis, if really made by that distinguished government official, will be used as a means to advertise all brands of strongly alcoholic beverages as "sure cures for consumption."

We are only just beginning in our anti-tuberculosis campaign to educate the people to the fact that alcohol never was a food for consumptives, never cured and never will cure tuberculosis. We are cautioning all our consumptive poor against the use of alcohol, and urging them to spend their money for milk, eggs, and meat instead. Not only will the poor consumptive himself derive no benefit from taking alcohol as food, but often the children must suffer for it. It has happened again and again that because some one had said that alcohol was good for consumption, wife and children were in want of food because the consumptive husband and father needed so much money for "the sure whiskey cure."

No unbiased physician will deny that in a few isolated cases a judiciously prescribed dose of alcohol may do good to combat certain symptoms in consumption, but large doses, often repeated, are absolutely harmful in tuberculosis, and I venture to say, in all other diseases as well.

Communications to "Charities."

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

*The Hospital
Situation
in New York—
One Hospital's
Experience.*

You have placed the private hospitals of Greater New York under deep obligation to you for the most thorough discussion from time to time of the financial problems with which they are continuously struggling

If you can make room for the following article, containing a statement of the efforts of one hospital and a suggestion concerning all hospitals, it may aid in this discussion. The Methodist Episcopal hospital is not one of the largest in the city, and yet it cared for about 2,500 patients in its wards and rooms last year, and over 20,000 visits were made to the out-patient department.

During the past few days the daily papers have very kindly referred to the effort now being made to increase the endowment fund of the Methodist Episcopal (Seney) hospital and to complete its unfinished buildings.

Indeed, their presentation has been rosier than the facts would warrant and on that account fears have been entertained that contrary to the intention, injury rather than help might come to the hospital.

I am quite sure a statement of the principal facts leading up to, and in connection with, this undertaking will be of interest to many of your readers who are interested in the hospital work of the city and the perplexing problems of their inadequate support.

Like nearly all hospitals, the Methodist Episcopal hospital has been overcrowded for several years, and like all church and private hospitals the financial burden has been a good deal of a problem. Year after year the board of managers and the friends of the hospital found it necessary to provide for deficits.

Two years ago this month, before the discussion of hospital finances was seriously begun in a public way, William Halls, Jr., vice-president of the board of managers, reached the conclusion that something must be done to make up the difference between the income from paying patients and generous individuals and the annual outlay. The interest-bearing endowment was a little over \$400,000. Mr. Halls saw that three things were necessary:

1. That the endowment must be increased to at least \$850,000.
2. That a debt of about \$75,000 created several years ago by the erection of indispensable service buildings should be removed.
3. That the unfinished buildings must be brought to completion so that a much larger number of free and paying patients might be cared for.

But Mr. Halls went further than simply pointing out our needs. He and his wife offered to complete the unfinished buildings at a cost not to exceed \$125,000, provided the board of managers and friends of the hospital should raise a fund of at least \$500,000 so that the \$75,000 debt might be paid and the endowment fund increased by the addition of \$425,000. To this definite and generous proposition a splendid response is being made by many of the most important Methodist churches both in and out of the city. One church at a Sunday morning service pledged \$25,000. The members of another church privately pledged over \$30,000. Two other churches \$10,000 each. Many of the smaller churches have pledged from \$500 to \$5,000.

The work of securing subscriptions has been so successful that many have feared that the income for current expenses would be materially reduced, but that has not been the case. More churches and a larger number of individuals have contributed than ever before. This year we shall have our deficit, but we are confident that it will be several thousand dollars less than last year,

when our shortage amounted to nearly ten thousand dollars.

We are as yet \$200,000 short of the minimum sum asked for, but Mr. and Mrs. Halls, rejoicing over the success already achieved, and in order to encourage the board to greater diligence, have offered to begin work at once upon the main building, leaving the third and last of the group of buildings to be finished when the remaining \$200,000 are subscribed.

Frank Tucker in CHARITIES proposes that a committee independent of the hospitals shall raise \$10,000,000, the interest of which shall be distributed among the hospitals according to the number of free days' treatment given.¹ Any plan which will help these institutions that are doing so much educational, scientific and Good Samaritan work should be treated with great respect; but if I am not mistaken there is a shorter, more thorough, and more far-reaching way, without multiplying committees or creating more machinery, to be found in the determined effort of each hospital board to increase its own endowment fund. When each board determines just *how* large its endowment fund must be, and then resolves itself into a finance committee that will not be content with passing resolutions, but will go and hunt up the men whom they know personally to set the facts before them, the endowment fund will grow speedily to the desired proportions.

The greater effectiveness of efforts put forth by each board can further be argued from the fact that the different hospital boards touch different veins of wealth. Some believe in college hospitals, some in the church hospitals for which their denominations are responsible. The Presbyterians are responsible for the Presbyterian hospital, the Episcopalians for St. Luke's and St. John's, the Methodists for the Methodist Episcopal hospital. Others would single out the great hospitals like the New York and Roosevelt because of the men associated with these institutions, whose names are so well known in the life of New York.

Many will come to the aid of institutions with whose work they are most familiar. Men and women, and larger numbers of them, will give to a specific institution rather than to help create a great central fund independent of the hospitals.

Are the hospital boards powerless under the present conditions?

Are we to believe that the Presbyterian hospital is to be so impaired as to income that it will radically change its policy? And possibly pass over its splendid property to the city? No, we do not believe anything of the kind concerning the Pres-

¹ Superintendent Kavanagh has hardly comprehended the scope of the committee and the use of the income of the fund suggested by Mr. Tucker. As we understand the latter's proposition the committee would have more important work than the distribution of income, and the distribution would be based on something else than the number of free days.

byterian or any other hospital that has demonstrated its right to be.

Any one with an adequate knowledge of business men in New York can turn to any of the annual reports of these institutions and pick out a committee that could with comparative ease raise among their friends any endowment that they would show was absolutely necessary for the well-being of the hospital they represent. What is needed most is not "a great central fund," but a few strong men in each board who will take hold of matters in a heroic way. It is not enough to point out the lamentable condition of things, to declare that the citizens of this great city are not interested. All of that may be true. Perhaps their minds and hearts are so full of other great and worthy projects that they need information direct from the hearts and heads of men who understand the needs of the hospitals.

It is not enough to point out that men have failed to aid. We must personally present the matter to them and show them how to assist.

To accomplish the largest results in the shortest time there should be concert of action. Let each board report what is being done to increase its endowment fund, and the results of its efforts. The daily and church papers will gladly come to their assistance, and twelve months will change the tune of the annual reports being issued by the different hospitals.

A. S. KAVANAGH,

Superintendent M. E. Hospital.

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

A
Suggestion
for Settlement
Workers.

A few weeks ago a little party of settlement workers journeyed to Dobbs Ferry to visit the recently completed buildings of the new cottage colony into which the New York Juvenile Asylum intends to move its little charges within a few months. A visit to the place surrounded by the woodlands and farmlands belonging to the estate proves more convincingly than columns of printed matter, that the advantages offered by the little home groups of cottages (but twenty are allotted to each cottage) in the open hilly country, must do more for its wards in one year than could be accomplished in one decade under the old institutional form of administration. Each visitor to the spot felt a personal sense of relief at this proof of the passing of the institutionalized child, no longer to be subjected to the deadening routine which has hitherto necessarily characterized many of the best-managed institutions.

A further investigation of the new system brought about an interesting discussion of the interrelationship of settlement and institution. The settlement workers were gratified to learn that almost none of the children whose interest had been gained by the settlements are ever com-

mitted to the asylum for delinquency. Then came up the questions as to whether the settlements could not help in the reconstruction of delinquents as well as in the prevention. Suppose a child from the cottage colony having received all the expansive educational advantages which bracing air, country life, abundant exercise, advanced school and industrial training, and pronounced home influence can give—return again to his home in the congested part of New York, what then? That is the first question which comes to the thoughtful mind looking ahead into the probable future of the little ones so benefited here. In the training for the different trades and in the acquired love of farm and outdoor life there is, of course, the probability that the child may try to get a fresh start in life elsewhere than in the great city's excitements and vicious environments. But suppose he must return to his old home? Will he have become habituated to a higher standard of living or will he drift back to the old associates, to the old temptations, to the old expedients for obtaining unlawfully what he has learned lawfully? Here is just where the opportunity of the settlement worker comes in. If the child's return to his old home could be reported in advance to the settlement in his particular district, the workers there would gladly co-operate with the asylum in keeping the feet of its ex-wards from straying back into the old haunts. If immediately upon his return he should, for instance, be visited by one of the residents of the nearest settlement and interested in the various clubs for printing, carpentering, debating, dancing and theatricals, which so often charm the neighborhood boys away from harmful seductions, it is more than probable that he could be tided over the period of readaption, the most dangerous period in his home coming. His interest once enlisted in the settlement clubs, it is also probable that the good seed planted during his stay in the home colony would spring up and bear fruit in his natural home environment, making him not only self-helpful, but helpful, too, to those who have taken an interest in him.

This is merely by way of suggestion to show how often co-ordination in philanthropic activities not only prevents duplication of effort, but brings about better results. The subject of the correlation of our forces in charitable work is not a new one, but it is one which we are apt to lose sight of in our interest in specialized forms of charity. In forecasting our year's work with a view to obtaining the best results from our output of time, thought and strength, would it not be well for each to give more consideration to the dovetailing possibilities of the many branches of our work?

CHARLOTTE BREWSTER JORDAN.

NEW YORK.

Notes of the Week.

Young Men's Christian Association and Charity Organization Society.—Prof. Thomas K. Urdahl of Colorado College writes to the editor of CHARITIES, suggesting that it would be desirable in small towns to have as secretary of the local Young Men's Christian Association a man who has been trained to charitable work, and who can be the executive of the local charity organization society as well as of the Young Men's Christian Association. In many towns where there is some work in both directions to be done, there is not a sufficient amount of money to justify an engagement of either separately. Of course, it is not every charity worker who would succeed in religious work, or conversely, by any means, every Young Men's Christian Association's secretary who would be successful in straightening out the tangled affairs of dependent families. Moreover, although the Young Men's Christian Association is unsectarian as among Protestant churches, the connection would somewhat handicap a charitable worker in his relations with Jews and Catholics. Still there are many committees in which the number of dependent Jewish and Catholic families is not large, and where such a combination as is suggested by Professor Urdahl is quite feasible. The suggestion is commended to the consideration of those who are desirous of organizing charitable work in such communities.

A Greek Daily in New York.—The latest addition to the grist of daily papers dealing with the life of the foreign colonies in New York is the *Atlantis*. This paper, the first newspaper to be published in Greek in the United States, was founded twelve years ago and has passed successively through the stages of weekly, semi-weekly and tri-weekly, indicative of the increasing immigration from Eastern Europe. The *New York Evening Post* points out, however, that the *Atlantis* is not so rare as certain other offsprings of cosmopolitan journalism in Manhattan. There is a Japanese paper, to say nothing of journals devoted to Hebrew, German, English, Scotch, Irish, French, Hungarian, Slovak, Bohemian, Scandinavian, Croatian, Magyar, and Polish interests.

College Settlement Changes.—Miss Elizabeth R. Williams, headworker of the College Settlement, is on a six months' leave of absence, which will be spent largely in Europe. Miss Ethel R. Evans, formerly of the College Settlement, and later of Ridgewood House, Brooklyn, is acting headworker in her absence.

A Philanthropic Self-Imposed Stamp Tax.—The Danish government has issued a new stamp of the value of a half cent, the proceeds from the sale of which are to be used to augment the fund for a sanatorium for tuberculous children. The stamp has

a picture of the late queen and is affixed by those charitably inclined to all postal matters in addition to the regular postage. Twenty-seven thousand dollars has already been raised in this way. The plan has found a favorable reception among the Danes and is being considered for adoption in other European countries.

An Analysis of Applicants.—The United Hebrew Charities of Philadelphia in its last annual report makes an analysis of the families in accordance with the amounts of relief contributed to each. Of 482 families aided with money, 300 received sums not to exceed \$50, while 182 received sums ranging from \$50 to \$280. Thirty-six of these received above \$150, and sixteen upwards of \$200 each during the year. Of 835 applicants 249 were due to illness—eighty-eight being cases of tuberculosis—and more than ten per cent were due to desertion on the part of husband or wife.

A Hospital Kindergarten.—A hospital kindergarten has been opened at Bellevue by the Board of Education for the convalescent children there. Every afternoon aches are forgotten, and fretfulness is chased away by kindergarten occupations and games adopted to the condition of the children. The Bellevue kindergarten is the first one of this sort to be supported by the Board of Education, but there have been two or three experiments in other hospitals under the auspices of the New York City Kindergarten Association, and the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society.

"Glenwood," a Private Institution for Epileptics.—Dr. William P. Sprattling, the former superintendent of Craig Colony for Epileptics, has established, in association with Dr. J. W. Wherry and Leo D. Woodworth, a private institution for the treatment and care of epileptics at Dansville, N. Y., to which the name of "Glenwood" has been given. The Health Resort Company, which is to conduct the institution, has its executive offices in Rochester. Cooperation is assured from many specialists and institutions in all parts of the country.

New York Monday Club.—The February meeting of the New York Monday Club will be held on the evening of the 27th in the rooms of the Children's Aid Society, 105 East Twenty-second street, the reception committee being the staff of that organization. An attractive program has been arranged with descriptive addresses of the work of the society; music by the newsboys' band; a clog dance by newsboys and refreshments prepared by the cooking class of the industrial schools.

New York Prison Commission.—Edwin O. Holter of New York city has been appointed a member of the New York State Prison Commission by Governor Higgins. Mr. Holter is a graduate of Yale, and is counted as one of the successful younger men of the New York bar—energetic and practical.

The Decennial Congress About Boys

E. Stagg Whitin

Speyer School, New York

The tenth Annual Congress of the Alliance of Workers With Boys which was held in Boston, February 14, met under usually pleasant circumstances as a part of the general program of the convention of the Religious Education Association. The congress was presided over by Judge Ben B. Lindsey, of Denver, who brightened its drier parts with some of his characteristic stories of boy life. A large number of states were represented, besides the local attendance—400 in all.

At the morning session the topic *The Boy in the Country Boy*.

The Country Boy was treated in four papers. The Rev. Herbert A. Jump, pastor of the College Church, Brunswick, Me., read the first of these, which proved perhaps the most interesting of the day. In brief he held that the problem of the country boy is for the most part that of the village boy. Like his brothers of the city, the village boy is made of dust and electricity. It is in his needs that he differs. The country boy is less ambitious. His life is one in which there is too much quiet. The solution of this problem is in making him alive. He has only reached the tribal stage of his existence. We are told that nature study will accomplish wonders, but for the country boy contact with nature itself does not seem to accomplish the hoped for results. Flowers are not ethics. He is less a supporter of clubs than the city lad, with a tendency to be dull resulting probably from the fact that his physical nature tends to outstrip the mental.

In the country the problem of the boy has not been attacked as it has in the city and the great lack of appliances makes the problem hard. The country home is good when it is a real one, but often it is destitute of the life the growing boy most needs. The country church has proved itself inadequate to solve the problem. "Feed and fun" is the answer that one boy gave as his solution of the problem and with him Dr. Jump agreed.

The boy does not love to attend prayer meetings as a rule. The church must use other means for it cannot afford to lose the boys. The churching of the boy to-day is the manning of the church tomorrow.

In the village school the country boys' club should find a safe home. It is unsectarian, which means a great deal in a village. For such a club both public and private funds are more largely obtained. But if the school is to be the home of the club, Dr. Jump warned his hearers that it must not be run by either teachers or preachers. It must be educational in its spirit yet this education must tend along the lines of the sciences and industries.

The next speaker, George Robley Howe, described an experiment in work with boys at Norway, Me., in which he showed how a small town was actually transformed by the work of a boys' club. He said that the results were especially the outcome of what he called "superior man work." This was accomplished by personal work, using the device of written papers contributed by the boys on the subjects of vital interest to them. These proved most often to be the opening wedge to training in the physical sciences and morals.

In speaking on the chivalric idea in work with boys, Frank Lincoln Masseck, king of the Knights of King Arthur, said in brief, "Boys manifest a spontaneous tendency to organize by themselves. Left alone these organizations tend to disorder and triviality. Hence, the waste of adolescent life. This tendency should be directed by adult leaders. President Hall, in his recent work *The Psychology of Adolescence*, says 'for this purpose there is nothing better than the idealized court of King Arthur.' This provides situations of the most helpful, inspiring and uplifting character, which appeal directly to the boys. This scheme has been practically true in churches, Y. M. C. A.'s and under almost all condi-

tions, with wonderful success. Communities have been transformed under its influence." The final speaker, Myron T. Scudder, principal of the New Paltz Normal School, read a paper on the civic idea in work with boys, dwelling on the need of civic training in the cities where the great problem is the amalgamation of so many different nationalities. The School City, which was the plan proposed to aid in accomplishing this work among the children, is self-government adopted to the needs of a school. The school of to-day, affirmed the speaker, is a despotism. If we are to train the boy to control himself in a school or club he must be allowed to govern himself. With sample ballots and other illustrative material, he showed how the School City actually does its work of governing and judging. He affirmed that the penalties inflicted by the miniature courts should be in the form of construction work, not time-serving. As a summary of the principles underlying the School City, he held that this learning by doing tends to produce in the individual (1) acquaintance with practical government; (2) use of the ballot; (3) social service and a civic spirit.

In the discussion that followed an appeal was made for the farm boy and a suggestion offered that the Grange might with the school be a means of reaching him.

The City Boy. The afternoon session took up the problem of the city boy. The opening paper by Edward Augustine Benner, principal of the Wellesley School for Boys and director of Camp Wellesley, told of a seven years' work with city boys at both camp and school. In both life was reduced to a system. The industrial side was fully developed along practical lines and in activities about the camp and school. The life of the winter school was as nearly like the camp as it is possible to make it. Other papers emphasized co-operation among clubs and workers with the city boy. William Chauncey Langdon, of Pratt Institute, described the workings of the Juvenile City League of New York. He urged that this civic work be incorporated in the history and hygiene taught in school. George D. Pratt told of the Sunday-school Athletic League of Brooklyn. The

league, which was organized by Dr. Fisher, of the Central Y. M. C. A., aims to make the attendance on Sunday-school more regular and to better the work of the Sunday-schools. Attendance for four Sundays previous to the entering the games is required of all contestants.

The writer spoke briefly on the need of ascertaining the principle underlying the whole boy problem, pointing out the new developments in education. It was shown that now the problem rising out of the disharmony of our industrial system and our present education, is being studied by the school men themselves, a great change in educational methods should result. But what is needed by these educators to-day is a definite statement from those who are the experts in boys' work as to the needs of the working boy both in his preparation before he goes to work and again in the period of his apprenticeship. The suggestion was made that a committee be appointed to try to work out a definite statement in regard to these problems as the result of the experience acquired during the ten years of the existence of the association.

In the discussion which ensued Dr. Doggett, of the Springfield Training School, proposed an affiliation of the association of Boys' Club Workers with the Y. M. C. A. This was seconded by Mr. Bourne of the Worcester Y. M. C. A. The special address of the session was delivered by William Byron Forbush, the founder of the association, on *Ten Years of Work with Boys*. He traced the development of the work from the founding of the Salem Fraternity in 1869, showing that while the Y. M. C. A., the churches, the settlement clubs, and street-boy clubs are working well, yet the city problem is unsolved. The field of the country boy was also dwelt upon and contrasted with the work for boys of wealthy parents. This latter class the speaker felt are in great need of help. Finally he held that what had been attempted has been to extend the propaganda by conferences and publications, and to increase the number and efficiency of the leaders of boys' work. The conference adjourned after electing Judge Lindsey, of Denver, its president for the ensuing year.

The New Jersey State Conference of Charities and Correction

The New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction opened in the State House, at Trenton, Thursday evening, February 16. In his address as president, E. R. Johnstone, of Vineland, emphasized the need of central supervision and inspection, commending the bill now pending before the state legislature, for the creation of the office of commissioner of charities and correction, as recommended by the governor. Governor Stokes made an appreciative reply and repeated much of his inaugural address (already reviewed in CHARITIES), with regard to the needs of the hour. The principal address of the evening was by Bishop Lines, of the Episcopal diocese of Newark, on *Charity Old and New*. Bishop Lines laid emphasis on the value of the unpaid service of leading men and women, who direct not only the private charities but also many of the state institutions. The address was directed to a broad view of the charity problem, distinctly from the Charity Organization Society standpoint.

Friday morning the conference dealt with the care and protection of children, Mrs. E. E. Williamson in the chair. The first paper, by Miss Emily W. Dinwiddie, of the Charity Organization Society of New York, was an interesting study of *The Child in the Tenements*; the second, by Mrs. Charles Reed, of North Plainfield, on *Summer Homes for Children*, describing the work of a society of King's Daughters. A. W. Abbott, of the Children's Aid Society of Orange, read a paper on *The Minimum Standard of Requirements in Foster Homes*, but declared that no such standard should be set up, that the best homes which can be found are the kind we want. Mr. Abbott suggested great watchfulness against those people who apply for children to make into domestic drudges. He concluded by an emphatic assertion that there is need of complete and thorough supervision by a state agency of placed-out children. This led to an animated discussion which was taken part in by the

Rev. W. W. Knox, of New Brunswick; the Rev. Mr. Hamilton, of Paterson; the Rev. Father Moran, of Arlington; Dr. Groszmann, of Plainfield, and the president. The theory of state supervision was challenged by several of the speakers. A. W. Bishop, of Paterson, president of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, in a paper on *State Supervision of Private Child Caring Societies*, claimed that there are 200 child-helping agencies in New Jersey, all of them placing out, many having little permanency. He made a strong plea for a central registration so that in case of loss by fire, or the decay of a society, the children might not slip out of sight. A. W. McDougall, of the Newark Bureau of Charities, made a plea for state supervision not only of child-placing agencies, but of all charitable societies.

Thomas F. Fay, president of the State Home for Girls, spoke on the reform school work, laying emphasis on its industrial features, while the Rev. Henry R. Rose, of Newark, followed with an eloquent plea for the higher culture by means of lectures, and other literary features. Harry L. Barck, Jr., of Hoboken, spoke of the children of foreign-born parents, and Hugh F. Fox closed the debate.

The afternoon session was occupied by a consideration of dependents, the general subject being *Public Outdoor Aid to the Dependent Poor*. A. W. McDougall presided and introduced the general topic. He claimed that not only is it possible to much improve the present administration, but that the laws of New Jersey are obsolete and should be brought up to date. Mr. McDougall admitted that there is a preponderance of opinion in favor of the abolition of public outdoor relief, but claimed that the time for this abolition depends on local conditions.

The legal status of the present day administration of the overseer-of-the-poor's department in New Jersey cities and

*Outdoor
Relief.*

towns was presented by Vivian M. Lewis, clerk in chancery of Paterson. Mr. Lewis said that the poor laws of the state are voluminous and are certainly more in favor of the poor than the rich. The overseer of the poor is the important man in the case, and maladministration when it occurs is the result of his negligence. In some cities and small villages the law is followed very closely. In some the administration is loose and even corrupt, so that not the most needy but often the most vicious, at any rate those with the most "pull," receive the best attention. These laws have never been codified nor revised, and are in some cases inharmonious, hence come many of the errors complained of. The debate following was by J. J. Mulvany, who said that overseers do not correctly estimate their duties as trustees of the state, taking views based too much upon the affairs of their immediate vicinity. The speaker declared that the laws governing settlement are especially archaic. For all other purposes a man's domicile is that which he has taken up with the intention of remaining. Even an immigrant can gain a residence for all purposes in one year. But for the purposes of the poor laws, the insane laws, etc., ten years' residence is required. As a matter of fact the litigation over settlement costs as much in some cases as the necessary relief for many months. The desirable thing would be to consolidate and put into one code the laws relating to the poor, child labor, dependency, the placing-out of children, compulsory education and all other subjects cognate. The speaker urged that the conference attempt with the present legislature to secure codification.

Thomas A. Davis spoke on *Delinquent and Deserting Husbands—Can the Probation Theory be Applied?* The present New Jersey law is weak in so far as it affects deserting men who cannot give a bond. Imprisonment of the delinquents cannot help the family, the courts frequently discharging the man under a provision of the law which says that if it is shown that imprisonment will not produce the support of the family he may be discharged. The Children's Aid Society of the Oranges has taken up the matter. The plan of employing the sentenced man

in prison at remunerative work, and paying over what he earns to his family, although it looks attractive, Mr. Davis held it to be impracticable. But there may be a plan found, he asserted, by means of a probation system devolving its duties upon the overseer of the poor, making him the probation officer in such cases.

Otto W. Davis, of Paterson, read the final paper of the session on co-operation between the Charity Organization Society and the overseers of the poor. His paper was based upon reports from all cities of the United States of over 100,000 inhabitants, and showed an excellent degree of co-operation in many cities. The paper showed statistically the situation in New Jersey cities, in which the co-operation varies from none at all to very thorough work. Mr. Nicholls described the method and effects of the administration of public outdoor relief in Paterson.

Harry Barek, overseer of the poor in Hoboken, described the work of the overseer in the smaller city, including as it does office work and the investigation as well, without assistants. He claimed that the overseer is at present in fact the probation officer of the non-supporting husband.

Alexander Johnson, associate director of the New York School of Philanthropy, spoke on the outdoor relief problem and said the question was chiefly a matter of administration, the important thing being not the material aid which is, or should be, regarded as a means to an end, but the constructive work of charity which relief is to make possible.

Bleecker Van Wagenen, of Orange, spoke of the matters of codification of the poor laws and urged that a committee be appointed to report a resolution to the state legislature in the hope that measures may be taken at once to codify the present laws and to possibly suggest some amendments.

The evening session was presided over by John L. Swayze, assistant attorney-general of New Jersey, the topic being the care of defectives. Mr. Swayze described the practical working of the state's dealing with defectives. E. R. Johnstone suggested that medical inspection in the public schools should not be confined to the detection of disease, but should also be

psychological and disclose the mental defects of the children when they exist.

Principal McCallie in a paper on *Backward Children in the Public Schools* presented statistics in a graphic manner showing the degree of backwardness measured by the numbers in each succeeding grade from the first to the twelfth. The inquiry was made by Mr. McCallie assisted by 146 of the teachers in the Trenton schools. Something like ten per cent of the scholars were found to be so far backward that special rooms should be established for them. Manual training is their greatest need.

Miss Margaret Bancroft, of Haddonfield, called attention to the need of distinction between backwardness and feeble-mindedness, holding that the really feeble-minded should be cared for in special schools, not special rooms.

Dr. Groszmann, of Plainfield, emphasized the facts reported by Principal McCallie, and stated further that defectives are found not only in the public schools but in the state reformatory and other institutions. He declared that in the public schools twenty-five per cent are in some way exceptional as regards hearing, sight, mental weakness or otherwise, much of it due to malnutrition; that all these should have if not special schools, yet special instruction; and that it is almost incredible how many childish defects are unobserved by the parents and ignored in the schools.

Dr. Evans, of Morris Plains, spoke on the inebriate as a dependent. He demonstrated that the result of inebriety in the second generation is to create hundreds of defectives, insane, idiots, epileptics, etc., who must be supported by the state; therefore it would be proper to care for and control the habitual drunkard by committing him to the state hospital. This he held should be done for the poor as well as for the rich who can pay for the expense of commitment.

The Rev. F. A. Foy, of Avondale, discussed the inebriate from the moral side. He questioned the economic possibility of caring for all inebriates by commitment to state institutions.

The morning session of Saturday was devoted to delinquents with Miss Mary

Philbrook, of Newark, in the chair. Statements regarding their respective institutions were made by the Rev. Aloys M. Fish, chaplain of the State Prison; Mrs. E. V. H. Mansell, superintendent of the State Home for Girls; Superintendent Kalleen, of the State Home for Boys; Superintendent Martin, of the State Reformatory for Men, and Superintendent Carl Heller, of the Newark City Home.

Wm. H. Spear, prosecuting attorney of Trenton, made an address on the need for a woman's reformatory. He claimed that the county jails are hotbeds of crime and nurseries of criminals, that they therefore increase instead of decrease, the amount of crime; that while the state has provided reformatories for juveniles and for men, there is still a felt and urgent need of proper arrangements for the control and reformation of women criminals; and that it is clearly the duty of the legislature to provide a reformatory for women, a reformatory of the best type, well equipped, and efficiently managed. Mr. Speer's address was convincing and forcible.

Father Fish explained the weakness of the parole system as practiced in the prisons of New Jersey, especially the defect that there is no officer whose duty it is to inspect the paroled men and make sure that they are not violating their parole. The methods and the parole systems of the other institutions were explained in some detail.

Mrs. Williamson emphasized the fact that reformatory work is and must be a work of education. Judge Sweeney, of Newark, spoke on the extension of the probation system, beginning with the juvenile court, which he said ought to sit as a city court, with daily sessions, so that every case might be disposed of promptly. He would apply the probation system to drunkards, would have every case investigated by the probation officer, instead of merely those cases which the officer selects because he considers them hopeful.

Mrs. Williamson reported on the Juvenile Court of Hudson county. The officials have become converted to its usefulness and are helpful notwithstanding the fact that it increases their work. Careful pre-investigations are made of every case, the parents are always brought into

court, and their responsibility is made clear with excellent results. Mr. Stephens, reporting for the Juvenile Court in Jersey City, said the system of inflicting fines which parents must pay and remitting these when they work too much hardship, has had excellent effect. Mr. Edwards reported that in Mercer county no fine is inflicted unless the accused is a wage-earner himself; the parental responsibility, however, is made clear and positive.

The president announced that the conference would honor itself by paying a tribute to the memory of its most distinguished and useful member, the late Charlton T. Lewis, who was with the conference last year, and whose influence will

long remain. Those who spoke in memory of Mr. Lewis were Mr. Fox, Mrs. Williamson and Mr. Johnson, who paid a tribute in the name of the National Conference of Charities.

The conference on the whole was a great success, the papers were well balanced, if there was a criticism possible it was that the work was too much pre-arranged, that there was not sufficient time allowed for free discussion. The interest manifested was excellent. The time and place for the next conference were left to the executive committee, but it is understood that it will probably be held in one of the northern towns of the state. Bleecker Van Wagenen, of Orange, was elected president.

Effects of Enforced Idleness on Convicts.

[*The Journal of the American Medical Association.*]

One special phase of the labor problem that comes to the front every little while is the question of the effects of the anti-convict labor laws on the health and mortality of prisoners. Owing to the demands of the labor unions, several states have passed laws which prohibit contract labor in the prisons, and which seriously embarrass the prison authorities in the management and discipline of the institutions. It is a well-known fact that idleness of prisoners tends to physical and mental deterioration; an increase of insanity, as well as a general impairment of the health and well-being of the prisoners, has generally followed the enacting of the laws aforesaid. Even under the best of conditions, with plenty of work, some mental deterioration is inevitable in prisoners. Add to this the restlessness and worry of enforced idleness, and the chances of mental breakdown are vastly increased. If our criminal laws were strictly punitive in their intent it would still be a serious question for criminologists whether it is just to add the deprivation of reason to the other punishments contemplated in the law. Yet this is practically what is being done in a large number of cases when convict labor is prohibited or seriously restricted. It would be, perhaps, more merciful and certainly more economical to the state to re-enact the old laws making capital punishment for nearly every serious crime. Under the enforced idleness plan, many a

short sentence is made practically one for life; for prison-bred insanity is not, as a rule, of a curable type. The economic side of the question need not be discussed; its aspects are self-evident. The legislators who pass such laws, and those behind who advocate them, have a serious responsibility to meet—a responsibility in which the medical profession shares if it fails to raise its voice in protest.

Evening Schools in London.—Londoners are discussing whether evening schools are a failure and there is a body of people who are claiming that drastic changes are necessary if they are not to be the means of "wasting the money of the rate payers and the time of the students." An examination was held in the classes for elementary mathematics which have a weekly attendance of 1,917 students. The number sounds magnificent, says one commentator, but when one learns that only fifty-seven entered for the examination and of these only thirteen contrived to obtain half marks, one feels that the figure is very deceptive, especially when it appears that five out of the students who took the first six places were attending day as well as evening classes. Statistics of this sort are serious in their import, bearing pointedly upon the question of child labor, but the purpose of this note is rather to tell of a delightful Irish pun which found its way into one of the history papers and made amends for no end of absurdly stupid answers. It was this: "Cromwell always wore an iron shirt so that he could not be hurt if a bullet went through him."

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*Chicago's
Municipal
Museum.*

The formal opening of the Municipal Museum in Chicago is another indication that the tide of public affairs is rapidly turning from the low ebb of a very few years ago toward the flood of better things coming and to come. Further, the fact that the museum has had ample space provided for it in the Public Library Building is indicative of the closer co-operation coming about between public authorities and private agencies. The exhibits comprise both a permanent collection purchased from various sources, and an exceptionally fine lot of loaned exhibits from the Social Economy Department of the St. Louis fair.

Chicago has thus, with characteristic energy, laid hold of the idea which found embodiment in the model street at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. It is an enterprise frankly fashioned after European undertakings of a similar character, especially those expressive of progressive municipal development in Germany.

Happily coincident with the opening of the museum, came a decision of the state Supreme Court reaffirming the eligibility to the chief sanitary inspectorship of Charles B. Ball who recently filled a similar office under Mayor Low's administration in the Tenement-house Department of New York city. City departments requiring expert service are thus authorized to secure available experts wherever they are to be found. Although Mr. Ball had passed the civil service examination with the highest grade, a lower court had decided against his eligibility as a non-resident. The City Home Association carried the case to the Appellate Court, meanwhile keeping Mr. Ball on the field.

*The National
Child Labor
Meeting.*

The event of the month in New York, from a philanthropic standpoint, has been the holding of the first annual meeting of the National Child Labor Committee. The impetus already manifesting itself in this interstate movement was attested by the success of the meeting despite the enforced absence of two of the men most largely instrumental in the formation of the committee—Edgar Gardner Murphy and Felix Adler. To sum up the situation, Dr. Adler's own words can well be used:

The one great positive reason why child servitude should not be permitted is a biological and ethical one. It is the need for the longer period of infancy and youth, and the greater preparation and care in development, the higher the order of human or animal life. Arrested development means mal-development. The child of stunted growth and stunted mind does not only stop short; it goes wrong.

The abolition of child labor is a reform of the first magnitude, and it has the advantage of being one in which we can all agree. There are so many upon which we cannot agree—socialism, single-tax—what not—there are so many differences of opinion—but this is a reform upon which all right-thinking persons should be able to agree. I believe that it has a great pedagogical advantage in that if the American states and the people in those states shall once have learned to recognize that the child is industrially taboo, that there is something in child nature which must not be violated, sacred possibilities there which must not be infringed, rights, human rights, which must be respected. I am convinced . . . that the same train of reasoning will be applied to adults, and that we shall be more disposed to admit than we are now that the laborer too, the adult laborer, cannot be regarded as a mere tool; that in him, as in the child, there is something sacred, certain rights which we must not violate.

*The Portland
Conference
July 15-22.*

Interest in the Portland meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction is beginning to manifest itself in earnest and many are the vacations which will be spent on the Pacific coast by charity workers and supporters from East and Middle West. When at the meeting last June in Portland, Me., it was decided to swing across the continent to Portland, Ore., for the session of 1905, there was some disgruntlement that the conference was going to the opposite corner of the Union. But now that the cheapness and recreational possibilities of the trip begin to show themselves, many of the members are resolving themselves into promotion committees to stir up a large attendance. The Great Lakes, the Yellowstone Park, and British Columbia on the one hand, and California and the Southern Rockies on the other, all as feasible sidetrips going or coming, and rates made low on account of the holding of the Lewis and Clark Exposition in Portland, are potent inducements.

The Western Passenger Association has granted a round-trip fare from Missouri river points and from St. Paul, of \$45. The fare from points within the Central Passenger Association territory is \$56.50 from Chicago, \$52.50 from St. Louis. The Eastern Trunk Line Committee has granted rates making the round trip from New York \$88.50, Philadelphia \$85.70, Baltimore and Washington \$83.70. These tickets will be sold July 5, 6 and 7 and July 10, 11 and 12.

*The International
Relief Congress.*

The first bulletin of the Italian committee, for the Fourth International Congress of Public and Private Relief, has just reached this country. The data for the assembly at Milan has been fixed for five days in October, 1905. The five themes, already announced in CHARITIES, relate to: (1) The necessity of an international understanding in respect to assistance of aliens; (2) professional education of voluntary assistants of public relief; (3) institutions for the protection and aid of young girls and homeless women; (4) proper measures to deal with infantile mortality; (5) systems of insurance and providence to replace and supplement relief.

The president of the permanent committee is M. Casimir-Perier, ex-president of the French Republic. Italians compose the executive committee having in charge all arrangements for the approaching congress, their chairman being Dr. Angelo Filippetti. The secretary is Avv. Camillo Platner. There is a large and representative *commissione ordinatrice*. The Italian language will be the official language of the congress, but French may be employed, and even other languages under restrictions. Persons who wish to become members of the congress are asked to send twenty francs to *Cassiere del Comitato Esecutivo del IV Congresso Internazionale d'Assistenza Publica e Privata, Palazzo Municipale, Milano, Italia*, by postal order. Members are invited to offer communications bearing on the five subjects, the only ones to be discussed. Members will receive reports of the discussions and papers.

C. S. Loch, of London, is to present statistics of relief during the past fifty years in modern countries.

*Housing
Campaign
in Connecticut.*

The state of Connecticut is still without a tenement-house law, and this despite the fact that the New Haven board of health stated in its annual report thirty years ago that such legislation was badly needed in order to prevent the crowding of lots and the construction of dark and unsanitary rooms, and despite the fact that Lawrence Veiller stated a few years ago that Hartford had "for its size the worst housing conditions in the country."

It is not difficult to explain why nothing has been done hitherto. Both Hartford and New Haven are openly built and are cities with beautiful public parks. Most of the houses have open spaces around them, and the crowded conditions exist only in spots. It is quite natural, therefore, that but few people in either city appreciated the danger of these unwholesome and crowded sections, until the progress of sanitary science and the experience of larger cities taught them to observe tendencies.

The movement which has led to the presentation to the present legislature of a bill for the regulation of tenement houses

had its origin in two independent organizations, one in Hartford, the other in New Haven. In New Haven the Lowell House Association, which is New Haven's social settlement, took up the matter in the winter of 1901-1902, and by enlisting the volunteer work of students and others and securing the co-operation of the city authorities made a thorough and careful investigation of nine city blocks in one of the worst quarters of the city. Prof. William B. Bailey spent the greater part of his summer vacation in working out in tabular form the data which were obtained, and his report, with an introduction by Prof. H. W. Farnam, was printed as a part of the annual report of the Lowell House Association in 1903.

This led to the formation of a volunteer committee which contains representatives of the business interests of New Haven as well as city officials, sanitary experts and charitable workers, and this committee has drafted a bill which was presented by Senator Eli Whitney of New Haven.

In Hartford a similar committee has been at work for over a year, and the two bodies united in supporting the present bill in a hearing held before the Committee on Public Health and Safety in Hartford, February 16.

"In framing the bill," writes Professor Farnam, one of its most vigorous supporters, "it was thought wise to cover only those departments of tenement-house regulation which are at present entirely neglected, and, therefore, to restrict the bill to provisions for light, air, and ventilation. This leaves the matters of fire protection and of sanitary regulation to local ordinances and to the few general state laws which exist on this subject. The bill as at present drafted is made to apply to all cities of 10,000 inhabitants and over, which would include eleven cities of the state. This was done in the belief that, although in many of the smaller cities conditions may not as yet have become very bad, the rapid increase of population is pretty sure to make them so in a short time, and that it would be well to apply the ounce of prevention at once. The city of New Britain, for instance, had in 1900, 17,328 persons

of foreign parentage as against a total population of 16,519 in 1890. Waterbury had in 1900 a population of foreign parentage of 29,717 as against a total population of 28,646 in 1890.

"On account of the tendency of people of one race to herd together, and the impossibility of their exercising very much choice in the selection of their dwellings, any manufacturing town which attracts such a population is liable to have these plague spots, even though the greater part of the town may be open and sanitary."

Very strong evidence was presented before the committee to show the danger to life which is found in dark rooms, and the bill had the warm endorsement of the New Haven County Anti-Tuberculosis Association, which has this winter opened the Gaylord Farm Sanatorium near Wallingford. Wilson H. Lee, president of the Chamber of Commerce of New Haven, and General H. C. Dwight, president of the Board of Trade of Hartford, were also among those who spoke in favor of the bill.

Consistent progress in the tuberculosis movement is reported from a hundred sections. Such bulletins as the following from the office of the National Committee for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis are big with significance:

The Tuberculosis Movement.

Ohio. The movement against tuberculosis in Cleveland, Ohio, has made decided progress. On the last of January a conference, representative of those interested in the welfare of the city, met by invitation of Dr. Lowman, who has been a leader in the anti-tuberculosis struggle. The meeting resulted in the appointment of a committee of five, consisting of Dr. Lowman, Dr. W. S. Howard, James F. Jackson, of the Associated Charities, Max Hays, of the Trades and Labor Assembly, and C. K. Shurtleff, secretary of the Y. M. C. A., with Martin A. Marks, president of the Visiting Nurse Association as chairman, to formulate and plan for organizing an anti-tuberculosis league. This committee had a meeting on the 10th inst. and the league will soon be formed.

Meanwhile the local board of health passed a resolution requiring physicians

in Cleveland to report all cases of tuberculosis and of pneumonia coming to their notice, and steps have been taken to enforce this order. A tuberculosis dispensary connected with the Western Reserve Medical College has been in successful operation since October 1 last and two nurses of the Visiting Nurse Association are giving their entire time to work in connection with this.

Vermont. Reports from Vermont indicate a thorough arousing of public interest in the general subject of tuberculosis brought about by the systematic campaign of the state commission. The members of the commission are visiting the different cities and towns of the state, delivering lectures on the dangers of the disease and emphasizing and explaining the best preventive and curative measures. This sort of well-planned work cannot fail of immediate results.

District of Columbia. The tuberculosis agitation in Washington, D. C., is bearing fruit in a plan for instituting the open-air treatment of tuberculosis under the direction of the medical officers of Georgetown University. It is announced that property adjacent to the university has been acquired and it is proposed to erect the necessary tents and buildings in the immediate future.

Canada. The annual meeting of the Canadian Association for the Prevention of Consumption will be held in Ottawa, March 15, under the presidency of the governor-general. The leading feature of the meeting will be a lecture by Prof. J. G. Adami, the well-known pathologist of McGill University on the general features of the crusade against tuberculosis.

Iowa. A recent investigation by the State Board of Control in Iowa indicates the presence of about 7,000 cases of tuberculosis in that state.

Rhode Island. The plan of utilizing abandoned trolley cars in the open-air treatment of tuberculosis which has been successful at the Pine Ridge Camp in Rhode Island is now to be adopted at Snake Hill for the care of the pauper consumptives of Hudson county,

New Jersey, The Public Service Corporation of that state has placed fifteen cars at the disposal of the committee of the State Charities Aid Association, which is pushing the matter as a temporary and inexpensive expedient until more permanent and satisfactory accommodations can be secured. This is a suggestion worth noting.

Texas. The Texas Sanitarium for Treatment of Tuberculosis has been established at Llano and is now receiving patients. Only incipient cases or those offering fair prospects of recovery will be admitted. Dr. M. M. Smith, of Austin, Texas, is the secretary of the controlling corporation and will furnish all information regarding the institution.

Illinois. Interest in the tuberculosis movement in Illinois has been developed rapidly owing to the work of the committee of the Chicago Visiting Nurse Association, and in the last ten months, of the State Medical Society. A state organization has been effected following a conference held in Chicago, which was largely attended and at which a committee representative of various medical schools and societies and charitable organizations was appointed to draw up plans.

An Italian Settlement Which is a "Topsy" Town. The interesting study of the Italian colony at Hammon-ton, New Jersey, by Mrs. Meade is a distinct contribution to the discussion of such phases of the immigration problem as have to deal with colonization and agricultural distribution. Those before whom the evils of ill-adjusted immigration loom up in their largest significance would be the first to encourage a mixture of Italian peasantry with American waste land with such happy results, but they would go further and urge that the very numbers of our present stupendous influx of newcomers militate against the carrying forward of any schemes of settlement on a scale adequate to insure such results in more than a mere fraction of the cases.

The fact that the Hammon-ton settlement, like Topsy, "just growed," is suggestive, however, both in rebuttal, and in suggesting that the study of such natural and plainly spontaneous examples of com-

munity development may reveal "leads" to those who would give sanest thought to the whole problem of city congestion.

Especially is this true in view of numerous uninformed statements which gain currency. For instance in the December issue of the *Review of Reviews*—page 127—it is said that "Italians of the colony" at "Vineland started a quarter of a century ago by Cavaliere Secchi di Casale, founder of the Eco d'Italia, do not possess an inch of soil." Those who know this district and knew di Casale have not let the statement go unchallenged and in letters to CHARITIES assert that there are not less than five hundred prosperous Italian land owners in Gloucester, Atlantic, and Cumberland counties. In the early days of this Italian movement, Cav. di Casale, who was a Protestant, procured land from C. K. Landis, the originator of the colony, and donated some of it for the purpose of an Italian Protestant church building. This congregation is said to have been unsuccessful, but its fortunes should not be confused with those of the whole settlement.

Describing the present conditions near Vineland, Edward R. Wood, of Philadelphia, writes to CHARITIES:

*The Settlement
Around
Vineland.*

Beginning on the main highway from Malaga, Gloucester county, to May's Landing in Atlantic county, the land is occupied for four miles by Italian families, most of them living in large and substantial old farmhouses, which had been abandoned by their American owners for several years prior to the influx of these new settlers.

At and below the village of Downstown, this highway is intersected by the Wheat road and other avenues coming eastward from the original Vineland settlement. The farms here are of a somewhat different character, having been mostly cleared out of the timber by the Italians themselves, and the houses are correspondingly of a newer and rather rougher type.

This criticism, if it be one, would not fairly apply to the improved dwellings on Landis and Genoa avenues, where for three miles along each road attractive fruit and garden farms show on either hand. Apart from grapes and other fruit, which are cultivated chiefly for local use, the main selling crops of the district are peppers, pickles (cucumbers) and sweet potatoes.

A visitor would be satisfied from the appearance of the hard, healthy countryfolk seen on all sides that no large part of them are renters, but written evidence is available.

Luigi S. Carsiglia, postmaster at Richland in Atlantic county, writes me: "I am safely within the truth in saying the number of acres owned by Italians is not far from 10,000. My family alone own 305 acres, and I know of a score who own 100 acres each; most of them own from ten to thirty acres. The county records will show that we hold this comparatively free of incumbrance. I question whether there is in this broad country a more progressive and prosperous community."

Francisco De Luca, justice of the peace and notary public of Vineland, Cumberland county, writes: "I shall not be far wrong if I say that the majority of the land in the Vineland tract and vicinity is possessed by Italians. I have forty acres; my father and brothers about one hundred. If any one doubts these facts I am perfectly willing to invest my time and drive him or her about till he or she is satisfied that the Italians of this locality possess more land than any other nation."

Dun's Mercantile Report for Vineland and the neighboring villages within reach of the rural free delivery system, gives twenty firms of Italians engaged in business there, with ratings from \$2,000 up to \$30,000. In Millville there is an Italian manufacturer of confectionary who has made enough money to build a small glass factory, which is the leading form of industrial occupation in that section of the country.

From the large proportion of Italian names showing in the list of township officers, it is evident that the younger generation is rapidly becoming Americanized. In my voting district, if a natural American wishes to vote he has to register before a board of which the majority are Italians by birth or parentage. In short, with the occasional exception of a new family which has not yet acquired a free use of the English language, there is a thorough commingling of the native-born and the immigrant race. I know of three railroad agents, a postmaster, a tax collector, and a truck commission shipper, all hailing from one village community, of Italian birth.

The Italians will undertake back-breaking jobs of stump clearing that native Americans shrink from, but it must be admitted in behalf of the Anglo-Saxon that the old family stocks which inherit the grit of the first settlers have almost all moved into town. They would no doubt work as hard as the Italians if they had to.

*Rounding Out
Old Age.*

In the Episcopal catechism the longest and hardest answer which generations of little churchmen have puzzled over, has to do with "our duty towards our neighbor." Unfortunately it is a question which remains too often only half answered or half-heartedly answered

throughout life, especially if our neighbor is so unhappily situated as to be spending the remaining years of his life in an almshouse or a home for the aged. The work which has been carried out in Ward L on Blackwell's Island, and is described by the secretary of the New York City Visiting Committee on another page, is mightily suggestive. In connection with this, a letter from one of the beneficiaries tells more of what such thoughtfulness means than would volumes of preachments on respect for grey hairs:

HOME FOR THE AGED AND INFIRM,
Blackwell's Island, New York,

January 28, 1905.

Dear Sir—The question may be asked "Why do we want a Stereopticon or Picture Machine here?" As I am unfortunately an inmate here, I may be able to answer quite fully, why. In the first place, we are mostly old people and like children we love to look at pictures. Not all kinds of pictures perhaps but those we like and understand. Moreover the machine would be a means of entertainment, something often wished for here. A home without amusement is like a home without a mother; none at all. Only a miserable place. The city has been kind and generous to provide for our bodily wants. We have warm wards, a plentiful supply of wholesome food, but we can do nothing, there is nothing to look at but each other, nothing to think of but ourselves.

Now my dear sir, permit me to say that when carried so far and centered on one's self this thinking business is h—;

Think, think, think, till the mind is worn to a shred,
Think, think, think, till it's time to go to bed.

It fits one for treason, strategy and war and it fills to overflowing the insane hospitals of the state.

Sir, break up this eternal, this infernal monotony of public institutions and you may improve their discipline, keep down complaints and lessen the cost of handling inmates.

Last summer we received a large graphophone. It has proven itself to be the right thing in the right place. You and others who donated the talking machine did better than you are aware of. The way we have given our pennies to buy records for it shows our appreciation in that line. We want the picture machine, too. Don't forget it. I have put up the best argument I could to show why we want it. It's all I can do.

Oh, say, where is (Ex-Com.) Homer Folks? Is he dead? If so, keep his grave green. Put a flower on it for the poor people of this island. He died too young.

Respectfully,

*A Plea for
the Study of the
Psychology of
Old Age.*

Similarly, it was a plea for a study of the psychology of old age, of bringing light into the lives of the older people of a neighborhood by giving them a chance to express the garnerings of their own experience or craftsmanship, which Jane Addams made in an address before the New York School of Philanthropy the past month. "We must remember," said she, "through how many generations culture has been handed down through the old people—in folklore, traditions, and the like, now so largely supplanted by the book, and in our tenement neighborhoods, by the cheap book or the newspaper appealing to sensationalism." It was a plea for a study of old people to see what they can contribute "to children, to others and to ourselves." And in support of it was told the story of a woman of ninety, senile, who picked plaster from the wall and had a childish pride in the callous of a forefinger which enabled her to do so. A settlement kindergarten found her out and slowly taught her the knack of making everlasting chains. Day after day she made them—better than digging plaster—until at last it was discovered that she spoke Gaelic and knew some of the charming old songs and stories of the Irish people. These a professor who visited the settlement, took down and when a young Irish student said that she was the greatest find in Chicago in the field of folklore, she became an object of respect and neighborhood pride. It was an illustration of what can be contributed by many of the older generation who are overlooked and yet who have just that sort of fancy and idealism which is needed in American city life, which has so little of the past in it—so little, in our self-made success, of that charm which is the charm of the defeated. Further, Miss Addams told the story of Russian women who came to Hull House by mistake, thinking there was to be a party. An impromptu one was gotten up for them, but it was a flat failure until a visit to the Labor Museum was proposed. Then the stolid, disappointed women woke up. They began to weave and spin and show the knack they had been taught in their childhood. They turned up their petticoats to

show the hand work, and became the entertainers instead of being entertained. We call a party successful when we have contributed something to it. So they.

"We are constantly throwing away our reserves," said Miss Addams in conclusion, "with the idea that old people are good only for care."

*Labor Yards
and the
Unemployed.*

The opinion prevails in many quarters that the number of unemployed this winter is rapidly increasing and that in New York it has reached about 100,000. This is attributed to a scarcity of work resulting from strikes and to the excessive cold of the winter. On the other hand charity workers who are closely in touch with conditions of distress and who do not estimate the number out of work by the length of a bread line which has no safeguards, have insisted that there is nothing unusual in this year's charitable needs for the unemployed. The inference drawn is confirmed by systematic inquiries made by agents of the Charity Organization Society. While some dealing with the homeless report an increase of forty per cent in the number of unemployed, others quite as closely in touch with the same conditions report an even greater decrease and several employment agencies state that work is easier to get than at this time last year.

But whether the truth rests with one side or the other, America is certainly not faced by any such serious condition of unemployment as that existing in England and on the continent of Europe for the past two winters. The reports of the measures taken in London and the English provinces, a review of which is found in this issue, and recent consular reports which speak of the establishment of labor yards or colonies in a number of industrial centers in Germany tell a story of Europe's serious experience with the unemployed.

The difficulties of adapting a large number of unemployed to one particular task for which they have little fitness, of encouraging men to seek work for themselves as soon as there is opportunity for them to be re-absorbed in the regular lines of industry and of avoiding conflict

with trades-unions on the questions of hours and wages are not easily over-estimated. In one of these particulars the work of the Mansion House Committee has been distinctive. Instead of making stone breaking an undesirable, unattractive, and continuous task by underpaying workmen with the hope that they would seek for other work as soon as it could be found, the committee has accomplished the same purpose by removing the laborer in every case some distance from his family. Before leaving he received the assurance that his wife and children would be looked after and that his earnings would be paid to them regularly while he held to his task. While aforestation, the reclaiming of the sea-shore, and the building of sea-wall have their advocates as more beneficial forms of labor in an Island Empire, both for the laborer and the community, stone breaking, a much more prosaic task, has as yet provided the most satisfactory form of employment because of the little capital required to start or renew the enterprise.

*A More
Adequate Grasp
of the Situation
Demanded.*

All efforts to grapple with this problem of the unemployed have suffered from the temporary nature of the organization which has taken charge of the work. It is becoming apparent, however, that the problem of dealing intelligently with them from year to year requires a more permanent study than has so far been given to it. The *London Times* in an editorial in its issue of February 7, urges the necessity of placing the Central Committee of the Unemployed Fund upon a permanent basis in order that it may go into the problem in all its aspects. In that way only, it holds, can we hope to prevent sapping the spirit of independence of workingmen. "The capable and honest and thrifty workman should be recognized as a valuable member of the community, and should be assisted to keep his head above water in time of trouble. The scamp and the idler, or even the good workman who wastes the earnings of prosperous times in self-indulgence, should be left to the operation of the Poor Law and to the consequent condemnation of his neighbors."

This latter class without question supplies a large part of our American bread lines. Individual inquiry reveals that a large number of these are foot-loose, restless, roving young men, the typical "homeless," whose lack of education, systematic training and vicious, or at any rate, shiftless, living have unfitted them for any continuous tasks. For them it is not a solution to provide work through natural channels or through labor yards without some form of restraint which shall keep them close to their tasks. On this point the experience of England is enlightening. Ninety per cent did not remain during three months and one-half left before thirty days. Such experience lends strength to the argument that only in a labor colony or town shops, to which the homeless man may be committed for an indeterminate period until he gets and continues in regular employment, will this type be adequately reached.

Its elimination from the charitable problem of the city, much as the mendicant is being eliminated in New York, will leave the remaining problems of a floating population more easy to attack. In the meantime, the time is ripe to press energetically for preventive measures, such as lodging-house supervision as advocated by Mr. Kennaday of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, in CHARITIES of February 18.

*The Avocation
of a Maid.*

For many years a New York woman, well known for her kindness and generosity, was called on almost nightly by large numbers of homeless men who asked for money for lodging. To the first few that came she ordinarily gave the money desired, but by the time three or four had called (for she sometimes had six or eight in one evening) her patience was exhausted and the others were directed to a relief bureau. This continued off and on for several years until her secretary discovered that all of these cases had been reported to her employer personally, and always by the same maid. The secretary refused all applications when brought to her, and the requests stopped coming on those nights when she was at the house. On the other evenings the men called in as large numbers as before. It was not long after

this that the maid was discharged and although it was the beginning of last winter, an exceptionally hard one, there were only two "homeless" applicants for lodgings at this residence during the season. It is clear that the maid had some connection with the men, for an investigation showed that she had not invented the whole story. The man was there to tell his own tale of woe if called upon. It was found that the applicants collected in a side street and waited to learn the result of each request for aid. It is to be guessed that the maid received a percentage of all that was given. As she was discharged from this house she is in all likelihood in some other repeating the tactics, and it would be interesting to know if some other household has not this winter had a large influx of men who are tired and hungry, out of work and without a place to sleep, who make their wants known about nine o'clock in the evening and only to one sympathetic maid. There are such men in the city and they are to be helped or social obligations are not fulfilled. But if they never get within front doors, if householders never go beyond front doors to find out about them and then help, the door-sill is bound to function as an imposter-making machine, even if not in such successive links as in this incident. It was this idea of maturity, as well as early impulses in charity, that was made the subject of Mr. de Forest's recent Washington address.¹

The Story of Ward L.

ALEXANDER C. PROUDFIT.

This is the story of Ward L at the home for the aged and infirm on Blackwell's Island, New York. It is a story which is written here briefly but gladly, because an atmosphere of cheerfulness has displaced the gloom which a year ago surrounded some sixty men in that long, one-story pavilion, of which its occupants, now absorbed in their work, and now listening to the music of their phonograph, say, "This is home; if the beadwork stops we will have to go to the poorhouse," pointing out of the

¹ CHARITIES, December 31, 1904.

windows to other buildings of the almshouse.

I quote a few words by a chaplain of the home:

Ward L is the ward devoted to the crippled; paralyzed, rheumatic, epileptic cripples. When I first went to the city home, more than five years ago, this was to me the most depressing ward on the island. It took a strong effort of the will to visit it. I found sixty men sitting there doing nothing, the very picture of desolation. I did not know what to say to them. To speak a cheery word in such an atmosphere seemed mockery. I did not know what to do or say. There has come about, in process of time, what I call the transformation or the transfiguration of Ward L, and all this has taken place through the introduction of the bead work. The blessed thought struck somebody of giving employment to the inmates of the city home. They chose Ward L for the experiment. With some persuasion they induced one or two to enter into the work. The interest spread until twenty out of the sixty were engaged in it. Those who did not actually do the work woke up to the fact that something was doing in Ward L. The men work an hour before breakfast. They were impatient when the supply of beads gave out. The clamor was for more beads and more looms. The whole character of the ward was changed. A joke was in order; cheeriness and good will were the rule. I call the ward now the Hotel of the Busy Bees.

First, one man with a little knowledge of illuminating developed his talent, encouraged by the purchase of his finely colored texts, prayers, and collects, which found ready sale among members of the New York City Visiting Committee and other visitors, who finally aided to secure him a place in Grace Hospital, and there he has continued his work.

Next, a young visitor, with a knowledge of knitting learned during tedious recoveries from a long series of broken bones incurred as an athlete, passed his accomplishment on to one of the younger patients who has still to face many years of confinement in his chair; but that chair is now a wheel-chair, and the man has a larger outlook on life in many ways, for he earned the greater part of the price paid for his chair. And he started the subscription list for a long-desired and much-enjoyed phonograph—would have worked until he could have bought it unaided, had not others, stimulated by his example, insisted upon a share in the

instrument and contributed thereto from their earnings. So that with some aid from outside, and generous treatment by the Columbia Phonograph Company, the Ward L phonograph with its big horn and many records has been thought worthy of a handsome oak cabinet, made at the carpenter shop by the kindness of Superintendent Roberts.

But knitting only shared in this achievement with the making of bead chains, belts, fobs, purses, raffia and osier baskets, knotted shoestring bags, broom covers and other articles, to the total value of nearly \$500, produced by the inmates since October, 1903, this product being sold in large part by the efforts of the Visiting Committee at its office, 105 East Twenty-second street, and by the individual efforts of the various persons interested in the origin and development of the work. Much has been sold also at fairs, held by societies and others, to whom the workers are glad to pay a commission of ten per cent on the gross receipts.

New articles are constantly being devised for manufacture, in the desire to avoid competitive industries and create a fresh market.

The teacher has, for a number of years, gone to the City Hospital once a week on behalf of the Visiting Committee, to teach the epileptic women there, and she now spends an additional four days each week at the Home for Aged and Infirm in teaching the men and encouraging them to originate designs and articles. The work is spreading from Ward L, has been started in the Brooklyn division of the Home for Aged and Infirm, and it is hoped, can be introduced at the Farm Colony on Staten Island, and even in the hospitals if the committee receives the necessary funds to cover the salary of the teacher.

The committee wishes to secure the entire time and services of a teacher, not only to teach, and to take to the workers their supplies, for which they pay the teacher, and to find a market for the product, in the proceeds of which neither the teacher nor the Visiting Committee share, but also to study carefully whether these small industries supplement adequately the larger industries of

the home, such as broom, brush, mattress and pillow making, which are a valuable factor in the economical administration of the department as a whole, and in which it is the wish of the committee to interest them. Work for the blind especially should be developed at these homes, where few have learned the measure of happiness which they can gain from reasonable and steady occupation. The disciplinary and even curative results of the work are undoubted. Men have been encouraged to go out into the world once more and try again to make their way, hampered as they often are by illness and past failures. Some have been able to buy clothes which will enable them to present a better appearance and to secure more remunerative work. Others have bought, and still others are working for artificial limbs. Some are saving to provide for private burial instead of a grave in the Potter's field. All have an opportunity to earn a few minor luxuries, which make life more attractive.

The avenues for development of the work are many, and it seems to be but in its infancy, yet the results attained have well repaid both the workers and their helpers.

"Girls Who Have Nothing to Do."

Strike girls and society girls—it is more than a co-incidence that places the articles by Miss Barnum and Mrs. Herbert Parsons in a number devoted so largely to a discussion of child labor—to social adjustments which should save from waste and develop to the nth power those American resources inherent in growing American men and women.

Her identification with social and philanthropic movements in New York, and her interests as an educator (Barnard college) make Mrs. Parsons's discussion of the non-professional college woman doubly suggestive—so much so that an editorial request was made for expression of opinion by women especially qualified—Mrs. Celia Parker Woolley, president of the Frederick Douglass Center, Chicago; Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer, associate director of the New York School of Philanthropy; Mrs. John Henry

Hammond, New York; Miss Frances G. Curtis, Boston; Miss Sadie American, secretary of the National Council of Jewish Women; Mrs. Cynthia Westover Alden, president-general of the International Sunshine Society.

From Mrs. Woolley.

The problem of the poor young woman forced to earn her own living, so often poorly equipped for the task, is one which we all recognize and are continually discussing in club and convention. The other problem of the rich young woman, who need not work, who often is accused of taking a needy sister's place if she tries to work, and who must overcome a long list of home and social prejudices before she is allowed to work—this is quite as grave and important a problem. The means of alleviation—the phrase is a strange one but it fits—for these younger members of "the perishing upper classes," as George Eliot called them, proposed by Mrs. Parsons, are wise and timely. If carried out they would doubtless do much to relieve the sufferer and to intelligize the work of social service on all lines. The workers in our juvenile courts and our various charitable and reformatory institutions should be as carefully instructed and trained for their special tasks as those in the visiting nurses associations or as the teachers in our schools. The situation is clearly seen, the remedy seems within easy reach, but the discussion continues to be largely theoretical.

I confess that my own feeling on the subject wavers, my judgment halts. I am slow to reach a final conviction on this subject, at once so general in its aim, so individual in the working out. There are the hindrances to a swift settlement of this question on both sides—those which lie in the mixed, unformed nature of the average young woman, rich or poor; and those difficulties which spring from the fitful, incoherent way in which even the best of our social endeavors are being carried on, where we are all experimenting.

Marriage is a tremendous factor here and will continue to be. We may exaggerate its influence but it is hard not to exaggerate it. Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Stetson is the only one who seems able to hold a steady, unalarmed course on this question. Many of us admire her steadfast faith and courage who cannot accept her conclusions nor see all the facts as she states them. A young woman's relation to the world of business and trade does not seem quite so clear and matter-of-course as the young man's, even when she excels him in efficiency and faithfulness. The principle of sex runs deep—it is probably as much a cosmical as social rule or force. Whether it is one among the mass of con-

tradictory and disturbing impulses and desires with which young women battle between the ages of twenty and twenty-five or thirty, or whether it involves these, and in some open or obscure way directs the final adjustment, manifest in a life of contented spinsterhood or the acceptance of the old and honored rôles of wife and mother—this is the question, which not all of our Bernard Shaws, Ibsens and Merediths have yet settled.

But it is not wise to cloud the discussion with doubts like these. Perhaps marriage need not be the all-powerful factor in a woman's destiny and career more than in a man's. Time alone can tell, and we are concerned with the meantime. Mrs. Parsons has appointed a way out for the needy (?) young woman, and suggested a new means of help in the ever-increasing work of social service. If where the wage-earning motive is absent another, springing from altruistic sentiment and the wish to be useful, can be applied in its place, the result will be a gain both to the work and the worker.

CELIA PARKER WOOLLEY.

From Mrs. Spencer.

The thoughtful and suggestive article by Mrs. Parsons merits careful consideration. Most enlightened people will agree with her that young women of all classes need systematic work to useful ends. Most will agree also that the period "between college and possible marriage" should be utilized in some more efficient and methodical manner than now, and that a large majority of young women would be interested in social work of various kinds if it could be fitted to their needs for leisure and home life. It is not so clear that the two forms of social work named—kindergarten and the care of infants—would attract so large a class of "non-wage-earning women," as to fill quite well the requirement for systematic activity on their part. Neither is it clear that the plan suggested by Mrs. Parsons, that of a "post-graduate course" partial in extent and with the fixed idea in advance that it is probably fitted to serve but a temporary need, would produce in the young women themselves such ideals and standards and efficiency as would make them fit for service of even a semi-professional sort. And if the young women of the "non-wage-earning class" cannot give a quality of work that has a right to rank with professional work, they cannot be injected into a system of social service more and more demanding this professional quality without injury to the development of the movement to do philanthropic work in the best possible manner. Above all, it is not clear that the incentives to the systematic work desired for these young women would be sufficient in the plan outlined by Mrs. Parsons. Three motives now prove strong enough

to hold young women of any class to such study and effort as can alone secure fine service: first, the motive of the student, when the field or laboratory work counts in markings toward diplomas, and gives standing in the class and wins the approval of a respected teacher; second, the motive of the worker, who is fitting for a professional career, and is eager to take advantage of every practical as well as academic aid toward efficiency; and third, the motive of the "born reformer" and philanthropist who, with or without any special social educational arrangement to that end, devotes herself to social work, whether paid or unpaid, because she must do so from the impulsion of her own nature. For this last class the arrangement suggested by Mrs. Parsons would be a great help toward finding the special field of usefulness which would prove congenial; but such a girl would find out and attend the new schools of philanthropy and kindred, more formal educational opportunities. The second class also will need and secure more extended instruction than any "extension course" intended to fit for partial and short-lived service, would provide. The "average girls," of the class of which Mrs. Parsons writes, need, it would seem from experience with them in other lines of education, the *student* motive to hold them to any continuous course of instruction sufficient to fit them for service associated with that of professional teachers, nurses, charity organization workers and other expert persons engaged in social work. That student motive cannot be provided unless the course of instruction for social service is either a part of the college course or counts toward a second degree in regular post-graduate work. It cannot be a thing aside from the main lines of education. It would therefore seem that those people are right who desire, what several of the large state universities supply, courses, elective and varied, which lead toward domestic science and arts and might lead as well toward kindergarten work, the care of infants, and many other forms of work directly fitting a young woman for her own life at home and as truly for special forms of social service. If, as Spencer says, "the object of education is to prepare us for complete living," and if, as Froebel affirmed, "the mother must learn to live greatly not only for herself, but for her children," then the truly "higher" education of women should provide for many elements of training now left out of the college course, and might well enlarge in the directions indicated by Mrs. Parsons. The laboratory is needed in all that content of education which deals with tangible objects. The college course itself might well introduce the student to life, especially the girl student who must keep the standards of "complete living" in herself, and in society, if they are to be preserved and elevated. The ideal

college training for both boys and girls is now a subject marked "Problem" in capital letters. Mrs. Parsons's suggestion seems to some of us most valuable as a hint toward meeting general needs for the average girl of all classes rather than as an aid to the particular and small number of girls of the leisure class. As such, and in all particulars, it should be widely and carefully discussed.

ANNA GARLIN SPENCER.

From Mrs. Hammond.

The problem discussed so ably in Mrs. Parsons's article as to how to provide systematic activity for the young women of to-day is one that should appeal to every thoughtful person. It is becoming more and more apparent that "sensations pall with repetition, while all activities augment their joy." Mothers should, therefore, feel it their duty to direct their daughters' energies in the proper constructive channels, which will not only contribute to their present happiness and usefulness, but prepare them for the many duties and obligations that will meet them in the future. The ignorance of young married women regarding the bringing up of their children proves how necessary it is that they should be educated to a proper understanding of these obligations.

Mrs. Parsons's suggestion of establishing an extension kindergarten course at Teachers' College appears to me an excellent one. If this experiment should prove successful, courses in other practical branches of work could be established. Only through experience can one effectually learn. So the sooner these lessons are put into practice, the better will it be for the student.

In thus giving steady and interesting occupation for a few hours every day to their daughters, the parents will be surprised to see the gradual disappearance of discontent and ennui the fresh enthusiasm for social intercourse (because it is no longer the end and aim of existence) and the readjusting of all the values of life.

As we come to realize that the solution of the great economic problems that confront us depends on the effort and co-operation of each individual, then will every young woman enter enthusiastically into doing her share of the work. EMILY V. HAMMOND.

From Miss Curtis.

Mrs. Parsons has let the recalcitrant parent off very easily. The girls of twenty-one whose ideals though high are aimless, and whose duties though immediate and domestic are formless, have their first Herculean task in the education of their parents.

Let us help them by laying out so definite a repertory of "young ladies' occupations" that some one pursuit can certainly be en-

couraged by any affectionate parent. In time our friend Public Opinion may demand equally Public-Serviceable daughters and sons.

The kindergarten and nursery-maid classes are good for those who care for children—many girls of twenty-one are too young to do so—so let us have also one-year normal classes in gymnastics, dancing, sloyd, carpentering, modeling and cooking, where learning and teaching can go hand in hand.

Then let there be a graded course in such charities as are suited to the years of the workers—stamp-savings, home-libraries, sewing schools, home-savings—where fidelity and common punctuality are more important than experienced teachers; and in some places let there be a course of training in the ethics of committee work; how few understand the responsibilities, the effacements and the adjustments of that situation!

As Mrs. Parsons has well said, "the intellectual and moral fibre which comes mainly from the habit of a systematic production of social values," can be developed by systematic and unexaggerated activity in many forms of work for others.

It is obvious also that the young girl who has interest in some things outside of her own clothes and amusements, is in the line of social, even matrimonial, preferment.

FRANCES GREELEY CURTIS.

From Miss American.

Mrs. Parsons's article one must regard as a valuable contribution to a matter that calls for serious concern. We must rejoice in so clear a statement that what many have regarded as unfortunate individual instances are really part of a general condition, and for so frank and true an analysis of a state of affairs which others have seen and deplored, but to fearlessly race and cope with which no systematic effort has been made.

If Mrs. Parsons's plan can begin to compass the need for preachment and teaching on questions of family function in and under our modern conditions, for the women under consideration as well as for tenement dwellers, and on expanding the idea of home with all it should imply of service, sympathy and responsibility to include "home and field," it will send us a long way on the path to a better social order.

That it essays to do this by immediately supplementing the years of book learning, which is not education, with a training that must appeal to the high emotions and the maternal instincts which the exclusively intellectual work of later school and college years away from home life has caused to lie dormant, must commend it as based on sound principles of life and need.

That the plan suggested would require the greatest care in developing to avoid grave dangers the writer sees, yet it may perhaps

bear emphasizing that those who would deal with very young children or advise those who care for them, especially in connection with their physical needs, must have more than theory if real and great good is to result and that therefore practical assistant work *must*, rather than should, be had to attain the desired end.

Such training classes would, I believe, react on the women's colleges to the extent of having included in the curriculum or among electives much of the theoretical work, so that little beyond practical training would be necessary before effective and continuous service could be done.

Certainly there is a crying need for more instruction in personal and home hygiene and household economics. Those equipped to give simple talks and clear instruction in these matters would find occupation for many hours, that certainly would be productive, and a knowledge of modern languages would become something more than a mere accomplishment if applied in giving such talks to our immigrant population.

A central bureau or society such as that of the *Sociale Hilfs Gruppen* in Berlin, whose plan space will not permit me to outline, might serve as a means of giving systematic work to many to whom the plan suggested might not appeal, as would training in some handicraft or trade or teaching of defectives, in which I conceive a large work lies ready to hand.

SADIE AMERICAN.

From Mrs. Alden.

A girl is graduated from school at eighteen or twenty or twenty-two. She lives with her parents in an apartment where the service is of the semi-communal sort, and centrally supervised. No meals are to be prepared, no dishes to be washed, and any dusting or sweeping by this girl tends only to the demoralization of the duly employed and paid help of the house. Her parents expect and hope she will be married in time, but rather prefer to have the happy event delayed five or eight or ten years. In the meantime they insist that she shall live at home, and perform the social duties of a young woman in her walk of life—How is she to live a useful life, maintain the habit of regular work, and feel that her time is not being wasted?

I have chosen the form of the problem that seems most nearly hopeless. I think it can be solved, and here is my try at a solution. Incidentally the parents must assume the initiative in nearly all cases. The average girl, like the average boy, is not an

automobile but a wheelbarrow. Pushing is necessary.

Work for the joy of working is the ideal. Take this girl whose case seems so desperate. Send her to your dressmaker five hours every week-day, not to earn money but to learn to sew, cut, fit as well as anybody on earth can, to learn to choose color effects, to learn to judge materials. Let her earn merely the right to be so educated by making herself useful and doing what she is told to do. And see that at least two hours more of her time is spent in learning Italian or French or German or reading the classics of these tongues; or thorough work at music, vocal or instrumental. Let novels, in English at least, be only recreation.

Suppose she is a very bright girl and has learned in two years all that there is to learn about dressmaking. Let her tackle millinery in the same way and take two years more at that. Then have her take a thorough course of stenography, giving the five hours a day to classwork, or homework, or taking lectures, or addresses, or sermons. If she is conscientious she will not think she has learned stenography in less than two years more. She will find it fascinating as an art and immensely useful in making notes on her reading, which ought to be kept up all the time.

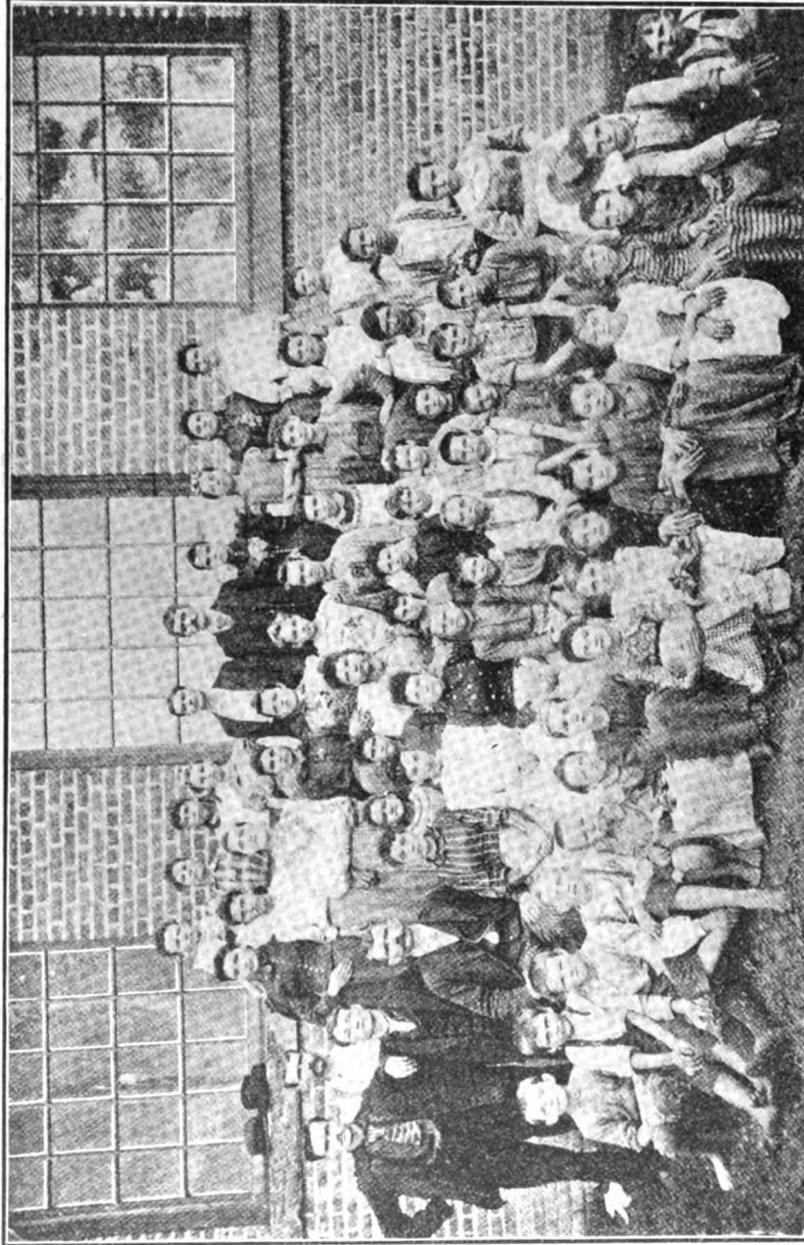
The best cooking schools open a new opportunity. Two years additional may be wisely spent in acquiring practical knowledge in a field which every married woman ought to know in detail. If at the end of that time she cannot prepare by herself a better dinner than Dinah or Bridget nobody ought to think of marrying her.

And if she has that long period of ten years, the maximum of the problem, to wait before marriage, why the kindergarten suggestion is excellent. It will make her familiar with child-life, and be of great service when she has children of her own.

The order of these things may be reversed or altered if you like. The main point to be insisted on is that she delve and not dab. At the end of the ten years' course, assuming if you will that she has not earned a dollar, she will have five occupations at her disposal in the not impossible case of having at some time to earn her own living, and she will be a broader woman for it all.

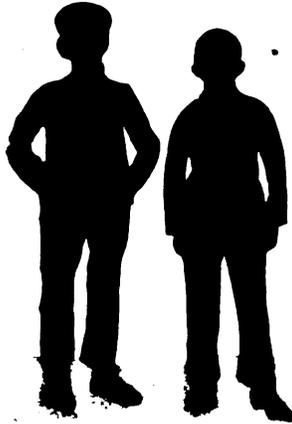
And if she still yearns for more fields to conquer I'll give her something to do in the office of the International Sunshine Society where she can come in contact with the pleasures and the pains of good people the world over. That will be a sort of finishing touch to her education.

CYNTHIA WESTOVER ALDEN.



HOW ONE SOUTHERN MILL WAS MANNED.

This illustration is not published for its excellence as a half-tone engraving, but because it forms an interesting exhibit. It is taken from C. A. Tomkins's *Cotton Mill Commercial Future*, a volume published in 1899. This was of course five years before the present North Carolina law went into effect and it is hardly possible that the picture could be duplicated in that state to-day, but at the recent legislative contest in Raleigh some of the manufacturers publicly deplored the fact that any legislation at all had been enacted.



The Child Labor Campaign

National in Scope

Samuel McCune Lindsey
Secretary National Child Labor Committee

RHODE ISLAND BOYS¹

To remove the evils of child labor and to work for the protection, education, and development of the children of the community whose parents are neglectful and irresponsible or are unable to do for their children what they ought to do, appeals to a noble sentiment in us all. To translate this sentiment into wise and sustained action practical in character and productive of definite results, is a difficult task in any state or locality.

The same difficulties are usually encountered everywhere. There is a wonderful unanimity in the experiences of different states and different countries as they pass through, with almost no variation, the several stages, from the beginnings of the awakening on the part of the community as a whole to the sacrifice of its children until some standard is set up in legislation. The stages mark the overcoming of the chain of objections that are urged by those who say that their business will be ruined and important industries driven from the state; by those who fear that the work of the reformers will be an entering wedge to greater restriction of the unbridled greed and selfishness of those who measure values in dollars, in pounds of material things, and in fluctuations of the stock market; and finally the objections of the reformers themselves, who recall the fact that under very different conditions they began work at a youthful age without permanent injury, or are skeptical of the real advantages of education other than that ob-

tained from hard knocks in a factory or on the street, or who think that to take care of the children of the community aright may mean increased taxation to supply schools, but who might be willing to agree to some protection for the children in industry provided an exception were made of the special industry or occupation with which they, themselves, are identified. These objections, almost without exception and almost in the same language, were stated in England a hundred years ago, and have been repeated in every modern state where the subject of child labor legislation has been considered.

It is one thing to arouse an interest for the child and to realize that it is the greatest and most valuable economic asset of any civilization; it is another thing, vastly more difficult, to work out, step by step, a plan or program of public action, a scheme of legislation and an adequate system of enforcement which will safeguard and guarantee the child's normal development in harmony with the true interests of the state in the entire political, industrial, and cultural life of all its citizens. Both of these tasks are comprehended in the purpose for which the National Child Labor Committee was organized. Its membership is made up from among those who have most prominently identified themselves with the anti-child labor sentiment of their respective states; and it covers, in its present membership, sixteen states and territories. Separated, therefore, by thousands of miles, it is well-nigh impossible to bring such a committee together frequently, or

¹ The smaller boy (12 years old) works in Rhode Island with a certificate from the Overseer of the Poor that his family depends upon his wages. Besides his father's wages four older brothers earn \$22 a week.

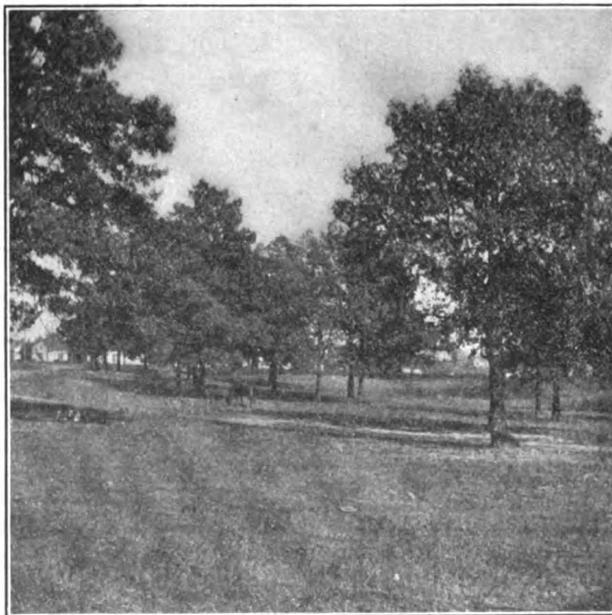
at any single meeting to have even a majority of its membership present. Its consultations, exchange of views, and criticism of specific plans of action, upon which its executive board of trustees depends, must needs be had very largely through correspondence. Its annual meeting came this year after a very few months of active work since the organization of the committee, and therefore served, rather, the purposes of a more general survey of the field than a report of work accomplished.

A Roll Call of Forces. At the first meeting, the program provided for a roll call of leading forces that have been or may be arrayed against child labor. Within the great body of citizens who make and represent each of these forces, there are progressive elements, and also conservative, and even retrogressive individuals, in large numbers. The letter of Cardinal Gibbons and the address of Bishop McVickar, at the opening session, certainly struck the true note and gave voice to the best expression which the church of every creed and all sections of the country, in its appeal to the consciences of men, demands—that

also the voice of the little child shall be heard. If it is mute and unconscious of the wrongs that are imposed upon it, then the church, as the embodiment of the highest ideals of the race, must unflinchingly speak for it and, in no uncertain tones, demand a consideration of the just claims of its birthright.

It was the leader of the higher intellectual life of the South who very appropriately spoke for the school as another force. Not without some pathos—realizing, as Dr. Kirkland did, the poverty of schools throughout the Southland and the great sacrifices that its people are making to give the advantages of the school to their children—did this appeal come to the people of the North, who listened to the voice of the school in its protest against the robbery that is committed in the name of industrial necessity, by which children are taken from the guarding and protecting care of the school before they have been moulded into the race life, or have even had a chance to lay the foundation of that which we call elementary education and recognize as an increasingly indispensable requisite even in the humblest station of life.

Labor, in its highest aspirations,



IN DIXIE.

The "gutter" from which the Southern Cotton Mill rescues the children.

organized for the upward march of civilization to secure larger opportunities for home life, for decent manhood and womanhood, for even a few of the good things in the world, also spoke unequivocally, and not without some timidity born of past defeats, of its solicitude for the children; and lastly came the strong economic argument presented by Dr. Hirsch for the employer and for the increasing number of those who belong to the employing class, whose vision has been enlarged, who know something of the penny-wise and pound-foolish maxim, and who realize that in an increasing number of industries it pays to train an efficient labor force, and not, by the premature employment of children, to make such development impossible.

This session brought out from the North and South, the East and West, the same keen appreciation of the growing evils and the increasing dangers which menace public welfare, threaten the foundations of our industrial prosperity, and which have already added to the burdens of social degradation. The several speakers indicated clearly that only through the wide exchange of views, through a broader sweep of social observa-

tion, and a comparison on a national scale, can a knowledge of the actual conditions about us be secured and be sufficient to arouse these forces to assert themselves and successfully combat the inevitable results of inaction and the destructive tendencies of the low standards of those to whom the welfare of the community is second to personal gain.

A Practical Review.

Perhaps the most instructive session was the second, at which the legislation and methods of enforcement of laws on child labor in New England, the Middle States, Southern States and Western States, were reviewed. The tests of effective legislation were considered, and some of the difficulties in securing legislation were pointed out. Dr. Anderson had been through the thick of the fight in one of the great cotton manufacturing states of the South, and knew intimately how every step towards securing the moderate amount of protection now afforded to the children of Alabama had been secured; Judge Lindsey has been identified with the most varied efforts, both in securing and in enforcing legislation relating to children, not only in his own state of



IN DIXIE.
The only two 12-year-olds found in the village outside the Cotton Mill.

Colorado, but throughout other sections of the country; Mrs. Kelley, as an administrator of labor legislation and as one of the most active and best informed workers for labor legislation, gave a keen analysis of some of the excellencies and weaknesses of present laws; and Mr. Lovejoy, a practical investigator, who has visited sections where children are employed in many states, spoke forcibly and authoritatively of the laws which, under actual conditions, work and do not work. Thus, again, were the South, the Middle West, the North and East represented on our program.

Mrs. Granger spoke as chairman of the child labor committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs with its 700,000 members already well aroused and intelligently studying and discussing what can be done to strengthen and extend the wall of protection that we must throw around the undeveloped child. Other papers, treating of legislation in the Northern Central States and some of the physiological reasons underlying the anti-labor movement and the proper scope of state authority in these matters, will be added to the program of this session when it appears in full.

The last session, held in conjunction with the People's Institute, from whose forum so often comes the note of the new ethics of the larger democracy into which we are growing, gave another opportunity for a new and fresh appeal, not alone to the large audience made up of sixteen hundred or more working people, or even to the city and state of New York, which always lends a willing ear to what is said at Cooper Union, but rather to the entire country. Dr. Felix Adler, the chairman of the national committee, had already, to an equally large audience, stated the imperative ethical demands of the present child-labor situation, and he was to have spoken again on *The Evils of Child Labor*, but was prevented from being present by illness, although his address will appear in the full report of the proceedings. Dr. McKelway, just back from a month's struggle in his own state with the legislature of North Carolina, which declined to raise the age at which girls and illiterate boys may enter the mill, from twelve to fourteen years, clearly showed the wide scope of the economic and political forces

involved in the maintenance of child labor. A New England invention reverses the attitude of the North and South on the question of slavery, and makes child labor, in the industry where it is perhaps most profitable to-day, possible throughout the entire industrial world. Another shift in economic conditions brings about another situation with respect to child labor in the South as it exists to-day, and thousands of forces must be reckoned with and new adjustments effected, involving the interests of no one section, but of all sections of the country before final victory is attained. The chief factory inspector of the state of Illinois, Edgar T. Davies, also spoke at this meeting of what it is possible to do and of the difficulties encountered by the department of government charged with the enforcement of child-labor legislation; and, lastly, a new note was struck by Jane Addams, in her address, pointing out that child-labor legislation has become a requisite for industrial efficiency. This thought, which centered in the effect of child labor and of cheap labor in lowering the grade of work that can be done and making the community that employs children inevitably dependent upon the markets for the cheapest goods, and in deteriorating the superior skill of its better workmen, gave us a discussion which admirably supplemented that of Dr. Hirsch at the first session, and thus rounded out the economics of the child-labor situation.

Here again, at this session, it was not the experience of any one locality, it was not the voice of the spokesman for any particular section, but rather the North and East, the Middle West and the South, united on one platform in a fair and generous consideration of the interests and the difficulties of the needs and the opportunities of all parts of the country.

The Legislative Situation.

The present situation in the several state legislatures, where legislation relating to child labor is now pending, and the difficulties there encountered, offer ample proof of the need of just such a meeting as that held by the national committee. They emphasize the truth that child labor is a national problem—that it can be dealt with only by national



CHILD LABOR AS A REJUVENATOR.

The boy in the center is only nine and goes to school. He is as large as one and larger than the other of the "glass boys" who *say* they are thirteen.



SCHOOL BOYS IN A PENNSYLVANIA GLASS TOWN.

The large boy is fourteen and has worked in a glass house three years. His certificate said he was thirteen when he began.



"GLASS BOYS."
Home from the night shift.

legislation, which, except for the District of Columbia, could not be had without an amendment to the Constitution, but rather that it must be dealt with in a national way—that is, through co-operation, conference and exchange of experiences, as well as mutual concessions in the legislation of the several states.

The situation with respect to the glass industry furnishes an illustration in point. The three contiguous corners of the states of Ohio, Pennsylvania and West Virginia give us one glass center which is not within the legislative jurisdiction of any one of these states. In each, the argument is used that restriction, which this industry regards as vexatious if not disastrous, will either drive the industry from the state which enacts such legislation into one of the others which does not, or that it will create unfair conditions of competition. Such a condition of affairs can only be met by bringing public opinion throughout this district, comprising the three corners of three different states, to treat this problem as a community problem, just as if their citizens all resided in one state, and to demand of the legislatures of all three states legislation that will bear equally and equitably upon this industry. The glass manufacturers of Pennsylvania could not say then that "any legislation affecting our industry will drive us out of the state of Pennsylvania." Such a state-

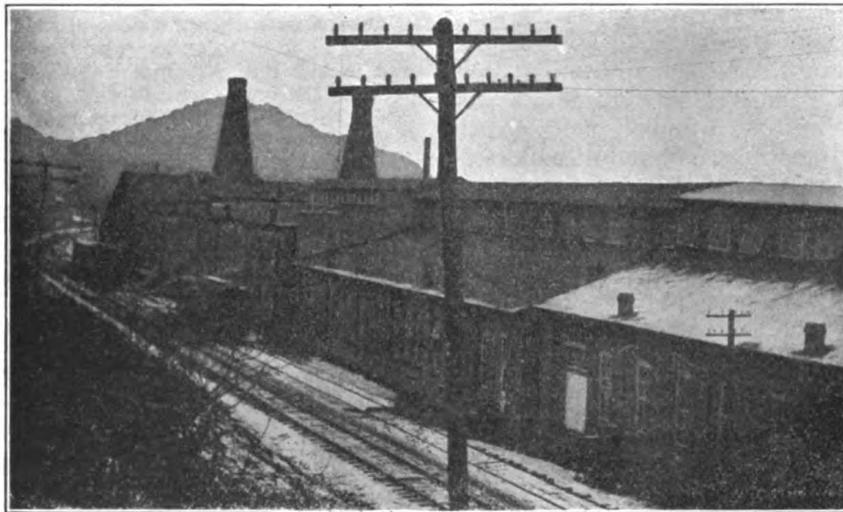
ment is not true now; but it would not even have the semblance of an argument, if the people residing in communities where the evils of child labor in the glass industry are so apparent, would act in a national way. How many industries have sent their representatives before the ways and means committee of the House of Representatives in Washington, when tariff schedules were under discussion, protesting that any change would drive them out of business, or that if they did not secure an increase in the tariff their business would go to some other country? And how many of these same industries have actually closed down when they did not get the protection they desired? Members of Congress are more familiar with this bluff than are the average members of state legislatures who are not accustomed to deal with legislation affecting industry as directly as does the tariff. Nevertheless, not until the apparent reasonableness of such an argument is removed by the co-operative action of public opinion in several states can its influence upon the state legislature be overcome, especially when strong industries can afford to maintain strong and well-paid lobbies; and the public interests, as well as those of the children, must be looked after by voluntary associations of citizens.

What is true of the situation in the glass industry is also true in other in-

dustries where sectional interests and economic competition are involved. In New England, the National Child Labor Committee has been advocating that the standard be raised in Rhode Island, and has been met with the argument that the mills of Rhode Island are suffering from competition with the South, where child labor is cheap and abundant, and not until we secure the exclusion of children from the Southern cotton mills may we expect any further exclusion in Rhode Island or elsewhere in New England. At the very same time this argument is presented in Rhode Island, our representative before the legislature of North Carolina is accused of being the paid emissary of the New England manufacturer bent upon the destruction of cotton manufacturing in the South, rather than upon a humanitarian desire to elevate the children of the South. It is almost useless to state the facts in the case, but, so far as we know, not one dollar of the small sum voluntarily contributed thus far to meet the expenses of this committee has come from a Northern cotton manufacturer—or from a Southern manufac-

turer either, for that matter—and some of the strongest members of the committee are Southern men. These facts are not, however, as effective as a little getting together on the part of intelligent representatives of these groups of economic interests, and a little mutual appreciation of each other's position, and an attempt to formulate legislation, or a program of legislation, that will harmonize them and make gradual, progressive advance possible.

I am sure that those who participated in this first annual meeting of the National Child Labor Committee, who met the strong, earnest representatives of the thought of different sections in this country, and who participated in the informal discussions between the meetings, went away with a feeling of hopefulness for the future. It may not take many such gatherings before we shall have knit together a body of doctrine based on a larger and broader economics, with a new national spirit which will raise the standard all along the line, and make the evils of child labor a thing of the past in these United States of America.



A glass house in Ohio where boys twelve and thirteen years old were found working at night. (The law forbids night work for boys under sixteen.)

The manager says: "Labor laws are a sop to the labor people. This work requires a little fellow that's nimble and can handle himself."

The National Child Labor Meeting

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 14-16

Not only did the annual meeting of the National Child Labor Committee, February 14, 15, and 16, in New York, give an extensive view of conditions north, south, east and west, and give an intensive impulse toward knitting together the various agencies and interests which are opposing child labor—it dealt with more subtle, more significant geography. The meeting showed that the child-labor campaign is bounded on the north by civics, on the south by education, on the east by industry, and on the west by the law. It showed that this campaign is a first step toward a saner adjustment of the training for rising generations to the conditions of modern life—an insistence that adequate measures be developed in a score of fields of effort towards insuring for America a people who will stand for public spirit, intelligence, efficiency and fair play. Boldly and clearly were brought out the deteriorating effects of child labor upon industrial and social life in general. No less emphatically were the lines of attack pointed out from which results can be expected, and this perhaps in the discussions even more emphatically than in the formal papers. There were those who with Bishop McVickar and Dr. Hirsch were firm in maintaining that social peace and American ideals demand a well-rounded probationate; that a cheated childhood leads to adult embitterment. There were those who with Chancellor Kirkland showed that child-labor legislation without adequate school facilities is going only half way, that the problem is not only to keep the child away from where he will be harmed, but to put him in the kind of school which teaches him how to grow to usefulness and into the efficient exercise of his full powers. There were those who with Jane Addams showed that there must be an adaptation of the public-school system to the present industrial situation, that were present educational methods adapted to present conditions, compulsory education and child-labor laws would often be unnecessary, and that a higher craftsmanship must be built up if America is to keep pace in industrial supremacy. And there were those who

with Judge Lindsey showed that there must be an interlocking of agencies, that neither school nor labor law nor factory can realize the resources of an industrial society if boys are still crowded into jails, still treated as adults are treated under the rigors of an outgrown criminal law, still left merely to the devices of homes which under present industrial conditions have been deprived of some of their best tools to fashion childhood.

There was a large attendance at the Cooper Union meeting which, in connection with the People's Institute, closed the sessions. The earlier meetings at the United Charities Building were crowded and so, also, the dinner to the out-of-town guests at the Aldine Club.

Among the letters of regret read at the opening session by Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay, secretary of the national committee, two were of special interest. They were from Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore, and Edgar E. Clark, of Cedar Rapids, Iowa, a trade unionist well known for his work on the Anthracite Strike Commission. To quote in part:

. I beg to assure you that I am in accord with the purposes of this meeting, I shall be glad to endorse any adequate and just means that you may see fit to adopt to prevent the employing of children at an age when they need the home and school for their proper development physically, socially and morally.

If some course can be adopted whereby the fathers of large families may be enabled to provide for the wants of their growing children without feeling the necessity of turning their little ones into the shops as bread-winners, I think a good step will have been taken to prepare the way for laws prohibitive of child labor.

Wishing you all success in your deliberations, I beg to remain,

Faithfully yours,

J. (CARDINAL) GIBBONS.

. I hail with delight the organization of this national committee because I believe that it is the right step in the direction of methodical and effective work. Much has been done in a sort of spasmodic way. Organized labor, wherever it has got on its feet with sufficient security to permit of its giving thought to any subject aside from its own immediate struggle for existence, has raised its voice in opposition to child labor. This is not, as some charge, indicative of

selfishness or desire to promote self-interest on the part of the workmen. Organization among workmen is a cropping out of that hope for better things which is ever present, and is evidence of a desire on the part of workmen to see their loved ones enjoy the fullest possible and a reasonable measure of the comforts of life; and their interest in the subject of child labor is a reflection of their desire to have their children, in turn, enjoy better conditions of health and life and work than they enjoy themselves.

Child labor, as practiced in many places, especially where the largest numbers of children are employed, is the mortgaging beyond redemption of the health and the moral and physical welfare of generations yet unborn. I look for far-reaching and great good to come from this organized and systemized effort to reasonably regulate the employment of children, and shall be glad at all times to do what little may be within my power to do to assist in that work.

Yours very truly,

EDGAR E. CLARK,
Grand Chief Conductor,
Order of Railway Conductors of America

The addresses of the conference will be published in full in a volume which will appear as the May number of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. These will include addresses read by title only. Notable among these is that of Dr. Felix Adler, chairman of the national committee, on *The Evils of Child Labor*. Illness prevented Dr. Adler's presence at the sessions. Others will be *Legislation and Methods in the Northern and Central States*, Halford Erickson, commissioner of labor, Wisconsin; *Some Physiological Reasons Why the Premature Employment of Children Under Modern Industrial Conditions is a Menace to the Race*, D. L. Emmett Holt, New York city; *What the State Owes the Child*, Dr. Lindsay, and *Organized Labor* by Edgar E. Clark. The spoken addresses are here published in abstract.

The Forces Arrayed Against Child Labor

(FIRST SESSION)

Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay, secretary of the national committee, presided at the opening session and explained briefly its aim and scope. He said:

First of all, our committee has been organized but a very short time. The meeting for the purpose of organization was held last April, and several months elapsed before an executive office could be established and the machinery for practical work set in motion. Therefore, we have been at work practically only three or four months, gathering data from all parts of the country, collecting literature and information on all laws and economic and industrial conditions together with the sentiment prevailing in the different communities with respect to the protection of the children.

The national committee stands sponsor for the interest of 29,000,000 children—there being that many under sixteen years of age in the United States—all in need of protection for their proper development, educationally, industrially, morally and physically. The committee, in a measure, stands for all progressive movements which look after and voice the interest of this great part of our population.

Our committee has not been organized to take the place of any other existing committee or any other organization established for securing more adequate laws or better enforcement of existing legislation; nor was it organized for the purpose of securing na-

tional legislation—for we are far removed from the point where we can deal with this matter legislatively in a national way. Our chief purpose is to develop a national sentiment for the protection of the children and to make the power of public sentiment felt in all localities; to raise the standard gradually in the different communities, and to have a standard established where none exists at present; to meet industrial and economic conditions in this country in the way acknowledged as best by those who know these conditions best.

“The Church.”

W. N. McVICKAR, D. D.,
Bishop of Rhode Island.

I feel the responsibility and great opportunity of representing, as I believe, God's Church . . . And I am glad that that body should be placed in the very forefront, the body representing the followers of Him who once took a little child and placed him in the midst of His disciples, pointing him out as an example. . . . I am thankful, as I read history, to realize that the church has stood side by side with the school through all the ages; that its great function, as emanating from the heart of its Master, was a teaching function; that it was sent forth to teach—to teach the grand principles of morality in the name of a higher life. And I cannot forget that through all those long, long ages, when darkness seemed

to threaten the world, that freedom, too, found its home. But the slave and the least of God's children have found a ready haven in the Church of God.

I am proud to be associated with organized labor, and I only wish that my brother who is on the program to represent that force, were here to-night, instead of absent. I should like to thank him personally for the part that organized labor has taken against this great evil.

I am glad to be associated also with one who stands here to-night to represent the employer. We have no quarrel with any class; we have no quarrel with labor; we have no quarrel with capital. But it is to the interest of labor that the character of its employment should be raised and its morals be heightened, and it is to the interests of capital and labor that the best sort of labor should be kept in the market and on a high level. A noted historian once said that the weaving of cloth in England had improved since the introduction of moral philosophy. We have no trouble with any class, nor with any one except him who represents the meanest and most short-sighted greed—but it comes to that at last, and I never realized this more completely than when at the recent hearing before our legislative committee I heard the various pleas made for and against improved legislation for the protection of our children of Rhode Island; and I realized for my brothers who had to speak against the law that we were urging, that they did it with shamed faces—that in the last analysis it was in reality the dollar against the child, and so against manhood, and so against citizenship!

The church, it is true, has been sadly misunderstood at times, has been thought to be backward and, when people have tried to gain her influence for some specific cause and she has refused to come down into the arena, has been said to hold back. But we all know that she supplies a prop to us in every cause for righteousness—not only that, but she stands for that divine philanthropy of which the poet has spoken, which extends its interest over all humanity—and that interest is most close when consecrated to the care of the weak, of those least able to care for themselves. And it is not forgotten by her that our Master said: "Whoever shall offend one of these little ones, it were well for him that a stone were hanged about his neck and he were thrown into the midst of the sea."

The church does one other thing. She sends into the world men and women well equipped and inspired with the highest ideals, to do her work in every department of life—to be better men and women in business and society, better citizens of the state—better for the high ideals and tender conscience which she has awakened in them.

It has been said by a wise writer that the experiment of democratic government is still in its early stages. Our land has passed

through many crises, and God grant that it may pass through the crises which are still confronting it. But if the republic is to exist, if the republic is to go on and develop and become all that it is intended to become, its citizenship must be of the highest character. It may be that other lands can get along without schools, under different rules—under the rule of despotism or bureaucracy even; but in our land of self-government, citizenship must be enlightened, it must be educated, its morale must be high; and, to-day, the problem that menaces this country—one of the greatest—is its ability to assimilate the vast tide of immigration which is inundating our shores and which is unparalleled in the history of any land.

The School.

JAMES H. KIRKLAND,

Chancellor Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn.

Child labor is our modern slaughter of the innocents. Against it we must rally the church, the school, the press, organized labor, and a universal public sentiment. Reformation in America is effected not by violence, but by thought.

The school represents the state in its parental capacity. Our conceptions of government are changing. We no longer believe in a state whose duties are solely to protect life and property. The state must care for its own life, but for its higher life as well as its lower.

In the work of education, the activity of the state finds its highest expression. Here it devotes itself to perfecting citizenship, to creating those elements that work for the highest national prosperity.

All America believes in universal education. We believe in our public school system, the only way education can be made universal. We oppose child labor because it preys upon helpless childhood and begets an ignorant manhood. No child labor laws are effective that disregard the educational advancement of the child. Our problem is not simply to keep a child out of the factories, but to keep it at school. Labor is better than irresponsible idleness. The factory is better than the slums, sometimes better than the home, but it is never better than the school.

A definite educational requirement should be demanded before allowing any minor to enter the ranks of labor. This requirement should be something distinctly in advance of present requirements of ability to read and write. The child who goes to work after learning to read and write will frequently forget what he has learned and drift back into the class of hopelessly illiterate. There are, no doubt, children under sixteen at work in every state in the Union who cannot read and write.

In the bulletin issued last year by the United States Department of Commerce and Labor, statistics are given with reference to 1,381 children at work in thirteen states.

Of this small number, illiterates were found in ten out of thirteen states. From the same number of states were reported cases that had never attended school before entering work, and a large number had only attended one or two years. Out of the number of children examined, 341 were in the four southern states of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama. Of these, 146 could not read and write, 57 had never been to school at all before entering work, and 198 others had attended less than three years, which in the South means less than fifteen months of schooling.

But the South is not alone in this crime. In the city of Philadelphia the Pennsylvania Child Labor Committee has shown that there are 16,000 children between eight and thirteen out of the schools in violation of the law.

From the standpoint of the schools, we urge: first, a more satisfactory educational test as a condition precedent to the employment of minors; second, that the enforcement of requirements be lodged with those interested in the education of children; third, that better schools be provided.

The problems of the South are largely wrapped up in the great problem of education. For this we are working with a sublime faith and a heroic courage. We rejoice that we are assured of national co-operation and national sympathy. The bitterness of former differences will be most quickly forgotten by those working together in a great and holy enterprise. On the nation's heart do we lay the burden of American childhood, helpless and ignorant to-day, but infinite in its possibilities for to-morrow.

The Employers of Labor.

EMIL G. HIRSCH,
Chicago

Enlightened self-interest is the name of the invented deity that is invoked as the supreme lawgiver in human affairs and relations by economic orthodoxy. While the dogmas proclaimed by the priests of this fetich are no longer regarded as infallible formulæ of truth by thinkers and students, it is probable that the majority of "practical" men are still held in bondage by the old faith. Accepting for the moment the position defended by the dogmatists, let us ask in what light must the exploitation of child labor present itself to an employer actuated by enlightened egotism?

Waste is the unpardonable sin against which the catechism of the industrial church emphasizes warning in almost every paragraph. Child labor is *wasteful* and therefore unprofitable, expensive. Under the autocracy of steam, industry has run to highly specialized and therefore delicately complex forms of organization. The pace of activity is set by the necessity to attain the maximum of production at the minimum of cost.

Time and material are important factors in this equation. To utilize to its utmost the time element, work must be sustained at its intensest; and this intensity should be maintained as far as possible at one and the same degree. Concentration of attention is indispensable to achieve this end. It is a well-known fact, amply demonstrated by the investigations of psychologists, that sustained and concentrated interest for so long a time as is prerequisite and demanded in factory and mine and mill and shop, is beyond the strength of the child mind. Variety of interest is one of the essential existences of the child mind. The child, thus, cannot keep pace with the tempo which must be maintained in the factory. With interest and attention dissipated, the child's work becomes naturally slower, irregular, intermittent. Time is not utilized to its maximum possibility. Child labor becomes expensive. One man can do more work than three children. Child labor is the dearest, not the cheapest, because under the law to which human nature is subject, the child requires infinitely more time to accomplish a certain effect than will the adult.

With relaxed attention and dissipated concentration of mental energy, carelessness in the handling of material is the unavoidable consequence. Child labor is unprofitable also on this account. Skill and training alone insure economy in the handling of tools and machinery, and what is wasted, spoiled, both in material and machinery, where child labor is tolerated, more than offsets the seeming saving in the wage account.

Discipline is another important factor that enters into this calculation. In our modern mammoth commercial and industrial beehives, it is plain that upon the maintenance of discipline success is conditioned. Children are much less amenable to discipline than are adults. Play is their inalienable right and this right nature will maintain surreptitiously when artificial regulations render its open exercise impossible. On account of the difficulty of maintaining discipline among child laborers, many an employer has determined to dispense with them. As legislation in some states has prescribed reduced hours for such as have attained the minimum age when employment may be given—in Illinois those that are over fourteen and less than sixteen years of age—the discipline of the shop is further weakened. This has been the reason why, though the law permits, under restriction, their employment, this class of (child) laborers has not found favor in the eyes of employers.

Needless to say that child labor is never *intelligent* labor. It stunts *intelligence*. Physically harmful, it also retards the growth of the mind. The child of to-day is the man of to-morrow. Saturn devours his own offspring. Children rendered weak and unintelligent to-day unavoidably force the

employer to-morrow to deal with weak un-intelligent *men* and *women*. And the day after to-morrow, the race having of necessity deteriorated, the workmen will be congenitally weak, and unintelligent, and immoral; and employment of weak, immoral, unintelligent labor is unprofitable, wasteful.

Self-interest urges employers to put an end to the waste inherent in child labor.

But employers are also moved by a sense of justice. Social peace is not an indifferent quantity in industry and commerce. A strong, manly, intelligent corps of workers trained to think and in the consciousness of its dignity inclined to co-operate with the employers will be less prone to act upon impulsive passions and endanger the peace and harmony upon which profitable industrial

co-operation depends. Workmen that have been cheated of their childhood, that have been unfairly robbed of the period intended by nature for the development of brain and brawn, must of necessity harbor—beyond all other ill-effects—distrust against the apparent beneficiaries of this unjust system of spoliation. Employers that have “clean hands” that have not taken away without compensation the *man's* future in employing the *child*—and that species of robbery is involved in child labor—will be on a footing with their men which when difficulties arise cannot but prove advantageous to both. The Moloch of child labor has claimed its horrible tribute too long. Employers have suffered almost as grievously under this Moloch's exaction as have the slaughtered innocents.

Legislation, Enforcement and Present Problems

(SECOND SESSION)

The Test of Effective Legislation.

OWEN R. LOVEJOY,
Assistant Secretary National Committee.

By effective legislation we may mean either that ideal legislation which adequately protects childhood from all the forces blindly or selfishly preying upon its birth-right, or that practical legislation which carries within itself the possibility of enforcement, however high or low the standard. The subject is treated from this second viewpoint and the suggestions offered are the result of a field study of the problem. It is found that low age standards are maintained with more difficulty than high, and that the mere requirement of ability to read and write simple English sentences is open to abuses from which a more advanced requirement is free.

Child labor legislation must be made to harmonize with other laws affecting the same class in society. Our aim is not simply to keep children from working, but to produce intelligent citizens. Effective legislation must then provide for the investigation of all the children in the community. The superintendent of schools in a Rhode Island town affirms that there are 1,168 children of school age in that town of whom there is no official record, while the Pennsylvania Committee reports 16,100 children between the ages of eight and thirteen in Philadelphia who are not in the schools. This large army of children falls through between the truant officer and the factory inspector and is lost to our American institutions. The standards of an English education must be maintained and harmony must exist between child labor committees and local school authorities. Every law should also provide the agencies and machinery for its enforcement, with reasonable tenure of office and salary to those responsible. A truant officer covering a territory

of thirty square miles, with an annual salary of \$200, can hardly be a model of efficiency. Legislation should be based on industrial rather than geographical boundaries. A field study of the glass industry in Western Pennsylvania, Eastern Ohio and the panhandle of West Virginia reveals the necessity of greater uniformity in sections which are practically a unit in industrial interests. The age limit in Ohio is fourteen, in Pennsylvania thirteen, and in West Virginia twelve. Night work under sixteen is forbidden in Ohio but permitted in the other states. The Pennsylvania manufacturer of glass threatens to move over into West Virginia if night work is restricted, thus frightening legislators into inactivity, while the Ohio manufacturer in the river towns ignores the law and employs boys of twelve and thirteen years at night upon the plea that he cannot compete with producers in the neighboring states if the law is rigidly enforced. His plea is specious, because glass can be and is being produced without this sacrifice of life, but it convinces the public and silences the official!

In certain states little children are found in large numbers working in the mills because of a loose construction of the law. If it is intended to restrict the working of little children, the law must be made to forbid that children under a certain age, or lacking certain attainments, shall “be employed, permitted, or suffered to work.” Thus children will be kept from entering the factory as unpaid helpers of other members of the family.

Certificates of age should be so guarded by requirement of proof as to remove from parents the temptation to perjury. To issue an age certificate to a child, based on the unsupported oath of a parent who has no conception of an English education or American standards and who measures his child solely by his present earning capacity.

is to subject that parent to a temptation to deception which increases in direct proportion to the parent's incapacity to withstand it.

The "poor widow" must be cared for otherwise than by the sacrifice of her little children to industrial slavery, and the new version of the old story will teach us that, while the rich and powerful are casting their stocks and gold and machinery into the treasury of our industrial temple, the poor widow who casts in her two mites of children has cast in more than they all, for she has cast in all that she has, even her life! Proper methods of relief will prevent the loss of a child's future value to society for the paltry ninety-three cents a week, the wages actually found for some little ones in northern mills.

Our educational system must be so adapted to modern conditions as to provide the child that industrial training essential to his future usefulness. A little Italian boy coming out of a New England factory was asked if he preferred the shop to the school, "Sure," he said, "de school aint no good, dey only learn you to write pictures, dat's all, dat's all dey ever learnt me." He earns \$1.10 a week for two days of ten hours each, loafing the other days. He left school from the first grade and is entirely illiterate. Our schools should provide at least enough technical training to establish the connection in the child's mind between education and industrial efficiency. The child will thus become the guardian, rather than the enemy, of the laws enacted for his protection.

The Work of Women's Clubs.

MRS. CAROLINE D. G. GRANGER,
Cartersville, Ga.¹

The industrial condition of women and children who toil for bread is as much our responsibility as though we were the employers. Purchasing and enjoying the fruits of their labor, we have only of late years realized that to us is partly due the suffering born in producing the results.

Emerson asserted that civilization was "the power of good women." How great then the power of the 700,000 women bound together for usefulness in the General Federation.

The child labor committee of the General Federation has advised the city federations and the state federations to study local conditions systematically, and where it is found that the labor of young children is believed to be needed for the family support they are to be persuaded to return to school and the weekly amount formerly earned paid to the widow as a scholarship. A similar plan has been successful in Switzerland for twenty-five years under state authority.

The federation recently issued the fol-

¹Chairman child labor committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

lowing suggestions to all clubs and state federations:

1. That children under the age of sixteen years should not work between the hours of 7 P. M. and 7 A. M.

2. That children should not work who cannot read and write in the English language.

3. In states in which these two points are already covered by effective laws, the adoption of the standard child labor law is recommended, including the newsboys' law.

I wish you would go with me to one of the night schools maintained by operators who employ illiterate children. The majority of the children look bleached and tired and the smallest children make what is often a vain struggle against the utter fatigue which is the result of a long day's monotonous labor in the mill. In the South many of the mill children are drawn from the country. Club women are attempting to counteract this tendency by helping to equip the country schools with gardening manual training and other industrial arts which will help develop a keen perception and love of home.

The women of the General Federation of Women's Clubs hope soon to see the day when from end to end of our land, whether cotton, or silk, or glass, or fruit canning be the prevailing industry, the fathers must be the ones to earn the support for the family; when no children under sixteen shall work during the night hours and when the presence of boys or girls in a factory of any kind proves that they can read and write in English and have reached such a stage in physical development that the long hours will not dwarf them.

Legislation and Methods of Enforcement in the Western States.

BEN B. LINDSEY,
Judge Juvenile Court, Denver, Col.

We, out West, have never felt the necessity of child labor legislation as you have in the East and the South, because we have not, for lack of more developed conditions, met that spirit of commercialism which seems always ready to attack any movement toward the relief of the children.

Just so far as we insist and understand, and administer, through the courts, the powers of the state to the needs of her men and women—and, above all, of her little children, just so far we lift them up. Our country depends not on what it is to-day, but on what it is to be twenty, thirty or forty years from now, and what it is now depends not upon the great financial enterprises, but on how you are looking after the children of to-day, to make the people of the future.

A child labor law can be of little effect unless we also have a compulsory education law and other laws needed to supplement it

in the interests of the children. We must strive and struggle and fight in every state. But it merely teaches us that we must never let up until we have all the laws that are necessary for the protection of the children, and have the men in office who will enforce those laws.

Boys who are brought to the juvenile court in Denver are classified as to whether they are school boys or working boys. It is not so much the question of work, but how much, and where. A man said to me the other day, "Child-labor law breeds idleness." I believe we can make great progress with the boys of this nation, if we add some kind of method to improve the boy, training him to do work when he does become of age. I am told that there are 25,000 boys who go through the messenger service in this city; and if that is the case, you have got 25,000 boys, most of whom have started on the road to hell, in this town.

I want to see the time come in this country when a boy don't have to commit a crime to learn a trade. I want to see that system in the school which will teach the boys to do good work, and become efficient and effective additions to society. And when that time comes we will begin to help solve the problem of the working boy in a legitimate way.

Legislation and Methods in the Southern States.

NEAL L. ANDERSON,
Montgomery, Ala.

Laws against child labor are among the earliest expressions of the awakening of the civic consciousness of the people of the South, which has come upon them with the suddenness of a noonday without a morning. Up to the present time, the textile industry of this section has been largely centralized in the two Carolinas, Georgia and Alabama; and it is in these states that the problem of child labor has been recognized, and here the battle for the industrial freedom of the child of the South must be fought and won.

The statutes in the South are defective in the requirements concerning proof of age of the child. Even in states in which proof is required, affidavits of age may be made by the parent or legal guardian—the very persons against whose shiftlessness and heartlessness society has found it necessary everywhere to protect children.

Among the difficulties encountered in attempts to secure effective legislation I will mention, first, the apathy and indifference of the public mind toward this movement of reform. In the South this has been accentuated by the unfamiliarity of the people with the industrial conditions. Second, is the fact that many of the mills are managed by men of a just and humane spirit. Such mills are brought to the front in every public discussion of the evils of child labor,

and the impression is given that the pictures of these evils are largely overdrawn.

The third difficulty is the prejudice against organized labor. In a section where local self-government has for generations been most jealously guarded, it cannot surprise the student to find that individualism has run to the extreme in the denial of the right of the state to interfere with employer and employé in the interests of the children.

The fourth difficulty is the inability of the South to provide for compulsory education. The South has been fearfully handicapped in her efforts to meet the problems created by the illiteracy of her people. A double system of public education has been, with all its burdens and with its varied difficulties, the inevitable issue of our problem of population. With the gravest problems of civilization, the South has been expected to assume the task of education of two populations out of the poverty of one.

The success of the cotton industry in the South does not depend upon the toil of her young children. The plain facts of the case are, that the inducements offered to the capitalists by the South are the proximity of the mills to the water-power, their proximity to the cotton fields, the salubrity of her climate, and the freedom from labor troubles, and not the sacrifice of her children upon the altar of greed. In states where such similar conditions obtain, as in Georgia, Alabama and the Carolinas, there should be a continuance of efforts to secure, as far as possible, uniformity in the laws protecting children. And in attempting to make these laws effective, I would urge, finally, that wherever practicable, proof of age should be required, to be supplemented by a standard of physical efficiency; and in all cases there should be required, for children under twelve years of age, a certificate showing that they can read and write in the English language, signed, not by the parent or guardian alone, but by the principal or teacher of some public school, residing in the county where the factory is located.

I pledge to those interested in this movement that the South with her needs and with her new industries will not be, in the long run, behind her sister states in the protection of her little children.

Legislation and Methods in the New England and Middle States.

FLORENCE KELLEY,
Secretary National Consumers' League.

[Mrs. Kelley reviewed briefly legislation and methods of enforcement in the ten states, which it would be impossible to abstract further satisfactorily. She showed how they ran the scale from Delaware where "there is nothing concerning the situation as to the working child that is cheerful," to New York and Vermont, which, from a legislative standpoint, are now rivals in their

care of children, with no other state in the same class except Illinois. Mrs. Kelley indicated lines along which advances could be made.—Ed.]

In New York we have laws that require children to stay in school up to a certain age, or the principal must state over his signature that the child has finished the work of the five grades of the public school, reading, writing, geography, and arithmetic through fractions. A labor inspector has a right to have a child examined if he is in doubt as to its age. The officer of the board of education who makes the examination of the child may say to it, "But you are not up to the physical standard." That advantage New York has over all other states. It is a sorrowful thing that in all our republic only one state has got so far as that. In Massachusetts where they have so long led the procession of the states, it has always been lawful for a child to enter service on its fourteenth birthday, providing a child goes two hours in the evening to night school. Imagine a child going into a cotton

mill, breathing lint and working for ten hours a day, and then sitting two hours at a night school. Does it learn anything? All such a child gets is fatigue. It is not enough to have certificates of the ages of the children; we need to have every child stand up before a responsible head of an accredited school and a trustworthy physical examiner and prove that the child is physically fit to begin work. And he must have a certain amount of education. . . .

As soon as a law protecting children is put on the statute books, some people obey it because it is a law and it is, therefore, always worth while to put a reasonable law upon the statute books. And there is another lot of people obedient to the law aside from respect for the law. Many manufacturers have said to me, "Oh, yes, we abide by the law because if we didn't we should forfeit our insurance, for we would not have any standing in case of damages." These two influences then are the only ones which work uniformly throughout the ten states and the Middle States.

The Need of Protective Legislation for Working Children

The Child Labor Situation in Southern Industry.

A. J. MCKELWAY,
Assistant Secretary National Committee.

"The invention by a New England school teacher of the cotton gin may be said to have changed the face of the world, industrially and politically. To that invention we may trace directly the practical monopoly of cotton growing by the southern states, the abandonment of manufactures by the same section, the development of African slavery, the Civil War, and the child slavery of England and New England, more recently adopted in the South with the restoration of the manufacture of cotton. A hundred years ago the South was protesting against the New England slave trade, was manufacturing more goods and a greater variety of them than New England, was paying an annual tax of two shillings, sixpence, on each saw gin to Eli Whitney, while Old England proceeded to seize the first shipload of cotton from the South on the ground that the South could not produce that much cotton. And a hundred years ago a physician of Leeds, England, made his protest against the hospital authorities for not furnishing him with enough supports for the bent bones of the child slaves of the English mills. Last year the southern states produced thirteen million bales of cotton and since 1900 have built five hundred new cotton mills, North Carolina again having more though smaller mills than Massachusetts.

"The curse of child labor has always rested and still rests upon the textile industry, with its resultants in low wages, arrested development and the depreciation of

the human stock. England has only half abolished it by its half-time system, while the age limit is still too low in Maine, Rhode Island and Pennsylvania. There are three areas of cotton manufacturing in the United States, one in New England embracing a small part of New York state; another with Philadelphia as a centre; and the third the Piedmont region of the Carolinas, Georgia and Alabama. In the South the cotton mill industry is the only one in which there is an appreciable demand for the labor of children under fourteen.

"The evil is an appalling one and a growing one with the growth of the industry. There are fifteen thousand children under fourteen in North Carolina, working in the mills; not less than sixty thousand in the South on the same estimate, from the reports of the manufacturers themselves. North Carolina, South Carolina and Alabama have an age limit of twelve years but no machinery as yet for the enforcement of the law, so that there are numbers of ten and eleven-year-old children in the mills. Georgia has an agreement of the manufacturers not to employ children under twelve, which must soon be changed into law. An effort to amend the law in North Carolina was defeated before the legislature now sitting, on the representations of the manufacturers that the proposed amendments raising the age limit to fourteen for girls, and for illiterate boys, would ruin their business. One of them stated that seventy-five per cent of the spinners of the mills were between twelve and fourteen years of age. The illiteracy of the manufacturing states is largely due to the child labor system of the mill districts.

"But the religious and educational forces of the South, with the aid of the enlightened

press of the South, may be trusted to put an end to this hideous abuse. In all other points save this, the cotton mill industry of the South is a real beneficence, and is conducted under the best conditions. It only needs the facts shall be carefully investigated, and published, for the demand to become irresistible from the people themselves that the industry must not be built upon the basis of child labor, nor will it be long before the will of a kind-hearted people will be translated into humane laws that we may again 'present a serene front to civilization.'"

Factory Inspection.

EDGAR T. DAVIS,
Factory Inspector, Illinois.

I believe all factory inspectors are live men and can best prove it not by moral suasion, but by prosecution. For these past ten years we have been prosecuting from 500 to 1,000 defendants every year in Illinois—1,400 the past year. During the past two years we have reduced the number of child laborers 3,000 a year. The first step is to educate the employers by spending money in printers' ink. After giving them time to digest new measures, we go ahead to enforce them. Ten years ago one of my predecessors called the attention of the state of Illinois to the conditions in the glass factories there. A widow with six children had married a widower with five children, all small, and the eleven of them had been sent to work in the glass mills. It is from conditions which admit of things like these that we must calculate our advance. When the factory inspector takes the oath of office he takes an oath of office to enforce the law; not his ideas, but the law. He is not endowed with any special wisdom. He is there to enforce the wisdom of the legislature of his state.

Child Labor Legislation, a Requisite for Industrial Efficiency.

JANE ADDAMS,
Hull House, Chicago.

We are always saying that we are living in an industrial age. We boast that to industry we owe the achievements of the age; yet somehow or other we are ashamed of it and we try to find our culture, our religion and our education quite outside. Perhaps that is the reason why our culture, our education and our religion so often seem weak, compared to our industrial achievements. Because we are living in an industrial age we will have to find our salvation through that industry. If we seek culture in some age which is not our own, it is to borrow that culture. We must bring our religion to bear in this industrial age, must teach our children those things that will fit them for a life in the only age in which they will live.

We must have something that will answer the industrial situation and until our schools can offer that which the industries offer to interest the child, the race is going to suffer.

You cannot do good work and you cannot get good workmanship, unless men and women have some sort of interest in their work and some way of expressing their interest in what they produce. Progressive concerns, I believe, are beginning to appreciate this. But we cannot have this good workmanship, unless we have the child sheltered long enough to develop his body, long enough in the environment of culture to develop his mind, and trained enough to have some power of self-direction and individuality. There is beginning to grow up in the leading industrial centers a belief that the workman is an asset, that the skilled interest of men free-born and possessed of educated workmanship is going to be the thing which will hold out in the markets of the world.

Some of us believe that in industry itself must we begin to get something comparable to the new spirit in education. Our industry is going to go on being a matter outside of ourselves until we look it squarely in the face and see what we are going to do about it. The old economic writers had never heard apparently of the instinct of workmanship—only of starvation as a driving force. Are we going to get men of the new type of industrial efficiency, those with the new motives? We will not unless we give the child time to develop, and a chance to develop in the right way individually and in association with others, in group efficiency and *esprit de corps*.

It is our business to modify to the fullest extent the conditions as they exist today among many of the children of the nation. In a country like ours children in one station are quite as valuable as those in another, and we will have to see to it that we study these industrial conditions in the light of the effect upon our citizens; and we may discover in the long run that the effect upon the citizen is going to determine the effect upon industry.

The state has a right to say to the employer, "We have given you our precious children and as our right we demand that they shall not be injured by your industry, they shall not be sacrificed to any kind of labor."

It interests us not only because it is a humane undertaking, or because we may save the loss of genius, but because the state is frankly taking hold of the industrial situation, and in saying that we shall protect the children we are given the opportunity to look at the industrial situation from a new and national viewpoint. We must study what affects the industry of citizens quite as much as what affects imports and exports.

The Italian Immigrant on the Land

Emily Fogg Meade
Hammonton, N. J.



Public opinion is generally unfavorable to the newcomers from southern Italy, but some observers of this people in their own country believe that it is because of their present settlement in the cities that the valuable qualities of these immigrants remain unrecognized and the probability of their Americanization and assimilation appears difficult, if not hopeless. Substantial confirmation of the truth of this opinion can be found in the Italian settlements of South Jersey.

Thirty years ago Southern New Jersey, now one of the garden spots of the Eastern states, was largely undeveloped. In particular the land included within the limits of the pine belt remained for the most part in its original condition. The "Pine Belt" is a wide strip of territory extending through the south central part of the state. Much of this country is covered even to-day with a thick growth of scrub pines and underbrush. This is not only hard to clear away, but until recent years the inducement to undertake the work was lacking because the sandy soil did not respond to the methods of agriculture formerly in vogue. The region, however, possesses one marked advantage—a dry, bracing climate, due to its position midway between the Atlantic Ocean and Delaware Bay, which gives it the benefit of salt air modified by its passage over the pines. Lakewood is the most famous of the resorts in this region, but the climate, beneficial for lung and throat diseases, is the same throughout the pine belt.

One of the oldest Italian settlements is Hammonton, in the eastern part of

Atlantic county, from which the materials for this paper have mainly been derived. This town was founded and settled largely by people from New England and New York, who chose Hammonton as a place of residence not because of the possibilities of its soil which they did not recognize, but to lengthen their lives. It was soon discovered, however, that although this sandy soil would not produce heavy crops, it was, when heavily fertilized, well adapted for fruits and vegetables. Peaches, pears, plums, apples, and grapes all grow well in the sand. The small fruits, however, raspberries, strawberries and blackberries, are especially satisfactory crops. The rapid growth of a demand for these products in the large cities of the Atlantic seaboard drew attention to the cheap land of New Jersey and a rapid development of agriculture was the result.

As the berry industry grew, the local labor force became insufficient to pick the berries. Italian labor was therefore brought in from Philadelphia. This annual invasion of Italian pickers has been repeated for more than twenty years. As many as 1,500 pickers have come to Hammonton in a good season. They are poorly lodged in barns and sheds, supplementing their bedding with the farmer's hay, using an old stove which he provides, and eating the simple food to which they have always been accustomed; but with their race love for outdoor life, they look upon the picking season as a gala time. They enjoy the freedom, the hot hours of the day passed in groups under the trees, and the evenings spent in dancing to the music of the



FACING THE CHURCH—A CONTRAST TO THE CITY PUSH CART MARKET

accordion. They also make snug sums of money, since the entire family is employed at the work. A family of six has made \$500 in four months when berries of all kinds were plentiful.

Many of these pickers who come to Hammonton year after year, drawn thither by the opportunity of these large earnings, become interested in the country life and remain to earn a home for themselves. Coming from a country where land is so heavily taxed that peasant proprietorship is almost impossible, the cheap land of Southern New Jersey is particularly attractive to the Italian immigrants and the settlement of Hammonton has grown also from direct immigration from southern Italy and Sicily. More than one-half the inhabitants of a town in the mountains of Sicily, a few miles from Messina, are now residents of the locality. The immigration has been constantly stimulated and aided by relatives in Hammonton. The father and, perhaps, an older son come first; then, the mother and children, to be followed later by uncles, aunts and cousins.

This Italian immigration has been of great benefit to the community. It has furnished a cheap labor force and it has brought in a large number of industrious

peasant proprietors. The land has to be cleared, grubbed out with mattock and hoe and frequently drained—hard, patient labor, felling trees, digging ditches, tearing out roots, work extremely distasteful to the native Americans of this region. The Italian, however, knows how to do the work thoroughly and he is willing to do it for low wages. As a result, thousands of acres have been prepared for cultivation which, without his unremitting labor, would have been abandoned permanently to pine swamps and barrens.

The newcomer usually obtains work as a laborer on a farm, on the railroad, or in a neighboring brickyard. His living costs him little and he saves, as only frugal people robbed by tax collectors and landlords, know how to save. If his family is with him, they often live in one room in the house of some other Italian. When the immigrant has accumulated sufficient money he buys four to ten acres of uncleared land at twenty to thirty-five dollars an acre, according to its situation. Such hours as can be spared from his regular employment are spent in developing his new purchase.

When the land is brought under cultivation, the aid of one of the local build-

ing and loan associations is asked. The association takes the deed of the land and advances an amount large enough to build a small frame house. Settled in his home; the Italian may now continue his outside work, leaving the management of his farm to his wife and children; or his farm may be large enough to keep him occupied during the summer, while he still works at odd jobs during the winter. For the Italian, like the German truck farmer, has a useful working force in his large family of children.

In a number of cases, Italians have accumulated enough to buy out American farmers. From 1880 to 1895 many of the first American settlers sold to Italians, while the settlement of estates threw many farms into their hands. Some farms are purchased on contract, the Italian incumbent engaging to pay a certain amount each year.

The Italian immigrant of South Jersey lives well, according to his own ideas. His demands are few. He burns wood—often mere brushwood—instead of coal. His household goods include little besides beds, tables, a stove and a few chairs. Clothing is of the simplest character, the older women, for instance, clinging to the calico dresses, aprons, and native handkerchiefs for head and shoulders. For food, bread and salad are often sufficient, supplemented by garden produce, and meat when the family prospers. Chickens are

generally kept and a large number of Italians own horses and wagons. A family of eight frequently makes a good living off five acres. Their frugality is shown by the gathering of brushwood for fuel and the collecting of fallen leaves from the streets to serve as bedding for stock. Most of the holdings are small and a striking feature is the patient thoroughness with which the farm resources are developed. Every foot of space is utilized. Small vegetables are planted among the large. The front yard is filled with wood-piles, grape vines, or vegetables.

The cash crop of the South Jersey Italians is berries; strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, and grapes following in order. In a good year a substantial sum of money can be made off an acre of berries. In 1902 an Italian cleared \$160 on one quarter of an acre of strawberries; in 1903, \$250 was made on an acre by another Italian. The time has been, it is claimed, when \$1,000 was made on an acre of blackberries. Grapes are an Italian specialty. Every farm, no matter how small, has its vineyard, and it is said that an Italian can make grapes grow where anyone else would have no success. The grapes are used in making a sour wine for their food supply. Much of the wine is sent to Philadelphia and New York, where it sells for fifty cents a quart.

The living which the Italian makes off



GROUP OF BERRY PICKERS AND THEIR EMPLOYER

his small farm is better than that he can make in the city. Studies of the dietaries of Italians in Chicago and other large cities show that they buy the spoiled and withered vegetables. In Hammonton their vegetables and fruits are fresh. They have their own chickens, eggs and pork, and their own unadulterated wine, as well as good bread made of the best of flour in their outside brick ovens. They are not crowded into unsanitary tenements, but soon establish themselves in two and four-room dwellings. They live a healthful, outdoor life, often eating and cooking outdoors in the summer time. The Italian children born in Hammonton are large and strong. As the result of making a home, the Italians have become more generous in expenditures that make for comfort. The work they give the children is healthful in character, not sweatshop labor, and the compulsory education law provides for their schooling. Their business relations require some knowledge of writing, arithmetic, and English and in consequence they value the information which is obtained by the children. Contact with Americans in the schools, and as neighbors, has a perceptible effect in the second generation, when their ways of living begin to conform more closely to those of the community. The progress of the second generation is such as to promise a speedy assimilation into our American life. The young people who have remained in Hammonton have identified themselves with the interests of the community. Those who have gone to the city have found themselves better

equipped to cope with city conditions. The assessment list shows to what extent Italians are property owners. In the town of Hammonton, 237 Italians are assessed on 3,708.45 acres valued at \$130,415—15 per cent of the total valuation of the town. The holdings represent variously: nine acres valued at \$1,600; 14.1 at \$4,000; 84 at \$1,100, etc.; 232 Italians are assessed on \$9,000 for personal property out of \$89,525 for the whole town, an assessment which is, to be sure, probably out of proportion to the amount of property owned.

The savings of the Italians are partly shown by their bank and building and loan association accounts. Out of the \$260,779 of deposits at the People's Bank of Hammonton, \$56,614 (or 21.7 per cent) is owed to the Italians. In the savings department out of \$88,768, \$26,231 or 29.5 per cent belongs to Italians. In the Workingmen's Building and Loan Association there are 553 stockholders with holdings averaging $5\frac{1}{2}$ shares; 129 shareholders, representing 23 per cent, are Italians. In the Hammonton Loan and Building Association 79 out of 460 stockholders, or 17 per cent, are Italians.

Of some interest is the amount of money sent to Italy. For the year ending December 31, 1903, there were 408 money orders sent, amounting to \$8,774.-39. While this amount undoubtedly includes the money of some of the pickers, it is offset by money sent from Philadelphia or in registered letters by Hammonton Italians. During the year 519 registered letters were sent.



COTTAGES IN NEW JERSEY'S "ITALY"

A Plan for Girls with Nothing to Do

Elsie Clews Parsons

One of the distinctive traits of civilized man is his habit of systematic activity. Many persons living in civilization never to be sure acquire this habit. They are for the most part those social outcasts who fill our prisons and form a large part of our dependent classes, classes dependent upon those who have acquired the habit of working steadily for definite and more or less remote ends. Naturally enough, implicit in our whole system of education is our appreciation of the social value of this habit of work. Nevertheless, strange to say, there is a large class of persons exclusive of paupers and criminals who, during a certain period of their lives at least, seem to be purposively shut out from opportunities for systematic activity of almost every kind. I refer to the large and I think growing class of young women who do not marry for a period of from five to ten years after they leave school or college. I refer also of course only to those members of the class who are not engaged in wage-earning occupations or in systematic, although, as a survival of an earlier family system, unpaid domestic labor. These girls up to the age of sixteen, eighteen, or twenty-two, are laboriously educated in school, and a certain proportion of them in college, to habits of work, and then school or college days past they are cut adrift with the habit of doing but with "nothing to do." In many cases, particularly in the case of the boarding-school or country college girl, the girl's family urge and with much reasonableness, that she has been away so much that it is time for her to stay at home and cultivate closer social relations with her family and acquaintances. Whether she has been away from home or not it is held that "coming out" will take all her time and energy. Moreover besides paying calls, etc., with her mother she may help the latter "around the house," shopping, etc. For a year or two the girl may adopt, although more or less questioningly, this plan of life. "Helping

Parental Fictions.

is held that "coming out" will take all her time and energy. Moreover besides

around the house" she finds means being interrupted in whatever she may be doing at any hour of the day to do what she feels could have been done better at another time and probably by another person, so that she "helps" more and more grudgingly. Paying calls she frankly says she "detests." At the end of a year or two even the "parties" she enjoyed when she "came out" begin to pall. At this point she probably takes a club at a social settlement, becomes a "friendly visitor," or joins one of the innumerable inconsequential "classes" designed for the unoccupied. This her family do not oppose. They have of course noticed her growing restlessness and discontent—it has been far from being a companionable disposition—and they feel that "something outside of herself" will do her good. But if that "something" begins to interest the girl really for itself and not for its effect upon herself, if she begins to give to it more than a sporadic hour or two a week, the family are at once up in arms. The character of the resulting friction varies naturally according to the degrees of affection and respect that exist between the girl and her parents, but as soon as she begins to realize however vaguely that the root of her discontent is an unsatisfied need for systematic activity, and as long as her family oppose the satisfaction of this need, friction there will be. In many cases the belated professional woman or the volunteer resident of the social settlement is the result. A less happy outcome is the embittered home-staying "old maid," the last representative of the old-fashioned by-word, or, still more unhappy, the uncertain and joyless bride, marrying because she has nothing better to do. More of her anon.

Unfortunately, the parents of the Wilful Girl or Pathetic Case (according to the point of view of the sympathizer) were misled at the outstart of their daughter's demoralization, in some cases, (1) by an unrecognized archaism, *i. e.*, the practical failure of an old idea to

connect with a new condition, and in all cases (2) by a lack of psychological insight.

*A Left Over
Shibboleth.*

1. While some of us have stored away in the attic of worn-out phrases the sentences "woman's place is in the home," "woman's work is household work," shibboleths which still more of us are making over for present-day use, nevertheless there are a great many of our contemporaries who still attempt to retain the inherited terms as part of their usable mental furniture, failing to realize that unmodified they can have for us merely an historical meaning. How important this meaning is we learn at first hand through comparative ethnology, although even in an ethnological or historical sense the phrases are incomplete descriptions of fact unless the field as well as the house is included in the notion of home. Why is the recasting of the ideas which the words express a current necessity? Plainly because—not to touch at all upon the democratic argument of sex—disregarding equality of opportunity—because there is nothing, or very little, in our modern homes which corresponds to the household activities of savage or barbarian groups, or even to those of our own immediate forebears. We need only turn to a record like Mrs. Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days* to learn how extensive was the domestic economy of our great-grandmothers and even grandmothers. To-day, on the other hand, home handicrafts are as antique as the stage-coach or flint-gun. An up-to-date apartment-house home is run on very different principles from a colonial homestead. In the latter the women of the family, wife and daughters, had much to do; to do it properly they had to be systematically employed in both supervisory and manual capacities. The apartment-house with its system of semi-communal domestic labor and the department store with its cheap ready-made goods have greatly diminished the economic activities of the individual household. Household manual labor of course continues—to our growing dissatisfaction—to a more or less extent, but the lot of the daughter to whom this falls we have already barred out of

our discussion. The point is that outside of this labor and the limited amount of supervision necessary to make it efficient (in the well-run household this supervision can and must be carried on through the systematic activity of only one person) there is honestly speaking nothing for the daughter of a family to do "around the house." Even if the work of supervision be given over to her, it is not if well-done a time-exhausting task. In this connection another novel condition is wont to be overlooked by those who insist upon unproductivity on the part of their daughters. In by-gone days from apprenticeship in household arts a girl passed as a rule directly into the management of her own household. The unmarried woman over twenty-two or three was rare. The hiatus between the school and marriage is a comparatively recent fact, too recent apparently for the unthinking parent to fit for himself or herself into his or her inherited parental scheme.

Why "Society" Palls.

2. There is, however, a certain number of families who have discarded one of the archaic adages in question, for in their homes even the supervision of the household is delegated to a paid housekeeper; but by them as well as by the families of smaller income to whom we have been referring is held the idea that the cultivation of social relations may be best accomplished by their daughter if made the prime and direct goal of her interest and activity. Now this idea is again and again shown to be fallacious. "Social success," even understood in the very limited sense of the "society woman" and her many imitators, is more dependent upon sympathy than upon any other qualification. The egoism which almost inevitably results from the suppression of outlets for activity of an objective character is incompatible with a genuinely sympathetic and responsive state of mind. This is the reason that "society" begins to pall, and that at the end of a few years of her pseudo-social life a girl becomes a carping and ungracious critic of her social environment. There is one particularly unfortunate aspect of this shrinkage in the girl's social life, an aspect which we have already referred to.

It has a deplorable effect upon her idea of marriage. Instead of hastening her marriage by giving her opportunities to know and be known—this was her parents' very natural intent—her years of idleness leave her sceptical of matrimonial happiness, and whatever maternal instinct she may naturally have been possessed of is eliminated by the ways of self-seeking she has acquired. As a result, when she does marry, if she marries at all, it is not because marriage means to her added opportunities for the perfecting of an already full and useful social life, it is because in many cases she has, as I have said before, nothing better to do. Such an opportunist state of mind is naturally a predisposition towards the only too common childless or one-child marriage.

We have been considering the prejudices of the conventionally minded parents who are unable or unwilling to bring to the solution of new problems anything but archaic and traditional answers, who may be even unable to realize that they are facing a new problem at all. How is it with parents who clearly realize the conditions of the problem and whose only wish¹ is to solve it for the good of their daughters? How are they to plan for her? Let us restate the situation as it must present itself to such open-minded parents. Their daughter graduated from school or college will not in all probability marry for a period of from five to eight years; and with this prospect they are content. They know that in view of the complexity of her environment she may not be sufficiently mature before she is twenty-four or twenty-six to choose a husband wisely, or when married to be thoroughly fit for wifehood or motherhood. On the other hand, they wish her in due season to be both fit and willing to marry. Naturally until then they wish her to live at home. They wish her of course to see much of all kinds of people; that is essential to her social education. If their

¹ Veblen's contention as set forth in his highly entertaining book, *The Theory of the Leisure Class*, that the wives and daughters of this class are unpaid upper servants engaged in vicariously and wastefully consuming the master's goods for the sake of his prestige is no doubt to a certain extent applicable even to the conspicuously disinterested parent; but I have omitted this factor from consideration as tending to lead us too far afield.

own society is varied the girl's social intercourse is already wide, she merely begins to occupy a more independent and responsible position in their more or less common social environment. Long before this the idea of social helpfulness has combined with that of social amusement in her life, and in many little ways she has co-operated with her parents in their philanthropic or civic activities. Management of a settlement club or membership on the committee of a charitable society is only the continuation of interests and points of view started long ago as part of her normal life. But the question of systematic activity is still untouched. This girl's life is, to be sure, more truly *social* than that of girl number one; but the intellectual and moral fibre which comes mainly from the habit of a systematic production of social values is still lacking. What is to be done? I believe that, as a rule, the intelligent minority are as much at a loss for an answer as the unintelligent majority parents.

In this strait, the following plan suggests itself as one furnishing systematic activity useful both to the young women in question and, as I hope to show, to a large class of other persons.

Systematic Social Service. In the groups of institutions concerned with the care of infants and young children, in babies' and children's hospitals and day nurseries and in institutions giving training in kindergarten and primary school teaching, let normal courses be established which will aim at making available as soon as possible the volunteer service of their students. Training in theory should be supplemented from the start when possible by practical assistant work. For this object arrangements should be made between the normal institutions and institutions needing pupil-assistants. These normal courses are to be differentiated from those now given for the reason that they are not to train professionals—women who look forward to a lifetime of nursing or teaching and to filling supervisory positions it may be in their professions; they are to train and make available for immediate service women who are in most cases going to give a short period of their lives only to

the systematic pursuit of the work, and who are not ambitious for pecuniary reasons for promotion. The work which this training would involve and lead to should cover a daily period of from four to six hours. It should be graded work from year to year or even from half year to half year, added responsibility following upon increase of experience and skill. In most cases the pupil-assistant could and would live at home with abundant leisure for social intercourse. This service might continue until the girl married, normally for a period of from five to eight years.

A comparatively small number of persons would probably continue in the work for a longer period in paid supervisory and managerial positions requiring prolonged experience and expert ability.

The outline of this plan is necessarily general. The details would depend upon local conditions and upon the lessons of actual experiment. In New York city, for example, there are two institutions which might, to begin with, readily furnish the normal training in view. Teachers' College might easily offer a well adapted *extension* kindergarten course and the Babies' Hospital, which already has a well-developed course for the training of nursery-maids, might plan a course fitting non-wage-earners to become useful assistants in some of the New York day-nurseries. The kindergarten pupil-teachers might also find opportunities for usefulness in the day-nurseries.

The work of the pupil-teachers however would have to be very carefully planned. The half-trained kindergartner or teacher is a sorry worker. Incidentally let me remark however that, after much observation of New York public school kindergartners and primary grade teachers, I believe that with a brief course at an institution like the Teachers' College, the pupil-teacher of our plan, coming from an environment of a certain degree of cultivation, and possessed of a spirit of interest in and devotion to her work, would be fully as adequate a teacher of young children as the average Normal College graduate.¹

¹ I leave until later the defence of this plan from a pedagogic point of view.

*Post-graduate
Training in
Child-care.*

In addition to the value of this plan as calling forth systematic and productive activity it seems to have several minor advantages for the workers. It is obvious that such service would fit them directly as well as indirectly for motherhood. It is coming to be generally realized that a preliminary training in the rearing of children is an indispensable part of general education. Pressure has even been brought to bear upon the woman's college to furnish it, although the college has been hitherto at least ill-adapted for this function. Parenthetically, would not those lingering opponents of collegiate education for women, who base their captious on the unsexing influence of a college, withdraw their opposition if nursery and kindergarten furnished a post-graduate course, so to speak, for college women? It would at any rate be difficult and graceless for the opponent of the woman's college to object to the *higher education* of the non-college girl through systematic training and service in the care and education of children.

Let us consider now the value of the plan to persons other than the workers and those directly connected with them.

*The Outlook
of Urban
Populations.*

It is only the closet theorist who will maintain that, in the high birth and death rates of the average tenement-house population, the law of the survival of the fittest is working itself out to the ultimate welfare of the community as a whole. The practical observer knows that the wretched environment both within and without the home, from which tenement-house children suffer, and although generally to a less extent, many children in other economic classes of the city as well, does not merely weed out the less fit. It also wrecks the surviving fitter.¹ (Observe, too, that in poor environments like that of the city tenement-house the *fittest*, the most adaptable, are not always the *best*.) The survivors are in almost

¹ See a striking discussion by Jevons on the effects of a high child mortality rate in his chapter on *Married Women in Factories* in *Methods of Social Reform*. See too the instructive and suggestive English Report of the Inter-department Committee on *Physical Deterioration* (London, 1904). The committee's recommendation for the establishment of public school continuation classes for girls in home-making and child-care is especially noteworthy.

all ways inferior to a population adapted to a more wholesome environment. When we consider that the tenement-house population is increasing at a much greater relative rate than other economic classes of the city, and when we consider that two of the chief causes of this disproportionate increase are becoming more rather than less influential—*i. e.*, an enormous city immigration of both aliens and native born which disproportionately recruits the tenement-house class, and an extremely low birth rate among the city's non-tenement-house classes—when we consider these facts, the future outlook for our municipal populations seems ominous. And yet how far short we are of even attempting to change it. Our most hopeful work consists undoubtedly in the encouragement of suburban emigration through the growth of transit facilities and in the banishment of factories outside of city limits, efforts to make the city more and more a place of exchange and less and less one of production and consumption. For the inevitable tenement-house population, model tenements, parks, big and small, wide streets, clean streets, a pure and ample water supply, food inspection, etc., are all praiseworthy reforms. Churches, schools, hospitals, social settlements, relief agencies, etc., are all more or less praiseworthy agents of reform. Yet how pitifully indirect and inadequate these measures and agents are in affecting the environment and thereby the character, mental, moral and physical, of the tenement-house population.

*Neglected
Infancy and
Early Childhood.*

The economic factors which work the defeat of the reformer or philanthropist have long been patent, but many of the cultural factors are still overlooked. On some of the most important questions of conduct, for example, and, in particular, to confine ourselves to matters relevant to our general subject, on questions of family functions there is neither preachment nor teacher. What educational agency except the

Catholic church has anything to say about the morals of child-bearing, a matter which vitally concerns all economic classes, but which in a tenement-house population may, if wrongly viewed, more or less defeat all plans for economic and cultural good? Again, what agent or what reform affects infancy and the first years of childhood in the home? Milk inspection by the state? But milk can become contaminated after it leaves the dealer, pure milk given to the infant whenever it "cries for it" will ruin its digestion just as effectually as sour milk and, more than all, improperly, or for that matter, even properly prepared cow's milk however pure can never be an equivalent for mother's milk. Does the average tenement-house mother ever receive any fit instruction in regard to nursing or feeding her infant? Our *laissez faire* policy in regard to home life is more than anything else responsible in my opinion for our social failures and shortcomings. As soon as education ceases to be popularly identified with book-learning, as soon as the comparatively recent insight that the first six years of childhood is a much more important period for education than the years following becomes generally recognized, we may expect to hear less of the privacy of the home and more of the duty of the public towards infancy and early childhood. In time our state system of education will be forced, in order to be true to its aim of citizen-making, to broaden out far beyond its present limits.

*An Educational
Militia.*

From such beginnings as are suggested in our plan for volunteer workers, might we not hope to see at some *distant* date, day nurseries, kindergartens, and roof play-grounds crowning the tops of our tenements, the nurses and kindergartners forming a partly paid and partly volunteer staff, an *educational militia*, so to speak, connected with the public school of each neighborhood?¹

¹ Questions, suggestions and criticisms in regard to the proposed plan will be welcome. Address Mrs. Herbert Parsons, 112 East 35th Street.

Fall River Mill Girls in Domestic Service

A STRIKE TIME EXPERIMENT

Gertrude Barnum

Secretary Women's Trade Union League

During the recent strike at Fall River, 130 mill girls were brought to Boston by the Women's Trade Union League and placed in positions in domestic service. The league was led to make this experiment from many motives; but this short sketch must deal merely with the working out of the plan and with the results from the point of view of the "maid."

Distressed mistresses, searching for servants ask constantly, "Why do not factory girls change their hard lot by taking up housework?"

Our committee, on proposing this question to the unemployed women of Fall River, discovered many difficulties at the start.

The first objection of the mill operatives was their dislike to leaving home. The love of home is considered by most club women one of the bulwarks of society, and mill workers like other women have this love of home strong in their hearts. "But," say the club women, "we offer them good homes." "No," reply the factory workers, "a good home is just what you cannot offer us. Home is the place where the loved ones live—a place of freedom, with the companionship of our equals, on equal terms—a place where we sit at table with our families, and gather with them around the piano or the lamp. In our homes we open or close our doors according to our own tastes, to all we would welcome or shut out. Home is not the kitchen and back bedroom in a house belonging to another."

The next difficulty was the prejudice, arising from the social stigma which attaches to "going out to service," a stigma which is not imagined but actual. Even the average mistress bears herself with less superiority toward the clerk or the weaver than toward a servant in her home.

The lack of funds for transportation to a "place" proved another obstacle. Inexperience in housework and a dread of ills they knew not of, deterred many girls from abandoning the trade in which they

had already acquired skill. Lack of a place to stay in a city, while waiting for a possible position, and the dread of being lost, robbed, or insulted—these were other of the objections.

The committee met these protests one by one. The new field of domestic service was not represented as a field of flowers without thorns. The experiment was encouraged on the ground that housework, with all the valid objections to it, might prove better than mill-work under existing conditions.

Care was taken that all girls should have recommendations for honesty, cleanliness, and willingness to learn. There was soon a list of three hundred applicants which promised to grow faster than the list of possible places for servants.

Funds for transportation, food, lodging, were raised by the league, girls were sent to Boston ten at a time, twice or three times a week. They were met at the station by the representatives of girls' befriending societies, and were conducted to the Boston Employment Agency. The able manager, Miss Bachelder, is a member of the Women's Trade Union League, and took special interest in the Fall River girls. She welcomed them with genuine sympathy, and refused to charge them a fee for positions furnished. The league committee increased the demand for servants, through the press, women's clubs, etc., and members of the committee helped Miss Bachelder in making connections between mistresses and maids.

Many of the girls secured places at once upon arriving. The others were taken to luncheon at the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, and, when necessary, they were kept over night at Hotel Benedict, with breakfasts and dinners at the Young Women's Christian Association. Hotel Benedict, a most attractive and comfortable home, is run by the Salvation Army. The regular rates were cut for the girls, and the hospitality and help received was beyond price to the bewildered, homesick, long-suffering vic-

tims of the Northern textile situation. Even to-day the hotel is the center where the girls gather with the most freedom on the Thursday or Sunday afternoon off.

Of the 130 girls brought to Boston not more than twenty-five have gone back to work in the Fall River mills. Many of them returned to Fall River from homesickness or from trying experiences of various kinds, but, with the exception of about twenty-five, they have later taken other positions in housework or in more congenial factory work. A very large group is working in paper mills in Rumford Falls, Me. These girls say that they discovered from the Boston experience that they are not obliged to stay in the cotton mills under present conditions. They have learned to move about. Seventy or more are still in domestic service, though not more than twenty are happy in it. These seventy have gained flesh and have lost the nervous and anaemic appearance

which was common to them while working in the mill. However, they protest that it is not mere physical existence they desire, but life. The servility of their positions, the isolation, and the long hours "on duty" are the main "grievances." Employers, except in a dozen out of the 130 cases, have been desirous of keeping the girls, and in most of the dozen cases where girls were dismissed, it was with a friendly recommendation for other kinds of housework.

Those who have read Miss Kellor's book *Out of Work*, and her recent articles in the *Atlantic Monthly* and other journals will find many of the good reasons which under present circumstances account for the general preference of intelligent working girls for other work than domestic service. The experiment of the Massachusetts Women's Trade Union League merely adds the testimony of 130 more women who have tried it.

To Country and Cottage¹

THE EFFECT ON INSTITUTION CHILDREN OF A CHANGE FROM CONGREGATE HOUSING IN THE CITY TO COTTAGE HOUSING IN THE COUNTRY

R. R. Reeder

Superintendent New York Orphan Asylum, Hastings-on-Hudson

IV

One of the old school readers of a half century ago contained the following practical formula for child life:

With books or work or healthful play
Let your first years be passed:
That you may give for every day
Some good account at last.

In our modern improved methods of sifting out economic values from what was formerly waste material, we have not to any great extent redeemed the time of early childhood. In fact, we hardly think of the period of child-life as being so well planned as "to give for every day some good account;" or any account at all.

The problem of the parent and the teacher is to bring about such a proper adjustment of the three factors of the above formula—play, work, and school—as will leave no room for waste time.

¹ This is the fourth of a series of articles by Mr. Reeder based upon the experiences associated with the moving of the New York Orphan Asylum from a "barracks" type of institutions in Manhattan to the present site overlooking the Hudson.

Usually we think of waste time as more closely related to play than to work, and yet it is possible to waste time in work quite as easily as in play. Too much work, or work not adapted to the child, will waste his time as seriously as too much play, or play that is empty and without creative interest.

It is as natural, necessary and beautiful for children to play as for kittens to frolic or minnows to swim. But even in these days of "child study" and kindergartens the importance of developing this instinct of children has not yet been generally recognized by parents and teachers. Less than a generation ago it was a school offence for a child to amuse himself by drawing pictures, and even now the teachers (except kindergartners and athletes) and parents who take more than a mere passive interest in the plays of children, are not numerous.

Granted that play is as necessary as in-

dustrial occupation, or school, in early life, and it follows that it is just as important for the child to succeed in his play enterprises as in his more serious undertakings. Successful play will set up aims and through patience and struggle realize them. It will issue in a feeling of triumph. Four of our boys have to-day built a snow fort with tunnel retreats, towering flag-staff, etc. They have worked hard at it and triumphantly accomplished what they set out to do. Other groups of boys are making similar warlike preparations, stimulated by the blizzard snowfall and the great war in the East. That the very atmosphere on top of the Orphanage hill will be charged with militant zeal no one doubts who knows boy nature.

The child that is constantly disappointed in his play enterprises, making a failure of his cherished play dreams day after day, receiving no sympathy from those responsible for his welfare and no help in overcoming obstacles too great for him, soon loses confidence in himself, falls into the habit of making a failure of what he undertakes, and thus prepares the way for abortive efforts in the more serious ventures of later life. On the other hand the boy that succeeds in building snow forts, in making his own sled, in coasting the long hill, in hitting the mark with a snowball, in washing the other fellow's girl's face, in skating, in swimming, in climbing trees, in football, in baseball, in playing marbles; and the girl that dresses her own dolls, builds her own playhouse, coasts behind the boy with a "flexible flyer," provokes to a snowfight the boy she would most like to have wash her face, trains her pet cat, makes mud-pies and doughnuts—such boys and girls in all these experiences are prophesying their success in the serious endeavors of later life. The culture power of the adult is measured by the play experience of the child. This is one aspect of the truth of the old saw—"The boy is father of the man."

*Packing Up
Energy by Play.* There is another aspect to play almost as important as the one above discussed: namely, its influence upon the mental and physical vigor of adult life. Among the Christmas presents this year for the boys and girls of our orphanage were about

fifty pairs of skates and as many coasting sleds. As I write, fifty or more boys and girls are gliding over the ice pond in all sorts of lines and angles and curves. In learning to balance themselves on skates and to do all of the fancy touches and flourishes including innumerable falls and sprawls in which growing boys and girls delight, these children are laying up a surplus of physical energy that will serve them well in sound health, bodily vigor, and active limbs when life has become more serious and physically less strenuous. What is better for growing boys and girls than skating in the winter and swimming in the summer? One is the poetry of motion, the other a classic among childhood amusements. Our swimming recreation for the season of 1904 closed with a contest in which fourteen boys and sixteen girls participated. The course was up and down the river beach. As many girls as boys swam the whole course, but the boys showed greater strength in swimming against the current and made the distance in less time than the girls. As many more of both girls and boys could swim but were not confident enough of their strength to enter the contest.

In these days of so much sedentary employment and so much ease and luxury, reserve power carried forward from youth is especially important if we would prevent physical degeneracy. Boys and girls who indulge freely in all of the healthful outdoor sports of childhood will on account of it be more active, more dynamic, both mentally and physically all their days, and they will have the infinite pleasure of looking back upon a happy childhood. Children thus exercised and kept in good physical tone by wholesome food will be better able to resist disease, nervous prostration, and all the other forms of collapse that follow in the wake of physical weakness. Our orphanage hospital has been open but five weeks since we moved from the city two years ago last June. Two hundred children have passed through two winters and almost through the third without any contagious sickness requiring hospital treatment. This would have been impossible in our city home and on the congregate plan where scarlet fever, measles and whooping cough were fre-

quent visitors. In wet, mushy weather there are probably fifty pairs of wet feet everyday among the two hundred children. To have it otherwise by curbing or confining the outdoor freedom of the children would no doubt incur a greater risk than the danger from wet feet. Where is the normal child that does not love to play in the water? If he can't get into it at the proper temperature and with shoes off, he will take it cold with shoes on! Our immunity from disease is no doubt due to segregation into cottages, to an abundance of pure air, plenty of plain food and outdoor exercise—in spite of the wet feet.

*Range and
Change in
Children's Work.*

In the exuberant nature of the child and the importance of giving it ample expression lies the chief objection to factory employment. It is not the fact that the children must work and earn a living, but rather that the work is of such a nature as to deprive them of the opportunity during these growing years of storing up for future use a well-rounded physical development and an easy muscular control. If factory work were not so narrow in its demands upon the physical organism, if it were more like farming, stock raising, horticulture, etc., varying from day to day, and employing the whole child, it would not be so injurious.

Children naturally delight in feats of strength and skill. More than half of the amusements of boys rises from contests and struggles of one kind or another. To prevent this natural outflow of growing energy by confining the child to factory routine eight or nine hours a day cannot but result in arrested development. The emptiness and monotony of it shrivels the mind as well as the body. A child may be just as constantly employed in school work and home industries, taxing his mental and physical resources more every day, and yet not suffer from it as in factory employment. The range and change in home industries from week to week will keep his life interests fresh and give the all-around development that is wholesome for the growing child.

Range in work is as important as range in play. The girls of our orphanage learn to mend and darn; to make their own clothes, to clean and take care of a house;

to cook, to serve in pantry, and dining-room; to do laundry work, and chambermaid service; to cultivate flowers, raise garden vegetables, and to take care of younger children. Our boys receive three years' instruction in the use of simple carpenter's tools, learning to make all kinds of useful articles about the home. They learn to chop wood, to use a hoe, shovel and various other garden implements. They learn practical gardening, and the care of hot beds; to take care of horses, to raise poultry. The smaller boys learn to clean and dust the rooms of their cottage, to polish the floors, to do dining-room, pantry and laundry work, to darn their own stockings, to sew on buttons; a few of them learn to cook.

In *Up from Slavery* Booker T. Washington tells of his examination for admission to Hampton. It was the task of cleaning a room. He rose to the occasion. He swept it three times and dusted it four times. The examiner of his work was a "Yankee" woman, who took out her handkerchief and rubbed it on the walls and over the table and benches. Unable to find one bit of dirt on the floor or a particle of dust on the furniture, she quietly remarked, "I guess you will do to enter this institution." What per cent of our boys and girls who enter the high school could pass an examination like that, or in fact do any piece of hand work as thoroughly? And yet does formal education into which American children are thrust almost as soon as they are out of the cradle give any better foundation for character and responsible citizenship than the training that would enable a child to pass such an examination? For boys and girls who must at an early age become self-supporting such training is certainly indispensable. Thorough hand training is a good accompaniment of thorough mental training. But there is this difference in doing the work: the mistakes of hand work are easily detected; there is a precision and concreteness about the product of hand work that leaves little or no doubt as to its quality. It is done right or it isn't done right, and there is no question about it. Mental work is not so sharply defined; the mental status of the pupil is not so easily determined. "Bluff" is a common term heard in the

classroom among students. It is not so easy to "run a bluff" in the practical forms of hand training. It requires but a moment for the immaculate handkerchief in the hands of a "Yankee" school ma'am to sweep an obscure corner, and then for her to say, "You'll do" or "You won't do."

In the training of children hand work and formal school work should go together and rest upon the same basis. That is, they should both have a place in the training of the child for educative, not economic reasons. We have no more right to ask concerning the hand work required of the child, "Is it economic?" than we have to ask the same question of his regular school work. We certainly do not think of asking such a question in the latter case. Hence the whole range of domestic duties, tasks, and responsibilities above enumerated must be viewed by those in charge from an educational not an economic standpoint. The question is not how much does it cost, or how much expense is saved, but rather is it educative and in what way must it be done to best serve the child.

Herein lies the chief distinction between children's work rightly regarded and "child labor." There is nothing wrong with the principle of requiring children to work. In fact it is wrong not to have them work, and no doubt ten children are injured because of no work to every one that is injured by overwork. Think of the waste, not to mention the mischief and crime that results from the idleness of hundreds of thousands of children in our large cities who have no hand work of any kind to do, and no responsibilities to meet outside of four or five hours daily of school attendance five days a week. But standing for several hours a day in a factory building, watching the monotonous repetition of automatic processes, or sitting on a stool making simple adjustments while the machines do the work, employing the hands in simple movements for separating, testing, packing, etc., of manufactured articles—all this is not children's work, but child labor, and should have no place in the training of the child. It may contribute a few dollars to the family or in-

stitution exchequer, but it is certainly a soul shriveling process to the child and almost barren of any results that might be called educational. Such work is child labor and should be prohibited by law.

The farmer boy, in his wide range of daily tasks from milking the cows and feeding the pigs in the morning, digging the potatoes for dinner, weeding the garden in the afternoon, and finally, littering the stalls at night, may expend ten times as much energy as the factory boy, and go to bed tired at night, but it is wholesome work and out of it all he will get a good deal of fun and no end of physical tone and appetite.

A wide range of experience with the fundamental industries in early life is more important now than formerly on account of the highly specialized forms of economic industry into which the young man or young woman must enter when independent self-support begins. The unresourcefulness of multitudes of men in middle life who have spent many years in some highly specialized form of labor, and then lost their positions through strikes, lockouts, or some other disturbance, is apparent to any one who has observed or interviewed the unemployed. The man who has never learned to do but one or two things is all at sea when he loses his job, and liable to recruit the tramp army of the country.

Range of experience in early years will also enable the youth of eighteen or twenty to determine with more certainty what vocation in life to pursue. For it will have revealed to him some aptitudes that will make the task of deciding what course to follow less difficult.

In conclusion, then, an all 'round industrial training, touching the foundations of several fundamental industries is a fit complement to an all 'round play experience—and together they form the safest background for responsible citizenship and a prosperous career that a young man or woman can have. Add to these two factors a thorough grounding in the branches of the elementary school curriculum, which will be discussed at another time, and the terms of the old formula have been met:

With books or work or healthful play
Let your first years be passed.

*The Whole Boy
Not Employed in
"Child Labor."*

A Night With the Bread Lines¹

Albert W. Van Ness

Dressed as a tramp I reached the *New York American* bread and coffee wagon in Madison Square, at 9.00 P. M. I found 126 men in line and, as on a former occasion here; as in "Chaplain" Rotzler's "free bed-ticket line" at the Worth monument, as well as at the Fleischmann line on Sunday night, I discovered that the majority (three-fourths at least) were young men, clean-shaven, robust and healthy. Only three cripples, two minus one arm, and one apparently having a tubercular hip disease, could be picked out in the line.

When I attached myself to the line it brought the count up to 127. The two men ahead of me, one an Irishman with a strong burr to his speech, and the other apparently a native, were in animated conversation. Minus the oaths and uncalled-for blasphemy, their conversation proved fertile for the purposes of my investigation. From it they proved themselves to be regular, typical specimens of the genuine "hobo." The Irishman had been from one side to the other of the Atlantic on cattle boats, and had traveled on freight cars from the Atlantic to the Pacific—from the North to the South.

Both of my neighbors, I learned, had been up to the wagon and received a sandwich and a cup of coffee no less than five times that evening—they had been there an hour before me. As the line gradually progressed toward the wagon on the sixth trip for them and the first for me, I overheard a spirited debate as to whether they should make still another trip; whether they should go to Oliver and Cherry streets where the Salvation Army dispenses free coffee and rolls and allows the recipients, provided they get into the place by 10.00

¹ Mr. Van Ness spent four of the worst nights in February investigating the make-up of several of the New York bread lines, to estimate in some measure their importance as factors in the problem of the homeless and destitute. The particular night described in this sketch was that of February 14. Two nights before, one of bitter cold and sleet, Mr. Van Ness was one of a group of half-clad, rain-soaked men who were kept standing for two and three hours in the slush at the Worth monument waiting for "Chaplain" Rotzler to receive the alms from passers without which he will not give out bed tickets.

P. M. sharp, the privilege of sitting and sleeping on chairs until 5.00 A. M., or whether they should take in Fleischmann's bread and coffee line at 11.40 P. M., and from there go to Fifty-five Bowery (the Bowery Mission), or the Doyer Street Mission at midnight. The native was for trying the Salvation Army's place in view of his penniless condition and the promise it gave of being off the street for the rest of the night. By this time we had reached the wagon, and I received my first sandwich and cup of coffee. The American made a bee-line on the run towards the down-town section and the Salvation Army rooms, but his companion remarked that, as it was well past nine, he (the native) would not "make it" in time to avoid being locked out. So the Irishman decided to go through the line again—an example which I readily followed.

His request for a match opened a way for further conversation and I quite easily learned that this had been his program for weeks past. Work? "What's the use of working when they hand you out free grub in different parts of the city at intervals wide enough apart to allow of a leisure life!" He simply deplored the fact that when summer came there would be no *American* bread and coffee wagon. He said he would then "go on the road" again, as would undoubtedly the majority of those in the line that night.

The young man behind me, a strapping fellow of no mean strength of limb, was equally frank in his admission that he held down the bread line nightly and "worked the other things on tap for all they were worth."

By the time I had reached the wagon a second time, and as we stood on the curb drinking our coffee, I diplomatically inquired in choice slang if they had ever tried the Charity Organization Society for a "hand-out." I hinted at the foolishness of being out on such a cold night, "holding down" the bread line, when they might easily go over to the "charity joint," where they could secure a ticket entitling

them to supper, a night's lodging and breakfast. They eyed me askance for a moment, and then the young man blurted out:

"Oh! I tried them onst. That's the place where they make you go an' saw wood—sides they investigate your story and show you up by letters to your folks. Nixy, chum, none of that for mine—I prefer this, 'cause its easy an' they aint no questions asked."

After returning my cup to the wagon the second time, I "mixed in" with another part of the line and found here, as well as in other places that I shifted to, that every mother's son of those I quizzed had been "working the game" all winter; that there was no need of working when things came so easy and no questions were asked; that late spring and early summer would see them off "on the road;" that a good many of them were professional tramps and hoboos of a most shiftless type. By their own confessions to one another, made in boasting talk and to me as the result of inquiry, they had been "bumming" around the country regularly and came to New York for the winter because, as one of them tersely put it to me, "its about the only city in the United States where things (food, etc.) come so easy and no questions are asked if you happen to be pounding the sidewalk (walking the streets) after midnight."

My acquaintance, the Irishman, had made his eighth trip up the line (I had made my third) and I asked casually if he were going to go to Fleischmann's, the Bowery Mission, or the Doyer Street Mission. He said he intended to "stick to the bread line as long as there was anything left at the wagon," and that from there he was going to "take in" the Doyer Street Mission. He was under the impression that the Bowery Mission was "queered by some bloke swiping the Bible," and that it might not be open. At any rate he was not going to take any chances. When he asked what my intention was I hinted that I was going to run down to the Washington lodging-house to get warmed up, that I was going to "work" Fleischmann's line, and then I might hope to see him at either the Bowery or Doyer Street missions. And

so I left him at the coffee wagon making his ninth trip—I, myself having three sandwiches in my pocket as mute testimonials to the ease with which a lazy man can stock up with a fair supply of food to last him the next twenty-four hours. There were then ninety-six men left in the line and they seemed to be repeating with even more frequency and freedom than I saw the night before at Fleischmann's. In connection with the claims made that the hundreds and thousands are fed by these free bread, sandwich, and coffee dispensing agencies, a very wide margin must be allowed in calculating the number who are actual beneficiaries—my experience in Fleischmann's, as well as in the *New York American* coffee line demonstrating the number of sandwiches distributed and the quarts of coffee consumed are no data upon which to base any conclusion as to the actual number of "repeaters" and others receiving the charity.

In the sitting-room of the men's lodging-house, at No.— Third avenue, when I dropped in at 10 o'clock for fifteen minutes, I saw three of my former neighbors from the *American* bread line warming themselves at the stove. The room was filthy and nauseating in the extreme—and the same conditions prevailed at another lodging-house, where I dropped in at 10.45 and stayed until 11.00 p. m., seeing only two who had been at the *American* wagon earlier in the evening.

At 11 o'clock I arrived at Fleischmann's and took my place in a line of eighty-six men—an unusually small number which, however, can be accounted for by the rigor of a bitterly cold night. To-night there seemed to be more old fellows (really aged men) in the line at Fleischmann's, and I also noticed quite a sprinkling of foreigners.

Eleven of the number, I singled out as having been in the Madison Square line a few hours before, one I had seen at "Chaplain" Rotzler's stand on Sunday night, and two whose unusual appearance had attracted my attention still earlier in the evening at the *American's* Union Square wagon, where I counted eighty-seven men. A large portion had the ear-

marks of drunkards upon them; a few perhaps were products of misfortune.

The gist of the conversation in Fleischmann's line was practically the same as that heard earlier in the evening at Madison Square, *viz.*, how to get the most to eat with the least expenditure of force, the least amount of questions asked, and where there is no objection to a man's repeating as often as he likes; how to get from one to the other of the various free lunch stations throughout the night in the shortest space of time and yet not miss one; and how to "beat it" out of the city in the spring the easiest and safest way made possible by the laxness of railway supervision. Three, four, and even five trips to the bread crates and coffee boilers at Fleischmann's was in order.

The same unlooked-for knowledge of the laws against begging and the workings of the mendicancy forces of the city sur-

prised me in the conversation of the Fleischmann line habitués as it had done earlier in the evening, and one young fellow, of more than passing intelligence, sized the situation up in a few words and secured the approval of not a few of his listeners when he said:

"If they make it a crime, as I hear they're going to do, to be out on the streets without a home, take away the bread wagons, and pinch us for begging, there'll be a gathering of us on the corners worse than this—and I'd like to see what in the devil they'll succeed in doing then—the Island's too full 'now, so is Potter's field, in case they want to shoot us, so all is left for them is to feed us and let us alone."

In other words, a charity has become a right to them and woe to those who attempt to take it from them.

*The Problem of Unemployment in London*¹

Reviewed by Henry R. Seager
Columbia University

For three successive winters distress due to unemployment has reached such serious proportions in London as to call for special measures of relief. Unfortunately, instead of remedying the evil, these measures, or at any rate some of them, have only made matters worse. The metropolis is thus confronted with the danger that what seemed in the winter of 1902-03 to be only a passing malady may become a chronic affliction. It is to a realization of this fact that we owe the careful report under review, and also the interesting experiment in the direction of co-ordinating and centralizing the work of relieving the unemployed that is now being carried on in London along lines suggested last autumn by Mr. Long, president of the Local Government Board.

The report may be conveniently divided into two parts, the first describing and criticizing the plans of relief tried in 1902-03 and 1903-04 and the second presenting conclusions and recommendations as to future policy. As is usually the case with such reports the descriptive and critical portions are more convincing than the constructive suggestions; it is so much easier to perceive the defects in what has been done than to propose better methods.

At the very outset emphasis is laid on the fact that pauperism and provisions for

the relief of pauperism are both increasing at a more rapid rate than the population of the metropolis. This is particularly true of the poorer districts like Poplar and West Ham where the burden of pauperism was already heavy.² The committee is so impressed by the dangers of this tendency that it strongly condemns the increased granting of outdoor relief to the able-bodied practiced by some of the unions, and urges a return to the spirit as well as to the letter of the reform act of 1834.

Among the experiments relieving the unemployed tried last winter the most demoralizing appears to have been the "labor yard" plan resorted to by the poor law guardians of West Ham. It was expected when the labor yard was opened that only two or three hundred men would apply for relief, but before the end of the second week over one thousand had been admitted and the "labor" feature had been reduced to a farce. The yard was maintained for two weeks longer and was then closed, partly because of its cost, but chiefly because by that time it had been made clear to everyone that such an expedient did more harm than good. The committee sums up its indictment of this plan by saying

¹Statistics compiled by Sir William Chance, one of the members of the committee, show that in Poplar the proportion of paupers to population increase from 2.1 per cent in 1891 to 3.6 per cent in 1903, while the poor rate increased in the same period from two to three shillings in the pound.

¹*The Relief of Distress Due to Want of Employment. Report of a Special Committee of the Council of the Charity Organisation Society, London. Pp. 231. Price, one shilling. November, 1904.*

that "in this instance every administrative rule which experience has proved desirable was set aside."

At the other extreme from the labor yard plan was the method of relief carried out on a small scale by the Mansion House Committee. This was to send some four hundred and sixty-seven heads of families selected from the thousands of the unemployed in London to the farm colonies at Osea and Hadleigh where they were put regularly to work and maintained in good physical condition until openings presented themselves that would justify their return to their old employments in London. Meantime the committee undertook to care for the families left at home in accordance with a carefully prepared scale, money for the purpose being given to the wife each week by a friendly visitor. This plan had the advantage of barring out very effectually those who had no taste for regular work. It also insured the physical health of all the members of the family, at the same time that it removed the man from temptations incident to a long period of enforced idleness. The chief obstacle to its wide introduction is its costliness, but here as always in connection with relief expenditures large outlay which preserves the efficiency and self-respect of the beneficiary is cheapest in the end.

Still another plan, tried in the Kensington district, was to relieve families that could be trusted without imposing any work test at all. It was defended on the ground that in practice in time of emergency it is easier to determine the character of a family by friendly visiting and consultation with neighbors and former employers, than through the unreal and superficial work test that is alone possible in a "labor yard" like that of West Ham.

*Mr. Long's
Plan.*

Besides describing and criticizing these different plans of relief the report deals at some length with the suggestions made by Mr. Long as president of the Local Government Board. The essence of Mr. Long's plan is to combine public and private organizations concerned with the relief of the poor in each borough or union into joint committees to deal specifically with the problem of the unemployed, to combine these committees in turn into a central committee composed of one or two representatives from each joint committee, and to entrust to the latter the common fund for the relief of the unemployed and the general direction of the relief policy. The common fund is to be made up in part of contributions voted by the different borough authorities and in part of voluntary contributions, while administrative expenses are to be borne jointly by the imperial treasury and the metropolitan poor fund. Other features of the plan are the assignment to the joint committee of the task of discovering and classifying the unemployed

and to the central committee that of providing relief for the "respectable temporarily out-of-work men," designated as Class A. Finally, public work such as street cleaning is to be utilized as fully as possible for relieving men of Class A (to be supplemented perhaps by the method tried by the Mansion House Committee), while the less respectable casual poor of Class B are to be dealt with "by some system of unification for the purpose of establishing colonies in connection with indoor relief."

The feature of this plan to which the committee takes most vigorous exception is that of having a common relief fund to be drawn in part from borough taxation. It characterizes this as an indirect method of legalizing the right to work, and fears it may lead to the same disastrous results that followed the efforts of local authorities to find work for all applicants before the reform of the poor law in 1834. Another feature of the plan which the committee regards with suspicion is that of relying on public works for the relief of the unemployed. When such work is really necessary and can be undertaken by gangs of unskilled men without too great loss to the public treasury, there is everything to be said in its favor, of course. But when, as is commonly the case, the work is supplied for the sole purpose of giving employment, or is of such a character as to call for special skill or training, throwing it open indiscriminately to the unemployed is likely to do serious harm. Under such conditions the work required is likely to be disproportionate to the pay and the recipients are too apt to be made unfit for undertaking regular work again in the competitive labor market. The committee urges, finally, that the least precaution by which the offer of such work to the unemployed should be safeguarded is to describe it frankly as "relief work" and the compensation as "relief pay" rather than as wages.

In spite of the committee's opposition this plan, with slight modifications, is now on trial in London. At the beginning of the present year the common fund which had been collected amounted to between £30,000 and £40,000, and provision had been made for the employment of some 2,276 men as follows: at the Salvation Army farm colony at Hadleigh, 200; on work for the London County Council (preparing building sites, laying out streets, repairing drains, etc.), 1,876; on work for other public bodies, 200. As over 13,000 applicants for work had registered under the joint committees by December 29, this provision is none too great, even assuming that from two-thirds to three-fourths of these "applicants" will prove upon investigation to be unwilling to undertake regular and continuous labor. Although so much has been done to provide for the needs of men of Class A, nothing of a novel character appears to have been undertaken for those

of Class B, except to send a competent investigator to the United States to inquire into the success of the colonization experiments being made by the Salvation Army in this country. This is doubtless because the community has become so accustomed to the presence of a class of casual poor, or "unemployable" persons, that it is not easily brought to bestir itself on their behalf.

The part of Mr. Long's plan which the committee cordially endorses is the organization of joint and central committees and if nothing else of permanent value comes out of this winter's experiment this feature must certainly be regarded as a long step in the right direction. It has resulted in a great extension of the field covered by organized charity and in the abandonment, it is to be hoped for all time, of such futile endeavors as that of West Ham last winter, to deal in a single district with a problem that affects vitally the whole metropolis, if not the whole nation.

Among the recommendations with which the committee closes its report are two of more than local interest.

After pointing out that the fundamental cause of unemployment is the imperfect industrial organization of modern competitive communities, it recommends "that a voluntary committee be appointed, consisting of members of the London Chamber of Commerce, employers engaged in business and manufacture, working men engaged in co-operation, members of trades unions, and others, to inquire whether by modifications of existing methods of engagement, contract and remuneration, especially in the case of unskilled labor, industry may not be organized on some more stable and beneficial conditions than now prevail." The hope of relief along this line may be entirely visionary, but the experiment of having the matter seriously considered by such a representative committee as is suggested seems at least worth a trial.

The other recommendation is that in lieu of the present demoralizing system of dealing with the casual and vagrant poor in crowded workhouses or through out-relief, a comprehensive plan to enable guardians to send such persons to farm colonies be adopted, the law being modified to permit their detention in such colonies until they have acquired some industrial skill

and the habit of continuous labor. Even the moderate success which has attended the efforts of the Salvation Army to reclaim the submerged tenth through its farm colony at Hadleigh justifies the belief that many of the unemployable of the present might be transformed into hard-working, self-respecting men and women if they could be placed under proper influences for a reasonable period of time. As this recommendation is in harmony with the suggestion of Mr. Long in reference to persons of Class B, and with the drift of expert opinion all over the world as to the best method of dealing with able-bodied vagrants, it is to be expected that something tangible will result from it.

Perhaps the most valuable portion of the whole report is the testimony of the witnesses examined by the committee which appears as an appendix. Here are presented fairly complete accounts of the different experiments discussed in the body of the work by the men who have been actively engaged in making them. Particularly interesting is the description given by David C. Lamb, who was for five years in charge of the farm colony of the Salvation Army at Hadleigh, of that important enterprise. His declaration that fully ninety per cent of those who remain at the colony for more than a month turn out "satisfactorily," taken in connection with his further statement that about half of those sent to the colony leave for one reason or another before the end of the first month, indicates how necessary would be some provision for enforced detention for at least thirty days to the success of any farm colony experiment undertaken by public authority. Space will not permit even a reference to the other evidence presented, but it is equally full of suggestion.

The general impression left upon the mind by this report is that hard as have been these three successive winters of unemployment upon those immediately affected, they have contributed greatly to the progress of organized charity in London. The community has been impressed with the need of co-operation and concentration in dealing with this problem perhaps as never before, and although the first lessons of its experience have been negative, the intelligent and comprehensive relief policy now being carried out under the auspices of the joint and central committees promises positive and permanent benefits.

Max Müller on Beggars

Frederick Howard Wines

Few charity workers are likely to have read the personal reminiscences of Max Müller, the famous Orientalist, entitled *Auld Lang Syne*, and it will be a surprise to many, no doubt, to learn that he devotes in that entertaining book an entire chapter to beggars. He speaks of the joy which our

professional beggar feels in his vocation, which is akin to that experienced by the born thief in the illegitimate pursuit of wealth, and quotes the confession made to him by an educated member of the confraternity:

"Talk of shooting partridges or pheasants,

talk of racing or gambling, there is no sport like begging. There must always be risk in sporting, and the risk of begging is very great. You are fighting against tremendous odds. You ring at the door, and you must first of all face a servant, who generally scrutinizes you with great suspicion, and declines to take your name or your card, unless you have a clean shirt and a decent pair of boots. Then, after you have been admitted to the presence, you have to watch every expression of your enemy or your friend, as the case may be. You have to face the cleverest people in the world, and you know all the time that the slightest mistake in your looks or in the tone of your voice may lead to ruin. You may be kicked out of the house, and if you meet with a high-minded and public-spirited gentleman, who does not mind trouble and expense, you may find yourself in the hands of the police for trying to obtain money under false pretences. No, I have known in my time whoring, hunting and shooting and gambling are; but I assure you there is no sport like begging."

Professor Müller divides professional beggars into three groups: beggars pure and simple; those who do not beg, but who borrow; and those who have something of no real value to sell. He relates instances of imposture not unique, by any means, but out of the common, which are told with his extraordinary literary grace, and are well worth reading. The most entertaining is the story of the remarkable forger of ancient Greek manuscripts, Simonides, who actually composed a history of Egypt in the Greek language, attributed it to Uranios, who did write such a history, happily or unhappily lost, copied it in uncial letters in blue ink between the letters of a Greek manuscript of about 1200 A. D., and sold it to Frederick William IV, then King of Prussia. Lepsius, the great Egyptologist, pronounced it genuine, and Bunsen recommended its purchase. Dindorf edited the text, and it was partly printed by the Clarendon Press at Oxford, before proof of its spurious character was discovered.

The existence of impostors, however, failed to blind the eyes of this great scholar to the reality of distress which demands and merits pecuniary aid. "It seems to me," he says, "that there is only one thing to be done, namely, to give up, every one of us, whatever quatum of our income we think right, and to hand it over to such societies as take the trouble to find out for us some not quite undeserving poor. Our Charity Organization Society does no doubt much good, but it should have another branch, the members of which should be understood to give, say, a tenth part, or any other quatum of their annual income for charitable purposes.

"What is to be done to alleviate or cure this terrible evil of poverty and beggary? Nothing really seems to remain but to adopt the example of the Buddhists, and give to the beggar a recognized status in society.

The Buddhists have no poor rates, but whoever is admitted to the brotherhood has a right to go round the village or town once or twice a day, to hold out his begging bowl, and to take home to his monastery whatever is given him. No householder likes these Bhiksus or beggars to depart from his house without having received a gift, however small, while the Bhiksu himself is not degraded, but enjoys, on the contrary, the same respect which the begging friars enjoyed during the Middle Ages. Even in later times we hear in Scotland of the Gaberlunzie men, and elsewhere of Bedesmen, Bluegowns, etc., all forming a kind of begging fraternity, and having a recognized position in society."

This suggestion is of course not meant to be taken too seriously. It is simply one way of giving expression to the common conviction that the methods of organized charity are stronger on their negative than on their positive side, and that more needs to be done for the really deserving poor than we have yet invented any practicable mode of accomplishing. The good done by the London society for the relief of foreigners in distress is, in Professor Müller's opinion, "but like a drop of milk in an ocean of salt water."

"I remember once my servant coming in and saying: 'There is a poor man at the door, I believe he is dying, sir!' I confess I did not believe it, but I went to see him, and he looked so ill that the doctor had to be sent for. The doctor declared he was in the last stage of consumption, and I was glad to send him to the infirmary. He was a poor tailor, a German by birth, but who had lived many years in England and spoke English perfectly well. Being well taken care of he got better for a time. I went to see him, and tried to cheer him as well as I could. He was surprised to see me, and said with a frown: 'Why do you come to see me?' I said that he seemed quite alone in the world, without any friends or relations in England.

"'Friends and relations,' he said. 'I have never had any in all my life.'

"'You had father and mother?' I said.

"'No,' he answered, 'I never had. I never knew anybody that belonged to me. I was brought up at a government school for poor children, was apprenticed to a tailor, and when I was quite young sent to England, where I have been working in different places for nearly twenty years. I have never begged, and have always been able to support myself.'

"He told me the name of the tailor for whom he had been working in Oxford, and I received the most satisfactory account both from his employer and from the men with whom he had been working.

"'Why do you come to see me?' he said, again and again. 'No one has ever been kind to me. I want to die; I have nothing to care for in this world. The few things that belong to me I wish to leave to the poor ser-

vant girl in the house where I have last been at work, the little money in my purse may go to the infirmary. I know no one else; no one cares for me, or has ever cared for me."

"What an empty, purposeless life it seemed to have been, and yet his, too, was a precious soul, and meant to be more on earth than a mere sewing machine. Yes, now and then one can do a little good, even to professional beggars; but very, very seldom—and it is right that such cases should be known and remembered."

The chapter closes with a pathetic tale of a betrayed German girl on her death bed; with her dead babe by her side, whom Müller saw and endeavored to console in her last agony.

"Poor girl! I felt for her with all my heart, but I had few words of comfort for her. How difficult it is to judge. Love,

youth, nature, and ignorance have to be reckoned with in our judgments; and society, which no doubt has to enforce certain laws for its own protection, should distinguish at least between sins against society and sins against God, before whom one untrue and unkind word, written or spoken, may weigh heavier in the scales, for all we know, than the sin of many a heart-broken girl."

Think of the friend and companion of kings, for that has been from his youth Max Müller's social position, seeking like the Master, to find out and try to save, or if that was impossible, to cheer and help, men and women at the extreme other end of the social scale, who had no personal claim on his time; and take the lesson, dear reader, to heart. 'Twill make you a better and a happier man or woman.

Loose Threads in a Skein

It was Saturday and little Maggie Flynn was playing about the kitchen after her first week at the parochial school. Among other lessons she had been taught to bow her head at the name of the Savior. Her big sister was singing as she busied herself with her work and hummed softly over and over the refrain, "Jesus, blessed child Jesus." Maggie kept silent as long as she could, but finally burst out, "And will you quit singin' your song. Me neck is most broke wid bobbin'."

M. F. B.

A story of child-life has recently come to me through a young girl who, in a recent railroad trip through Vermont, heard it from a mother who traveled with her two children.

She was a Canadian, gentle and refined, and a widow, her husband having left her and the two little girls penniless. One was eight, the other eleven. Not knowing what to do for their support, she joined a traveling concert company, and for ten months all three took part in the nightly entertainments in the New England towns. The youngest child sang sweetly; the other was a good dancer. Each night, during those long months, they traveled after the concerts to another town, changing cars generally about two o'clock, until the night habit was established.

She told of a two-year-old child who, since it was eighteen months old, had been trained to these hours.

"Was she tired of it?"

"Oh, yes, but they must go on."

In the daytime the eldest girl took dancing lessons to further prepare her for her part, and gradually to fit her to be a dancing teacher. The mother did not wish her to go on the stage.

This, then, is a glimpse of child-life in our New England towns and elsewhere, ap-

palling to those who have understood that the exhibition of children had been prohibited.

"Oh, but that is in the large cities," said the mother. "In all small towns the children are used in this way."

F.

• • •

It was on the day after Thanksgiving that a Cleveland settlement worker called upon a little family of Slovaks to whom had been sent a bountiful dinner. The father, a cripple from rheumatism, grew more than unusually incoherent in his attempt to express his gratitude for the feast. "We haf this, and this, and this," he said, displaying the relics of the repast, a few potatoes, a teaspoonful of jelly, a morsel of cake. But of the chicken there was no vestige, so after a moment of perplexity a smile beamed on his face, and he added joyfully, "We haf also beef-bird."

M. V. A.

• • •

Homer Folks tells a yarn on institutionalism as he found it on Blackwell's Island, when commissioner of New York public charities. In the requisitions for what was then called the almshouse hospital, the bills for lemons loomed up large, entirely surpassing those of the other hospitals, where there were more patients and acute cases. The suggestion was made that there must be graft somewhere, but an investigation was started before steps were taken. It developed that every patient at the hospital was in receipt regularly of two lemons a week. Just why they received two lemons a week the doctors did not know, the nurses were equally at sea, and least of all, the patients, largely aged invalids who had no possible use for lemons, and who traded them off for postage stamps and in other swap-and-dickers such as are common in old folks homes. Investigation finally revealed the fact that

some ten years before, during Mayor Strong's administration, the almshouse hospital had been wofully overcrowded and was threatened with scurvy. To ward off an epidemic the authorities had directed that two lemons a week be distributed to each of the patients, and for ten long years, week after week, each patient in the institution had been duly in receipt of those two lemons.

It was when a well-known settlement worker was a very little girl—and that really wasn't such an awfully long time ago—that her mother took such steps to save daughter from being spoiled as would suggest themselves to New England motherhood. When a body did something very

indiscreet, if very truthful, and vowed that—Priscilla shall we say—was pretty as a picture, the remark was properly deprecated. The mother was never guilty of such a slip, "Yes, you look very comfortable" was the most she would say, and that with an air that would settle it.

One evening Priscilla begged her mother to come to the bedside in her party dress. It was a very pretty gown, it must be confessed, but no one would have been content with passing remarks upon the gown, least of all, Priscilla—

"Oh, mama, you look so comf'table," she said.

Daughter had been fooled never a bit. Her notions were quite superior to the mere names grown people gave things.

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CHARITIES

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*The East Side
Elevated
Railway*

Despite the protest of citizens of the lower East Side of New York in mass meetings at Albany, before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment and the press, various interests are still active in an effort to destroy Delancey street. Social workers are not going beyond the limits of sane indignation in saying that enemies of the poor could scarcely devise a project more nicely calculated to counteract the movements for better living on the East Side.

Mayor McClellan having promised to veto the construction of an elevated railway in Centre street, the alternate project of one through Baxter street and Delancey street was reported to have received support at a meeting of the Plans and Contracts Committee of the Rapid Transit Commission early last week. To build such a structure anywhere on the lower East Side means, as Dr. Adler pointed out at the mass meeting of protest held at Miner's theatre, to afflict the dwellers in the tenement-houses with dust, disease and din. To support this proposal is to advocate depriving New York city of the superb thoroughfare for which it has paid millions of dollars—Delancey street, now cleared of buildings and awaiting development; to promote darkness where light is more needed than anywhere else in the civilized world because population is denser there; and to promote congestion where congestion has long been a curse of the region.

The alternate or Baxter street plan has been called a private way route, but in reality the private way would be only over a fraction of its course. There are other more practical, less pernicious ways out

of the difficulties of bridge transit which sore beset aroused residents of Brooklyn. Representations were made the past week by Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the City Club, to President Alexander E. Orr, of the Rapid Transit Commission, to the effect that statements were current that the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company was pushing the plan for stock jobbing purposes and that the whole scheme was to be railroaded through the Rapid Transit Commission without giving the public an opportunity of being heard. Full confidence was expressed that no such smothered action would be taken by the commission. At a meeting of the commission Thursday a public hearing was set for Thursday afternoon, March 16, at 2.30 P. M. This was a definite gain on the part of those who are opposing the elevated structure. A conference has been called at the City Club for Monday afternoon, March 13, at 4 P. M., to bring about united action against the elevated plan and it remains for civic organizations and individuals to show their strength in concerted and intelligent action.

*A Tax on the
Lame, the Halt,
and the Blind.*

On the passage of Senate Bill 420 depends the continuance of the exaction on the part of the state of New York of a tithe from every dollar given by bequest to philanthropic institutions. No profound study into the incidence of taxation is required to show that this is really a tax on the lame, the halt, and the blind. It is not the institution as a co-operative entity which suffers from the tax, but the beneficiaries of the institution. It is the little cripples of the orthopaedic hospitals, the fatherless

families which seek aid of the charitable societies, the paralytic men and women of the homes for the aged and infirm—these and a hundred others, whose misery is tempered or who should be given free footing for a new chance in life, have been especially subjected to the operation of a tax which in only a much lesser degree, or not at all, affects legacies left to relatives.

At the last session of the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction a committee was appointed to take action in the matter, under the chairmanship of Robert W. de Forest and with John B. Pine as secretary. This committee on March 9, submitted a memorandum to the legislature in which it showed that from the very inception of the state, a liberal policy toward charitable, benevolent and educational institutions had characterized the New York legislature, without exception until the session of 1900. In that year an act was passed amending the transfer tax law as to the refund of taxes erroneously paid, and also by a subsequent provision repealing the legacy tax exemption, theretofore enjoyed by religious, charitable, educational and other institutions. The obscure phraseology of the repealing clause attracted no attention at the time and not until some months after were any of the institutions aware of its existence. In 1901 the act was modified by restoring the exemption of religious corporations and by exempting specific gifts (other than money or securities), to charitable and educational institutions, but as the law now stands all pecuniary legacies to charitable and educational institutions are subject to a tax of five per cent. "Whatever we may think of such an assault upon charitable transfers, we must recognize it," said the Court of Appeals in construing the act.

It will be remembered that in the case of the Federal War Revenue tax law, a similar situation was presented and the action of Congress in repealing the tax on benevolent institutions and in refunding all taxes paid by such institutions may be recorded as indicative of the general opinion upon the subject, and of the force of the reasons against such taxation in their effect upon clients disposed to leave

their property to public institutions—institutions which save the state great expense in the care of certain classes. The policy to exempt legacies to such institutions from such succession taxes has been adopted and is in force in Maine, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Virginia, Ohio, Illinois, California and other states. That the New York law is absurd is shown by a glance at its operation. A legacy to a tract society is exempt, a legacy to a hospital is subject to taxation; property left to a bishop—even for his own personal use—is exempt, to a charitable society is subject; a legacy of less than \$10,000 left to a relative is exempt, a like amount left to an educational institution is subject to the full tax.

No better statement of the case could be had than in the language used by the Court of Appeals in the Huntington case, already cited:

"The organized charities and benevolent agencies which actually relieve human misery, and labor in unselfish devotion to improve the moral and physical condition of mankind, are alike the fruits and aids of good government, and to exempt their property—usually the gifts of the benevolent—from the burdens of taxation is scarcely less the duty than the privilege of the enlightened legislator. Clearly this exemption should be placed upon broad, equitable grounds."

Announcement has been made by Columbia University of a gift of \$100,000 by Jacob H. Schiff for the endowment of a Chair of Social Work. The object of the gift, as explained by the university authorities, is to broaden the lines of instruction in philanthropy and social service, making possible at the same time a closer affiliation of the university and the recently endowed School of Philanthropy conducted by the New York Charity Organization Society. The present endowment supplements the gift of \$250,000 made to the society a few months ago by John S. Kennedy. Announcement is also made that Edward T. Devine, director of the School of Philanthropy, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society, and editor of

A Chair of Social Work, Columbia University.

CHARITIES, has been appointed to the chair by the trustees of the university.

It is believed by the authorities of the university that the connection with the Charity Organization Society, with CHARITIES, and with the school will greatly add to the opportunities for usefulness of the professor of social work in the university, and the central council of the society takes a similar view of the possibilities arising from this further personal relation between the society and the university.

The scope of the instruction to be given in the university will be the study of the more important movements to improve social conditions whether they rest upon a philanthropic or civic basis, and whether their object be to correct social injustice or to realize new social opportunities.

*A Hospital
Conference in
New York.*

The pressing state of finances in the affairs of New York's great private hospitals, which annual reports issued by their boards of trustees repeatedly gave evidence of, and which Frank Tucker first summed up comprehensively in his study for CHARITIES of their various budgets, is to be brought forward definitely at a conference.

The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor has issued invitations for a "Conference on Hospital Needs and Hospital Finances" to be held in the Assembly Hall of the United Charities Building, at 3.30 p. m., Thursday, March 23. The hospitals, as well as various charitable organizations having daily contact with distress arising from sickness and physical injury, have been asked to send at least three delegates from their boards of directors and ladies' auxiliaries.

In the words of the announcement sent out:

"Heavy annual deficits are the rule rather than the exception, social deficits as well as financial, for in many hospitals work is curtailed for lack of means. Although an injury to medical science, and thus to the whole community, such curtailment bears hardest upon the poor. Before the conference adjourns, it is intended to secure the appointment of a committee competent to frame a practical scheme of improvement."

*Dull Children
and the
Labor Law.*

Especial value attaches to the successful and suggestive experiment described by Miss Elizabeth Farrell in giving luncheon to the boys of a special class in one of the public schools of New York city. Not only has it a direct bearing upon the question of undernourished school children now being considered by a committee of the Board of Education, but it has an equally important bearing upon pending legislation in New York. Senate Bill 427, introduced by Senator Fitzgerald, would deprive of such instruction all backward children who are nominally fourteen years of age.

Miss Farrell's experience indicates that there is a wide field of usefulness open to the domestic science department of the public schools in building up mentally deficient children in the process of school attendance, deriving meanwhile additional vital interest in the work for the girls by whom it is done.

Senator Fitzgerald's bill, on the contrary, provides that a child who is over fourteen years (*no means being provided for proving the fact!*) and mentally defective, may be exempted from school attendance. No provision is made for an examination of the child by a physician or an alienist. Apparently it is only necessary for a child to appear, for any reason, to be dull in mind, in order to be exempted from school and free to work.

The special classes of the Board of Education are an experiment of the highest educational value and of great social significance. They are increasingly necessary since the new child labor law and the compulsory education law have been so dove-tailed as to require that children must accomplish a certain amount of work before they can leave school under the age of sixteen years. The special class reveals which boys fail by reason of physical and mental defects; and which fail by reason of poor instruction, irregular attendance, and other removable causes. And for all alike it makes what reparation can be made in the hard lot of these children.

It is difficult to understand what motive lurks behind the effort to do away

with this valuable work and let the children who most need school life be deprived of it and hastened into the factory and the street.

Tenement-house Law Untouched. Friends of the New York Tenement-house law will be gratified at the assurances that the decision of the Supreme Court of New York in the case of *Kitching vs. Brown* recently handed down does not affect that law. In 1873 Dr. Jacob Harsen sold a tract of land in what is now the fashionable Riverside Drive district of Manhattan, and inserted in the deed a restrictive clause. This clause stated that the purchaser, his heirs and assigns, would not erect on "any part of said premises any stable of any kind, coal-yard or slaughter house," or permit thereon "any manufacturing of glass, gunpowder, starch or glue, or any circus, menagerie or public show, or any tenement-house or any other trade, manufactory, business or calling which will in any way be dangerous, noxious or offensive to the neighboring inhabitants."

In 1890 the defendant in the suit erected on the lot what is popularly known as a modern apartment house. The owners of the neighboring property thereupon brought suit on the grounds that the erection of this house was an infringement of the deed. The court, in sustaining the defendant, bases its action not on the legal or lexicographical definition of the word tenement, but upon what was the purpose of the covenant at the time it was made. Therefore, attention is called to the fact that this deed was executed shortly after a popular outcry against the lowest tenements then existing in this city, and that "the term tenement-house had thus acquired a fixed and definite popular meaning." The court further cites the other noxious and objectionable things which are prohibited. These, as quoted above, are slaughter houses, glue and gunpowder factories, circuses and shows. Clearly then, in the popular sense, the purpose of the clause was to prohibit such common nuisances as these and the term tenement-house was used in this company. What is now called an apartment house was then unknown, and the court holds that the erection of this particular house

does not come within the provisions of the deed. The decision, therefore, turns upon what the parties to the deed meant by the popular use of the term "tenement-house."

The tenement-house law is not affected as it defines a tenement-house for its own purposes and has nothing to do with the popular distinctions between tenement and apartment houses.

The Work of the New Jersey Tenement-house Board.

The first report of the New Jersey Board of Tenement-house Supervision has just been issued and deals not so much with the work accomplished as it does with the method of accomplishing it. This report covers a period of only seven months, namely, from April 1, 1904, when the board was appointed, to October 31 of the same year. The new law went into effect at the earlier date and Governor Murphy entrusted its enforcement to the members of the commission appointed by him in 1903 who had drawn the bill, with the idea of securing not only a genuine, but also an intelligent enforcement of the law. Great care has been taken by the board to explain fully to all concerned the act and the methods of enforcement, and in fact this report itself is a step in the same direction for it explains the procedure in such detail as to make it plain to the most uninitiated. From the first the board has courted the widest publicity, sending out several thousand copies of the law, and circulars regarding its enforcement. Meetings were addressed, not alone by one member of the board, but in some instances by every member. Much ignorance as to the requirements of the law were thus dispelled. At one meeting an aggrieved landlord was present who said the law required him to get down on his knees and scrub the floors. The same man was sadly puzzled by the requirements for 400 cubic feet of air for each occupant of a room and said if a dweller in a tenement had a visitor this law would prevent his entertainment even if the family "doubled-up on sleeping arrangements." The board found also that much was to be done in connection with existing local building and health boards. These in some instances felt that the appointment of a state board was an infringement on

their rights and consequently were somewhat hostile. But by meeting every such objection fully and by showing a catholic spirit of co-operation, not only was this spirit dissipated but in its place has come a desire on the part of the local boards to secure the help of the state board. Much work has been done on complaints in response to requests from these local boards for help in bringing about local sanitary improvements.

A feature of the work in New Jersey which makes the report peculiarly interesting is that this is the first state to have its tenement-house provisions apply to the whole commonwealth. In New York the tenement-house law applies only to cities of the first class; that is, to New York city and Buffalo. This extension to the whole state is considered a very essential point by the New Jersey state board. The law went into effect at a particularly happy time, because many of the sweat-shops driven out of New York tenements, owned by proprietors unwilling to conform to the most ordinary sanitary requirements, were seeking locations in the small towns in New Jersey. There they would have repeated the evil conditions found in the worst tenements of New York city. Furthermore, the board has found that even the hamlets of the state have houses which in many cases reveal as unsanitary conditions as those in the larger cities. The census of 1900 showed that there were 14,748 tenement dwellings in the seven larger cities of the state, but the work of the board reveals the fact that there are between 20,000 and 25,000 in those cities and in the entire state about 40,000.

Typical Conditions Found. The housing situation, as described in New Jersey, is very familiar to those who are facing similar problems elsewhere. The words used to describe conditions could be equally as well applied to New York, Chicago, New Haven or Cincinnati. The inspectors found malodorous vaults, soil and waste pipes discharging their leakings into cellars; broken soil and waste pipes discharging their contents over cellar floors; dark unventilated sleeping-rooms; cellars partly filled with rubbish and garbage and stored with rags; papers and other inflammable materials; broken

and dilapidated stairs and almost total absence of means of escape in case of fire. The causes which underlie these conditions in New Jersey are the same that cause evil conditions elsewhere; ignorance, indifference and greed. The board finds that "for many years the work of tenement-house construction had been carried on in this state with practically no restraint or supervision, except such as pertains exclusively to structural work." "Up to the time the law was passed the building of tenement-houses was a free and easy matter. Did a speculative builder wish to cover the total area of his lot? He made it so. Did it suit his purpose to have dark rooms, unsanitary plumbing, no fire-escapes, living rooms in fetid cellars, or noisome privy vaults where sewer connections were easily possible? He made it so, with none to gainsay and none to criticise." Is it any wonder then that New Jersey has a tenement-house problem. Yet, this is the history of tenement building in many other states and but proves that the solution of the housing problem in America is still in its infancy while the problem itself is full grown.

Any legislation affecting such conditions would naturally cause some friction. This friction gave the board its chief work for the period covered by the report. It became necessary for it to focus all its attention upon the inspection of buildings in process of erection. In six months, 282 plans for new tenements were filed, almost fifty per cent of which contained violations of the law. Many of these violations were purely technical and the architects were willing to make their plans comply with the law. But a certain class of architects amended their plans but not their buildings, and consequently such buildings had to be under constant supervision.

The Law Not a Hindrance to the State.

The board approved of plans for 215 new buildings calling for an expenditure of \$1,479,000. This does not bear out the reiterated statements of the enemies of the law that it prohibits the building of tenements. The report shows that "while the law has not been in operation sufficiently long to develop any fixed type or types of building, the great variety of ways in which

the problem has been successfully solved, has shown that the provisions of the law are sufficiently adaptable to permit the development of unimproved property under all conditions." The figures quoted as to building operations in Jersey City and Newark where the greatest opposition exists show very conclusively that the law does not put a stop to construction work. The total cost of buildings for which plans were filed in these two cities in October and November, 1904, exceeded the cost of the plans filed in the corresponding month in 1902 and 1903.

There have been 1,889 inspections of existing buildings. Violations have been filed against 340 of them and more are to follow. In 206 of these houses the owners have entirely complied with the requirements, and fully one-half of all others against which violations had been filed were in process of removal at the time the report was written. A whimsical development of the work and one which does not argue well for the amiability of human kind is the fact that in the short period of six months the board has been called upon to remove fourteen "spite fences" which shut off the light and air of tenements.—a statement which should be modified by the fact that every owner of such a fence was willing and ready to remove the same as soon as called upon.

The report is readable throughout. It explains the work of the board fully and is well illustrated not only by pictures showing tenement conditions, but also by reprints of the various printed forms in use—pages which will be peculiarly useful to other communities in their efforts to solve similar problems.

The first report indicates real and intelligent efforts to give effect to progressive legislation. It is to be hoped that succeeding reports can truthfully record sustained and widening enforcement.

The University of Illinois is one of the institutions which is constantly giving evidence of an intimate and continuous acquaintance with the current needs and the new opportunities in the educational work of the state. President James has recently proposed to various

*University
Training for
State Employes.*

denominational schools that they should discontinue the competition with heavily endowed or state supported universities, and should instead establish on or near the campus of the state university college halls in which students may reside, and in which courses could be given in theological and other studies.

A less ambitious, but very interesting suggestion was made by Dr. David Kinley of the university on the proposed introduction of courses for present or would-be employes of the state charitable and penal institutions. Such courses would necessarily be somewhat experimental at first, and would include:

- (1) The ordinary academic work of sociology, both theoretical and practical.
- (2) Establishment of classes at stated times for stated periods for such employes of state institutions as might wish to attend or as might be able to do so. The work of such classes would consist chiefly of lectures by recognized specialists.
- (3) Correspondence work.
- (4) Summer classes especially for state employes.
- (5) Visits and lectures at institutions.

It is pointed out that a civil service law for state institutions at once opens a career to young men and women who desire to engage in humanitarian work. Under the merit law the state will offer employment during good behavior, and it sets up one test only, that of fitness. As the state offers so much it can demand more than under the old political management. It can demand, properly enough, special aptitude and training. And if it demands training, it is only fair that it should offer it.

In the western states where the system of public school education is crowned by the state university, it would appear that no other agency is so well situated to give this training and hence persons especially interested in the public institutions and in making the proposed merit law a vital, vigorous force for their good, have urged President James and Dean Kinley to undertake this work in Illinois.

Meanwhile a bill is before the legislature to provide for instruction at state charitable and reformatory institutions.

School Luncheons in the Special Classes of the Public Schools

A SUGGESTIVE EXPERIMENT

Elizabeth Farrell

Teacher of Special Class, Public School No. 1, New York.

"Lacks of development or nutrition are causes of idioy."—EDWARD SEGUIN.

"Defects in development, nerve signs, and nutrition may be regarded as warning notes of intellectual dullness."—FRANCIS WARNER.

After these principles were accepted as fundamental, the question of the physical education and development of children in special classes became a vital one. Upon investigation it was found that in the matter of height and weight these children in the New York school where such experimental classes were first started, were far below the averages established by investigators in Boston and Chicago. In muscular development they were found to be subnormal. Narrow chests, round shoulders, thin arms and legs, were characteristic features. There was little or no power of co-ordinated action either between eye and hand, or between arm and leg movements. When there was even a slight degree of muscular co-ordination it was noticed that there was a tendency to extreme fatigue, both mental and physical. After a few moments of attending to an object, the eye shifted, the brows knitted up, the muscles jerked here and there, until it was necessary to frequently change the center of interest in order to get any mental response. It was found that the circulation was generally sluggish. Cold hands, even after moderately vigorous exercise, were not unusual. In some children the bodily temperature, taking ninety-eight degrees as normal, was permanently low. The struggle to maintain bodily warmth was seemingly a losing one. The quality of the blood was poor. Upon examination it was found that the mucous membranes were pale and indicated a low vitality and a general weakened condition.

During the investigation into the general physical development, the evidences of disease were so often found that a more

or less accurate account was taken of the health conditions of the child up to his entrance into the special class. Here were found conditions enough and to spare that explained why the child was unable to keep up to his grade. When it became known that epilepsy, scrofula, rickets, tuberculosis, diseases of the bones, inflamed eyes, discharging ears, skin diseases and glandular swellings represented but a few of the actual diseases suffered by these children since birth, there was no cause for wonder at their intellectual dullness.

With evidence of subnormal physical development, extreme liability to fatigue and the indications of actual disease at hand, the problem of education was necessarily modified. Before the school could do anything in the way of mental training, the body had to be made a better instrument of the mind.

*Underfeeding
and Bad Food
at That.*

All that medicine and surgery could do in making these poor bodies more efficient was done in the hospitals and dispensaries of the city. The special class undertook to secure co-ordinated action and promote right habits of growth. To the home was left the great problem of proper food and the children themselves proved that from birth at least they had been underfed. By talking with both parent and child it was found that many of the children were obliged to furnish their own food. One little fellow, a type of dozens, with a thin, pinched, sharp-looking face, was locked out at seven o'clock every morning and given two cents with which to buy food during the day. On warm, muggy mornings Tony's breakfast was an ice cream sandwich or ginger beer and crullers. The children who were so fortunate as to have breakfast at home had coffee or tea with bread; one had coffee and brandy with bread. The luncheon of

these children was without exception bought from a push-cart or a basket on the curb in front of the schoolhouse. It need not be said that such a luncheon usually consisted of doughnuts, crullers, pretzels and bad, highly-colored, highly-flavored candy. For dinner many of the children, in fact all over ten years old and many of those under ten, went to the "chop suey" restaurant in Chinatown or to the quick lunch places in the newspaper district. How much nourishment this meal contained can be better imagined than stated. Feeling that something must be done in the matter of proper food, each child was urged to bring something to school to eat at recess time. Often the child said, "my mother did not have any bread to-day so I brought this," holding up a cruller nearly as big as his head. Other children brought great chunks of bread sticking out of their coat pockets.

In the matter of liquid food there seemed to be a constant supply of ginger beer, the bottle carried in the pocket in the most approved fashion. Once a "wee mite" of humanity turned up with a bottle of lager beer as his school luncheon.

From this beginning the way to the introduction of milk as a liquid food was short. The boys with one or two exceptions were willing and anxious to bring one cent each morning for milk. On cold, wet days the boys who had been on the street for an hour or two were very glad to get a cup of hot milk and many boys bought two cups. Finally this cup of hot milk became the nucleus of the mid-morning lunch. Bread brought from home and the cup of milk made a refreshing lunch for those who had breakfast at home, and those who had nothing but a doughnut and ginger beer were without doubt in need of some food.

**A Mid-day
Luncheon
Provided.**

The next step in the experiment was the establishment of a regular mid-day luncheon for the children of the special class. The prime need of the class was that of proper nutrition; if these children, handicapped by poverty, disease and ignorance, were to be educated, they must first be relieved of the pangs of hunger. But the necessity of a longer schoolday, properly apportioned between work and

play, for these, the most needy of the school children, was also recognized in the establishment of the mid-day luncheon.

If five hours a day in school is a good thing, six hours, if wisely used, must be better. If we can prevent even for an hour the dissipation of energy due to the use of cigarettes, bad candy, the pernicious influence of the street and the excitement of petty gambling, we had better do it. Then again, the establishment of certain decent habits of eating which is possible in the mid-day luncheon has its very good effect on the whole development of the boy. Of the twelve boys who sat down to the first school luncheon, only one had sat at table with his family, and that one had brought the way of it from a convalescent home in New Jersey where he had been a resident nearly a year.

The luncheon served to the boys of the special class consisted of such materials as are designated and required by the course of study and cooking in the public schools. Since last September, on different days, there have been served boiled rice, cereals, tomato soup, vegetable soups, steaks, chops, roast beef, potatoes, turnips, carrots, cabbage, macaroni, custards and rice pudding. At Thanksgiving and again at Christmas a delicious dinner of roast fowl, potato, cranberry sauce and grape jelly was cooked and served in the most appetizing way. It must be remembered that each boy supplies his own bread and pays one cent for the milk he drinks.

The cooking and serving of the luncheon is directed by the department of cooking in the school. Some girls from each class above the 7A grade are required to give eighty minutes a week to the subject of cooking and domestic science. It will readily be seen that by serving the luncheon to a class of boys a highly desirable social aim is put into the work of cooking and the work is done under the natural stimulus of a direct demand for food. The work in domestic science also becomes more real. The table is carefully set because it is to be used; it is to be carefully done each day, not only on the one day when table setting happens to be the lesson. From the cooking teacher the school luncheon demands more careful planning. Now, more than ever, since the food is to constitute a real meal, the food value of

materials cooked must be carefully considered as well as the quantity.

*The Cost
to the City.*

It is a matter of fact that the expense connected with the department of cooking in this particular school has not increased during the year and a half that the school luncheon has been on trial. The actual expense to the city has been five and a half cents a day for each boy and with the mere pittance spent those connected with the work believe that the luncheon is well worth while.

The question of pauperizing the children is almost eliminated. By requiring each boy to bring a cent each day his self-respect is preserved. It is a question whether or not the school luncheon could succeed without the required payment. It has been a noticeable fact throughout the experiment that the child who most needs food will not accept even a cup of milk unless he has the money. A system of promissory notes has been established to bridge over temporary money matters and

to the honor of the boys be it said that with the possible exception of two or three the payment has been made and old debts canceled.

The city gives free books, free pencils, free baths, to be used in the best possible way. Why not make the best possible use of the materials supplied to the cooking department? By requiring each boy to bring bread from home, the parent is held up to more than he otherwise would be. A word to the mother is often all that is needed to show her how much better it is for the boy to bring bread nicely cut and wrapped from his own home, than it is for him to run to the bakery and buy a roll or some cakes. And who shall say that the good is to the child alone? Just as the school baths make for cleanliness at home so must the school luncheons make for better food at home. It is not always lack of money that entails poor food. The parents are willing but untrained. The school can do little in this way with the fathers and mothers of to-day, but its opportunity is great with the fathers and mothers of to-morrow.

Kentucky's Unique Conference Plan

Mary Bryson

Unique in the history of charitable movements is the plan being pursued in Kentucky of four separate sessions to form one annual meeting of the State Conference of Charities and Corrections. The plan was inaugurated with a distinct purpose, that of interesting the state in four different sections centrally located, thus reaching the entire state before the next meeting of the legislature. The first session was held on November 29 and 30 in Lexington, the second was held in Covington on February 21 and 22 and the concluding sessions will be held at Maysville and Paducah.

The key-note of the Covington meeting was on needed charitable legislation in Kentucky. President Thomas D. Osborne, of Louisville, in his initial address spoke of the wonderful accomplishments in child saving. Meigs V. Crouse, of Cincinnati, paid high tribute to Kentucky in the opening session of the conference. He said: "Until recently it has not been

necessary for Kentucky to have organized charity work, as it has been in other states. Your poor have been very independent and then your people have a way of caring for the orphan and the widow, without calling on the public." Unfortunately, while this praise was deserved in the days of the grand old state of Kentucky, it is not true to-day, for there is need, and great need, of organized charitable effort.

At the afternoon session Edward Grauman of Louisville, spoke on organized charities. Another Cincinnati charity worker, James O. White, of the Union Bethel, spoke interestingly on "The Value of Training for Charity Work." He said in part: "It is no longer the sole feature of charity that indiscriminate visiting of the slums be done, but it is essential for the accomplishment of the most good that the workers in charity be trained to the needs and demands of the present hour. Ability is required in all walks of life in

which any worker in these days of progress takes his position. In no field of work is more talent or training necessary for the accomplishment of the best results than in work for the poor and needy. You remember how Mr. Pickwick advised Sam Weller to try bleeding as a means of learning to skate, for a cure of the gout or headache or any other ailment—the same bleeding was prescribed. That was like the physician of yesterday, but to-day practice and state demand that he must have a training. He must pass his examination before the state board. So the charity worker of yesterday felt that the panacea for all troubles was giving alms, whether the cause was desertion, drunkenness, idleness, or any of the many that the charity worker is called upon to diagnose. To-day he understands that the external application will not help in every case but that the most of the trouble is within, and must be worked out through the individual himself. The people with whom the charity worker has to deal cannot think out the solutions of their own problems, and this the charity worker must do for them. The worker must know the tenement-house laws not only in his own city, but in the best cities. He must stand between the landlord and the poor tenant. He must present the cause of the poor suffering for want of pure air in vile tenements, or else these persons suffer unknown and unheard of. In other words he must put himself in their place. The charity cause is most fortunate in that it has drawn to its support the broadest intellects, the most profound scholars and men of deepest research. No other organization has such a complete record of its working. A new worker entering the field has at his fingers' end everything that has been accomplished in the past. There are periodicals and well-selected libraries from which the worker may draw. But great as these facilities are perhaps the one thing which has characterized charity work is the training of workers, and perhaps the most potent factor has been insistence upon a constant interchange of ideas, at state and national conferences."

In the discussion of the paper, the Rev. George Morris, of Lexington, said that

the trained charity worker has outgrown the citizen of to-day.

The main address of the evening session of the conference was given by the Rev. W. B. Farmer, of Indianapolis, on present-day charity. Some of his salient points dealt with the old and ever new idea of the brotherhood of man, and the fact that every man is worth saving, loving and working for, because of his representing an immortal soul. "We," he said, "are trying to rid men of the impression that the world owes them a living and make them realize that they owe to the world a good, honest and noble life."

The connection of the child with charity work was taken up on the second day. An interesting paper was that of Superintendent C. M. Merry, of the Covington public schools. Speaking on the truant child he said, "Truancy is the result of false logic, false premises that lead to a false conclusion. The child rebelled against the law that created the school and this incipient rebellion afterwards grew into a rebellion against all law. Too often the truant child is neglected until he becomes a criminal child." Mr. Merry pointed out a defect in the Kentucky truant school law which provides for the punishment of the parent but gives the state no way to take the child away from depressing home influences and keep it in school. He outlined the needs in Kentucky laws fastening responsibility for the child both on the parent and the city, a juvenile court, teachers alive to their responsibilities and in harmony with the work of the juvenile court, an industrial school for juvenile offenders before they become hardened criminals, and public playgrounds.

A talk on the juvenile court was given by Mrs. Desha Breckenridge, of Lexington. She asked what the state of Kentucky was doing for the children? In Lexington in one year, she said, seventy-five children were arrested; one of these was four years of age, another seven, and others from nine to ten years of age. They were brought before a judge in Lexington and acknowledged they had been playing cards with a condemned murderer while in jail. This

incident brings to view the fact that the Kentucky legislature has no power to create new courts, but could so adjust matters that the regular courts already in existence would have the proper jurisdiction.

An interesting speaker was Miss Eleanor Tarrant, head resident of the Neighborhood House in Louisville. She made a protest against child labor in Kentucky. Miss Tarrant, who was introduced by President Osborn as "the one who has maintained a lighthouse in the darkest district of Louisville," said in part: "It is true that all of us here are theoretically against child labor, but how many of us are opposed to it in practice? It is that call for something cheaper that makes the field for child labor. The law in Kentucky needs strong amendment as at present the power of the law depends upon the probity of the county judge. If the judge is honest the law is good; should he be otherwise, the law is bad. Every man or woman in this audience is clad in garments which have in some way passed through the hands of little children."

Amos W. Butler, secretary of the Indiana State Board of Charities, opened the afternoon session with an address on the influence of the state board of charities. He thoroughly illustrated to the people of Kentucky the value of a non-partisan board. George L. Schon, of

Louisville, read an instructive paper on legislative needs. Dr. George Sprague, of Lexington, was introduced as "the man who issued the first call for a state conference of charities and correction." His theme was the state's duty to the mentally deficient. He spoke of Kentucky's poor method of looking after the insane, and said that other states had abandoned methods now in vogue in the state forty years ago. He said Kentucky did not have a single state hospital, and he feared that there was not a man or woman connected with the asylums in the state who had special qualifications for the treatment of the insane. This, he said, was not the fault of the officers themselves, but was due to politics entering into the management of the asylums.

The meeting created wide interest throughout the northern part of the state. A particularly valuable aid to charity work will be derived from the excellent reports of the conference published by the local press. An uninitiated representation of the public told one of the charity workers, after reading of the reports in the paper, "that he perceived the charity folks were beginning to understand the doings of charity work pretty systematically." This gives a glimpse of the needs here of co-operation and understanding. The kind of people awakened makes the sunbeam a little brighter over the horizon.

Among Prints and Publications

A concise statement of certain needs of Philadelphia is given in the little pamphlet, entitled *Suggested Bulletin of Committee Work of the Social Service Section of the Civic Club of Philadelphia*. Mrs. William M. Lybrand, the writer and also the chairman of the committee, asks the members to consider the advisability of establishing in the city a school for systematic training in general social science work. She speaks of the housing problem of Philadelphia, and the need of comfortable and rapid transit. A central committee to co-ordinate and strengthen the work of the anti-tuberculosis associations is proposed. Aid is asked for the committee on household research, which is to carry on further investigations into the conditions of household service, and to work for legislation properly controlling intelligence offices and employment bureaus. Thorough study of work for

children and greater activity in co-operating with child-saving agencies is urged.

A valuable feature of the pamphlet is that in connection with each plan, sources of information relating such work are given, and an outline of what is being done in the same direction in other cities.

• • •

It was only recently that CHARITIES received an inquiry from a correspondent, to whose attention had been brought home the widespread mortality from tuberculosis among the Scandinavian farmers of the Northwest. It is planned to make use of no little of the data available in the *Handbook for the Prevention of Tuberculosis*, issued by the New York committee, in the Swedish and Norwegian newspapers published in this country.

In this connection it can be said that the tuberculosis movement is being taken up

energetically in the Northwest, with St. Paul and Minneapolis as a centre, one of the most recent evidences being a reprint, which is being circulated widely, of addresses at the Minnesota State Conference of Charities. These addresses are of a very practical sort, calculated to catch the eye of the local practitioner in particular, and dealing with such concrete factors in the tuberculosis problem as the treatment of tuberculosis in the homes, by Dr. H. M. Bracken; and in dispensaries, by Dr. George Douglas Head, while Dr. H. A. Tomlinson, of the State Insane Hospital at St. Peter, gives fresh evidence of his grasp of state-wide welfare movements in advocating the extension of the system of country hospitals and district nurses. It is in the West, indeed, that perhaps the largest advances can be expected in the next few years, in the development of preventive social work in other than urban communities.

There could hardly be a more just account of the relations between charitable work and the newspapers than that presented in the study of a year's newspaper clippings, which is a part of the twenty-sixth annual report of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity. The evil results of publishing names and addresses in connection with cases of destitution and distress, are demonstrated, but the newspaper is emphasized as a great unifier, "tending to overcome the isolation of a great modern city;" and an appeal is made for "the supreme importance of bearing truthful witness about every class to every other class."

The report is refreshing in its aim, as a whole, "to throw especial emphasis upon the recipients of charity rather than upon ourselves as dispensers of the same."

The large body of men and women to whom Amos Griswold Warner's *American Charities* is a familiar classic, will be interested in the publication of his *Lay Sermons*¹ by the Johns Hopkins Press. It is fitting, as the editorial note observes, "that the publications of the department in which his advanced studies began, should contain a brief memorial of an honored friend and contributor." The addresses, which were delivered before the Chapel Union of Stanford University, were given (to quote the author's own words) with the purpose of deriving "a religious impulse from the subject-matter of scientific study; to preach from facts instead of scripture, to deduce a plea for the lifted heart from the dusty things of life and experience, which it was the week-day business of the hearer to sort and study."

¹"Lay Sermons" by Amos Griswold Warner, with a Biographical Sketch by George Elliott Howard. Notes supplementary to Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The Johns Hopkins Press, 1904.

Together with Professor Howard's sketch of Warner's short, brilliant career these addresses will be treasured by students eager to know more of the life and work of the man who, to so great an extent, laid the foundations for the development of the scientific study of charity in America.

*Industrial Work for Public Schools*¹ is a delightful text-book, containing a detailed program for the first and second years and many suggestions for the third, fourth and fifth years, in clay-modeling, rattan-weaving, raffia and other forms of industrial work. The usefulness of the book is greatly increased by the number of illustrations. The authors urge training in the use of a variety of materials in order to open up as many avenues as possible to the small workers, and to develop "the habit and skill for all-sided work." With its directions for the purchase of materials and its list of other books on the subject, the publication furnishes a very practical, as well as attractive guide in this department of education in public schools.

An addition to the Juvenile Court pamphlets recently mentioned is a report gotten out under the auspices of the Juvenile Court Committee, Allegheny, Pa., for 1903 and 1904. The reprints of the Colorado statute affecting delinquent children, have been issued from the County Court in Denver, in compact form, and can be had by addressing Judge Lindsey.

Copies of Prof. A. P. Thomas's little bibliographical pamphlet, on *Social Information* may be obtained for 10 cents by addressing Professor Thomas, The Woman's College, Baltimore, Md.

An addition to the handbooks for the clergy, published by Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York, is a volume on *Charitable Relief*, just issued, written by the Rev. Clement F. Rogers.

The only remaining church below Chambers street and east of Broadway, New York—the John Street Methodist Episcopal Church, which was organized in 1768, and stands at 74 John, recently requested the Federation of Churches and Christian Organizations to make a religious and social census of this territory, and the results are included in the current issue of *Federation*. There is a sketch of ecclesiastical events, coupled with maps and charts interpretative of the present conditions of this "oldest New York."

¹"Industrial Work for Public Schools," by Martha Adelaide Holton and Alice F. Rollins. Rand, McNally & Co., 1904.

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New Jersey Tenement Law Endangered.

Certain builders and architects of Jersey City and Newark have had introduced at Trenton a bill amending the New Jersey tenement-house law. This bill, if passed in its entirety, would emasculate the law to such an extent that it would be of little value to the tenement dweller. But some of those who backed the bill in its initial stages have withdrawn their support of certain of its provisions. The chief amendments still pending would change the definition of a tenement house, and the size of courts. The law now defines a tenement house as one in which three or more families live independently but have common use of halls, stairs, etc. The amendment would make the definition cover only four-family houses and even of these certain would be excepted—a change which would rob the dweller in the small tenement of all supervision. In these columns last week attention was called to the fact that the New Jersey Board was finding miserable insanitary tenements even in the hamlets of the state and that a distinct feature of their work was co-operation with local boards of health in bringing about sanitary reforms in such places. It is not conceivable that in these hamlets the huge structure, housing many families, is or will be the tenement type. The type for many years to come will be the small three or four-family house. This amendment would except these from all supervision at a time when insanitary conditions would most likely be in the making.

The present law requires inner courts to be at least eight feet wide and fourteen feet long. The proposed amendment would reduce the width to four

feet and the length to ten feet. No one has yet brought forward any valid reason why the builder in New Jersey can not erect a house with courts the size required by the existing law, when in New York where land is so very valuable architects are able to plan for larger courts. The cost of a four or five-story tenement including the land in New Jersey is about one-half the cost of land alone in New York. While rentals in New York are higher than in New Jersey, yet the proportion of income to investment is nearly uniform with the balance, if any, in favor of New Jersey. Governor Stokes is said to be in sympathy with the law as it stands and the assembly committee also is not opposed. The supporters of tenement and sanitary reform in New Jersey should rally to the support of the board in its fight against such pernicious amendments.

*Not Unchristian
But Inter-
denominational.*

The charity workers and citizens of Atlanta have organized an Associated Charities which has won the support of Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Roman Catholics alike. A faction of evangelical ministers, however, has taken umbrage at the omission of the word Christian from its title and is agitating to start a rival organization which shall be called the "Christian Associated Charities." This ill-advised step would not be taken where organized charity work had been established for some time or was well understood. Organized charity like individual charity finds its inspiration in the religious instincts of the human soul. Its program and work is broad enough, liberal enough, and yet withal definite enough to satisfy and strengthen the ideals of all churches and

all creeds. It is the hand-maid of religion, an interdenominational servant that has but just begun its work in our communities. To call it unchristian is to confess one's ignorance. If the doubting Thomases of Atlanta will make use of the Associated Charities and ally themselves with it, they will soon see their mistake.

Up-State Social Reform in New York. A wave of reform seems to be sweeping over some of the counties on the west shore of the Hudson River.

In Ulster County the board of supervisors by a unanimous resolution has asked Governor Higgins to remove from office the superintendent of the poor, a man who is one of the most influential of the republican leaders of the county. The extraordinary misconduct of Superintendent Sammons has been described in previous numbers of CHARITIES, and sixteen instances are cited by the supervisors in which it is alleged that he misappropriated county funds for his own purposes, embezzling thousands of dollars. It is to be hoped that Governor Higgins will not delay in removing this man, and leave no doubt as to the attitude of the state government towards malfeasance in office.

In Rockland County both public bodies and private associations have seen a new light. The Rockland County Taxpayers' Association has been stirring up the matter of high taxes for some months, and in accordance with the suggestions of the association the boards of auditors of the different townships have cut down the bills of many officials, especially those relating to the arrest and imprisonment of tramps. The officials whose graft has been thus summarily cut off appealed to the board of supervisors, and that body stood stanchly by the action of the town auditors. The Rockland county grand jury has taken up the matter at the request of the Taxpayers' Association, and has presented seventeen indictments against well-known officers of the county, principally justices of the peace and constables. The grand jury also handed in a presentment condemning the tramp industry in the county, and stating that in one year \$20,000 of the cost of this business was illegal and fraudulent. With

the Taxpayers' Association, the board of supervisors, and the grand jury all after the grafters, it looks as if the tramp industry in Rockland County might be put out of business.

The Anti-Tuberculosis Movement—Youngstown; Grand Rapids.

The progress of a tuberculosis movement in Youngstown, Ohio, is described on another page by Mr. Baldwin, a former resident of that city. Still another sign of the activity in this field comes from Grand Rapids, Michigan. After a quiet canvassing of the situation in that city, plans for the organization of an anti-tuberculosis society were laid and on March 3, Dr. Victor C. Vaughan, of the University of Michigan, delivered by invitation a public address on the disease and the methods of combatting it to a large and representative audience. Immediately following his lecture the formal movement was launched, a constitution and by-laws adopted, and about a hundred of the leading citizens of Grand Rapids handed in their names as members of the new society. The dues have been placed at one dollar a year and new members are being added daily. A second meeting for the election of officers has been called and the work is being pushed with enthusiasm.

Neighborhood Work.

A French Play in New York. The inauguration of social work among the French residents of old Greenwich Village in New York city, will follow the three productions of a French play now rehearsing at Greenwich House. Workingmen and women of the neighborhood will take most of the parts under the direction of Mlle. Marie Louise Girault, who will herself appear in the leading rôle. The play is "Le Hulan," by Mme. Tola Dorian, and the dates are March 30 and 31, and April 1, at the Berkeley Lyceum.

Mme. Dorian's varied experience in both life and letters, and her advanced democracy are well known. "Le Hulan" is a peace play, which vividly focusses the causes and results in a war of nations and the sufferings of individuals. The hero does his military duty against his con-

science and his sympathies; both sides call him traitor.

Mlle. Girault has been leading woman this winter in the productions of the Progressive State Society. She has become a resident at Greenwich House which is within reach of that district back from Washington Square, which more than any other neighborhood in the city, could be called a French quarter.

Neighborhood House, Washington, D. C. During the year the "Barney Neighborhood Club Buildings" have been opened, four doors off from

Neighborhood House in Southwest Washington, and have added a great deal to the possibilities for the work which these three years past has been carried on under Mr. and Mrs. Charles F. Weller, in an old-fashioned residence on N street. The new buildings consist of a three-story house with two tenement-buildings at the rear, two stories in height. The industrial work of the settlement is now carried on almost entirely here, and is being developed on a larger scale than heretofore. The cooking classes have a model dining-room in the front basement in a low-ceilinged room, whose fire-place adds much to its attractiveness. A hand-loom from West Virginia, bookbinders presses, manual training benches, and a brass hammering shop, take up the four small rooms in the rear building, with a gymnasium above.

Here also is the first branch of the Washington City Library—an innovation which was brought about only after overcoming considerable conservatism on the part of the library management. The success of the library work in this neighborhood, however, is a standing argument for its extension.

The Only Way to Down an Alley. The year book for 1905 of the Kingsley House Association, Pittsburg, has much to say in regard to the summer home, the manual training work, and to other settlement activities. But a deeper note is struck. For, in the words of the report, facts and figures, citations of clubs and classes, do not by any means tell the whole story of the year's work. It is urged that by far the larger and better part of it lies in the

attempts made each day to "carry the spirit of truth, hope and life into all the common affairs of life, as neighbors to many people to whom the problem of life is always difficult." And there is insistence that each owes a duty to the community, "that work is staring us in the face and opportunity is obligation." "You can lay this paper aside," writes Judge Joseph Buffington, president of the association, "and forego to do your part, but you cannot brush aside Poplar and Basin alleys; they are not theories, but stubborn Pittsburg tenement facts, and they will not down."

"Nor will they down," adds William H. Matthews, head of Kingsley House, "until the strong, clean, forceful men of Pittsburg give to their solution that activity and force which they have given to Pittsburg's industrial life."

South End House Activities. The thirtieth annual report of South End House, Boston, gives ample evidence that the studies

which have made that settlement famous, will be sustained by future contributions. *The City Wilderness* and *Americans in Process* will be followed in the course of time, as the pressure of other work may permit, by a volume dealing with the outer circle of working class districts, including Charlestown, East Boston, South Boston and lower Roxbury. In the meantime investigations of special problems of city life are being conducted under the different fellowships. Mr. Wolfe (Harvard) is soon to publish his study of the lodging-house problem in Boston—that is the boarding-house problem with the boarding left out. Miss Price (Radcliffe) is in the second year of her investigations of women in industry in the South End particularly in steam laundries; Mr. Daniels (Harvard) has engaged upon the problem of negroes in Boston, and Mr. Eastman (Amherst) has gone into civic work.

Simple Neighborliness. Last year the chief progress at South End House consisted in a closer approach toward a realization of the settlement ideal of "simple neighborliness."

In the words of Mr. Woods:

There has never been a time "when the

different residents as individuals found themselves in a more natural and personal relation with the people of the neighborhood. The neighborhood acquaintance and influence of the settlement group has reached a point where, while leaving very much to be sought for, it still seems like a realization of many of the dreams of the early days of the house. There is in a gratifying degree that acceptance of the general scheme of neighborhood betterment as an established part of the neighborhood life, that interchange of visits back and forth, that ease and naturalness in joint effort between residents and neighbors, that fair assumption of appropriate responsibilities all around—which are the ultimate ends for which the house exists.”

Commenting upon this striking note in the report, the “Social Settler,” writes in the *Boston Evening Transcript* in this wise:

The settlers have ceased to be mere “residents” and “workers,” representatives of an institution; they have become neighbors in the fullest sense. Their relation to the community is no longer extraneous and artificial; they have made themselves integral parts of the neighborhood life, natural leaders in enterprises that make for the material and moral betterment of local conditions. This normal relation to the neighborhood is extremely difficult for any settlement to attain. In the beginning the settler is an enigma to the native. His *raison d’être* is not easily understood by his constituency. What is his graft? Or, if he is not after graft, what is his mission? The suspicion that the settler is trying in some mysterious way either to exploit or to patronize the neighborhood is hard to overcome. To dispel this prejudice and convince the people that he is simply trying to play the rôle of true neighbor and good citizen is a delicate task. Their task the residents of South End House appear now to have accomplished. And the attainment of this normal relation to the neighborhood marks an epoch in the history of the settlement.

*The Settlement
and
Relief Work.*

It is noteworthy that in her annual report as director of Greenwich House, New York, Mrs. Simkhovitch has fairly faced the question of the relation of settlement work to problems of relief in the neighborhood. Her position is that of referring transient applicants or persons who will need long continued relief, to the particular agencies organized to meet their needs; of meeting neighborly responsibilities in cases of temporary destitution where the families are known, just as friendly help is given in other emergencies in the district; but of doing this relief

work along lines tested by the experience of organized charity. Whether or not there will be agreement with Mrs. Simkhovitch’s conclusions, she has performed a service in affording this frank basis for discussion.

Similarly the report discusses the relation of the settlement to educational work:

A settlement aims to get things done for a given neighborhood. It proposes to be the guardian of that neighborhood’s interests, and through identification of the interests of the settlement group with local interests, it forms a steady and permanent element in a community which is more or less wavering and in flux. To work out the methods by which a neighborhood may become a consciously effective group is, I take it, the difficult task of the settlement everywhere. As a matter of fact, however, what settlements actually do seems often but remotely related to this task. In practice every neighborhood house has to do a good many things which its advantageous position allows and almost compels it to effect. The relations of the settlement to charity and to education are to be noted as points in question.

Settlement workers are accustomed to say that their work is quite distinct from that of the charity worker, but, as a matter of fact, every settlement resident spends a good deal of time in just that sort of work which is in the modern sense charitable. Children are taken to the dispensary; the sick are entered in hospitals; children are sent away to the country in the summer; convalescents are looked after, and in cases of need material help is often given; loans are made. The fact that all this is done as one neighbor would do it for another, not in a sentimental or mechanical way, does not prevent its being actually charitable work. It is charitable, and the charitable societies themselves for the most part conduct their own work in precisely this neighborly spirit. What is the principle, then, on which a settlement enters upon charitable work? Should it engage in it at all? Of course it should, because the settlement worker is not an abstraction but is a plain human being living in a given community and responsible as every other person is responsible in that community for what happens. But that the settlement methods in giving aid should be co-ordinated with those of other agencies and that some definite plan of co-operation should be followed is self-evident. It may not be impertinent to indicate what that method of co-operation is which exists at Greenwich House.

If an applicant for relief totally unknown to us comes for assistance, the applicant is directed to a central charitable society. If the applicant is a person of whom we have heard and with whose family we are likely to come in contact, we communicate directly with the central charitable society, and in

case the applicant is already under the care of that society, we leave to it all investigation and relief; but, in case the applicant is not on the books of the society, and the relief desired is of a strictly temporary nature, we sometimes assist, and sometimes refer to the central agency, as the necessities of the individual case may indicate. If the exigencies are such that a more prolonged care seems desirable, we leave the matter in the hands of the society to whom the applicant is referred.

If the applicant is a person well known to us, the relief desired being temporary, and the care of the family not in the hands of the central society, we often give assistance. If it is likely to be an instance where continued care is desirable, we refer the applicant to the central society for material relief and general supervision while asking the privilege of co-operating and visiting. In any case we follow up what is done, whether the care of the family be undertaken by another society or by ourselves. That is, we feel a responsibility in regard to every application that is made to us. The house is, of course, represented on the local district committee of the Charity Organization Society.

As we have just seen, a neighborhood house finds itself of necessity from the very fact of its common interests with other residents of the neighborhood engaged in more or less charitable work. In the same way it finds itself of necessity engaged in educational work. Just as charitable assistance is not the real object of the settlement, so, also, education is by no means its object. Yet where there is a local need of any sort and where it cannot be met otherwise, there is a sort of moral obligation upon the settlement to supply that need. This is the perfectly proper excuse for which no apologies are necessary for the existence at Greenwich House of a small circulating library, of a kindergarten, of cooking and sewing and other industrial and manual classes, and of English lessons to foreigners. But just as there is a plan followed out in the charitable side of our work, so also there is a method which we follow in this educational side of our life. The kindergarten is for children who are younger than the age prescribed for admittance to the public school kindergarten. There is no other circulating library in our immediate neighborhood; the classes in English are for those who would not for various social and age reasons attend the night school; the industrial work is not yet provided in our local schools; and in addition to this fact, the possibility of small classes at our house combined with the peculiar relation of attachment that grows up between pupil and teacher from the very reason that the teacher is known in the family, and is a friend in other ways, as well as a teacher

of a given occupation, creates an atmosphere which may well lead and which, in fact, does lead to the accomplishing of the settlement's purpose in building up an effective group-consciousness which is at the bottom of social ethics. If this sort of training is possible in classes of an educational sort, it is doubly so in the development of club life. Much has been said of the value of clubs in developing independence, the sense of the subordination of the individual to the whole, respect for fair play, and the gradual refinement in manners as well as the development of a higher moral standard which results from club life. But although it is true that the members of clubs gain a great deal just by mutual association, it is also true that where the most powerful personalities are of an inferior type, a group deterioration can rapidly take place. It is perfectly clear that almost everything turns upon the ability and character of the leader, and upon the standard that he sets both as an individual and in his relation to society. If the settlement does anything in what might broadly be called a spiritual way, it is in the personal influence of individual leaders upon club groups. A club that is nothing but an agglomeration of units out for getting a good time may have nothing very bad about it; but that certainly is not what the settlement ought to be after. If manly and womanly men and women everywhere resent the search of happiness as an ideal for themselves, they ought equally to resent it for others. And whereas the settlement does try to give a good time in a perfectly simple way to women who are tired out by the day's work, and to children who need a change from school and home work, yet the central thought in developing the clubs which cluster around the settlement should be the development of sympathetic groups working for the development of the highest powers of each, and having a belief and pride in each member of the group.

*Professor Sloane
on Modern
Feudalism.*

Prof. William M. Sloane addressed the annual meeting of the University Settlement Society, New York, last week. The picturesque liberality of utterance, characteristic of Professor Sloane's historical writings was borne out in his treatment of present social conditions. He had said that the world has advanced more in the past century and a half than it did from Pharaoh's to the Declaration of Independence; and that "it is the thrift of the people that is at the bottom of our industrial troubles"—statements which found acceptance at the sacrifice of their startling elements by succeeding words of explanation. In a similar vein the personal element in

the ward charity of the Tammany politician was roundly endorsed.

"The Wigwam," he said, "is the finest example of modern feudalism to be found in the world. Feudalism is protection for service rendered. And Tammany gives sympathy, a job and advice—for just a vote, cast in one hour. Where else can a waif of the world, a discouraged or sick man get sympathy and a job better than from Tammany? Then, too, such men get from the organization a social exchange of words. They get this in political clubs, some of them excellent organizations, but for the most part they get it in the saloons that are the headquarters of local ruling organizations. If we don't give this sympathy in charitable work then we will be routed over and over again. Our noble charities which aid those in distress do not give the personal sympathy that the agents of Tammany Hall know so well how to give, because they do so well understand the great human nature surging around us. We haven't a tenth enough settlements. We ought to have centred in each thickly populated district some place where human sympathy can be found and where men will feel that we are taking a personal interest in them."

Professor Hamilton who is head-worker of the settlement, announced that a large gymnasium will be constructed by an additional story to the present University Settlement building.

Notes of the Week.

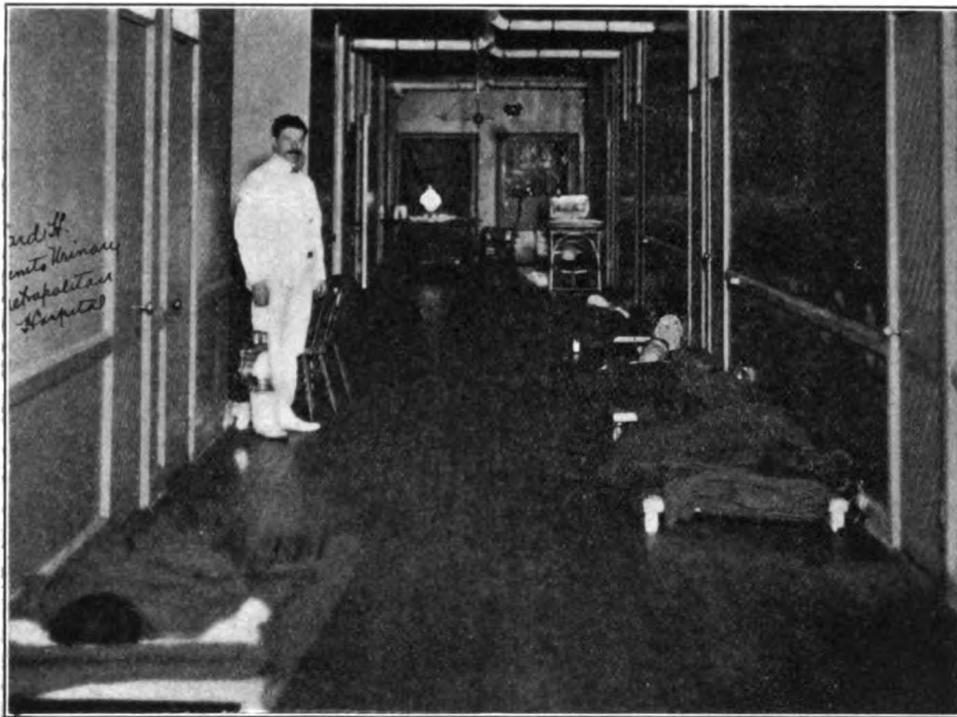
Some Great Anti's of Paternalism.—"Don't 'anti' so much; give the boy a chance," said Joseph B. Riddle, probation officer for the Hull House district, at a recent meeting of the Chicago Juvenile Court Committee. "We have anti-crime, anti-cigarette, anti-dime novel, anti-everything movements, but nothing is being done for the real good of the boy. We are taking everything from him and giving him nothing in return. We have forbidden him from flipping the cards, shooting craps, throwing snowballs, and building bonfires, but we have failed to provide substitutes for the pleasures we have denied him. There are no opportunities in Chicago, and especially in the river wards, for the expression of the natural activities of the boy. Give him a place where he can build his bonfires, throw his

snowballs, play football, and wrestle and yell and the 'boy problem' will begin to near its solution." Of the boy who leaves school at fourteen years of age Mr. Riddle said: "He becomes a wage-earner, a boy man, a little fellow with the heart of a boy and the freedom of a man. He has not the judgment to control his freedom. Give him amusement and occupation."

The Desertion Law Passed by the New York Senate.—The bill making the abandonment of children under sixteen a felony was last week passed by the New York State Senate by an almost unanimous vote. The measure indirectly aims at the desertion of wives when they are left with the care of children in necessitous circumstances. While social workers realize that there are many distressing instances of desertion where the care of children is not involved, they have above all felt the need of some measure which makes interstate rendition of deserting husbands possible in cases where the wife of established good character is left with dependent children to support and as soon as the whereabouts of the husband is known. The conviction of the man, who goes into another state, as well as the more persistent searching out and prosecution of those who remain in concealment near at hand, should have the effect of making wife-desertion unpopular. This prosecution must inevitably produce an additional good result in deterring the man who is about to throw off his responsibility toward his family from taking that step.

Conference on Household Work.—The New York Association for Household Research will hold its first public meeting on Friday afternoon, March 24, at 3.30 o'clock, in the Berkley Lyceum Theatre, 19 West Forty-fourth street. The principal address will be given by Dr. Charles R. Henderson, professor of sociology of the University of Chicago. Miss Margaret L. Chanler, president of the Woman's Municipal League of New York City, and Miss Margaret D. Dreier, president of the New York city association, will speak on the work of the association, and its relation to the city. Those interested in the problem of household work in its many phases are cordially invited to attend.

More Patients at Stony Wold.—Arrangements have been made at Stony Wold Sanatorium, Lake Kashaqua, N. Y., to accommodate ten more patients than heretofore. This is an important change as there has been a long waiting list of women and children who were eligible, but could not be sent because of lack of space. The office of the sanatorium is at 118 West Sixty-ninth street, New York, where applications for admission are received.



CORRIDOR TURNED INTO A WARD, METROPOLITAN HOSPITAL, BLACKWELL'S ISLAND, NEW YORK.

Our New Congested Districts—the City Hospitals

Paul Kennaday

Secretary New York Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis

"Through the various societies and newspaper agitation regarding tuberculosis, patients are coming more and more to the department for care. It is a serious problem and should be met."

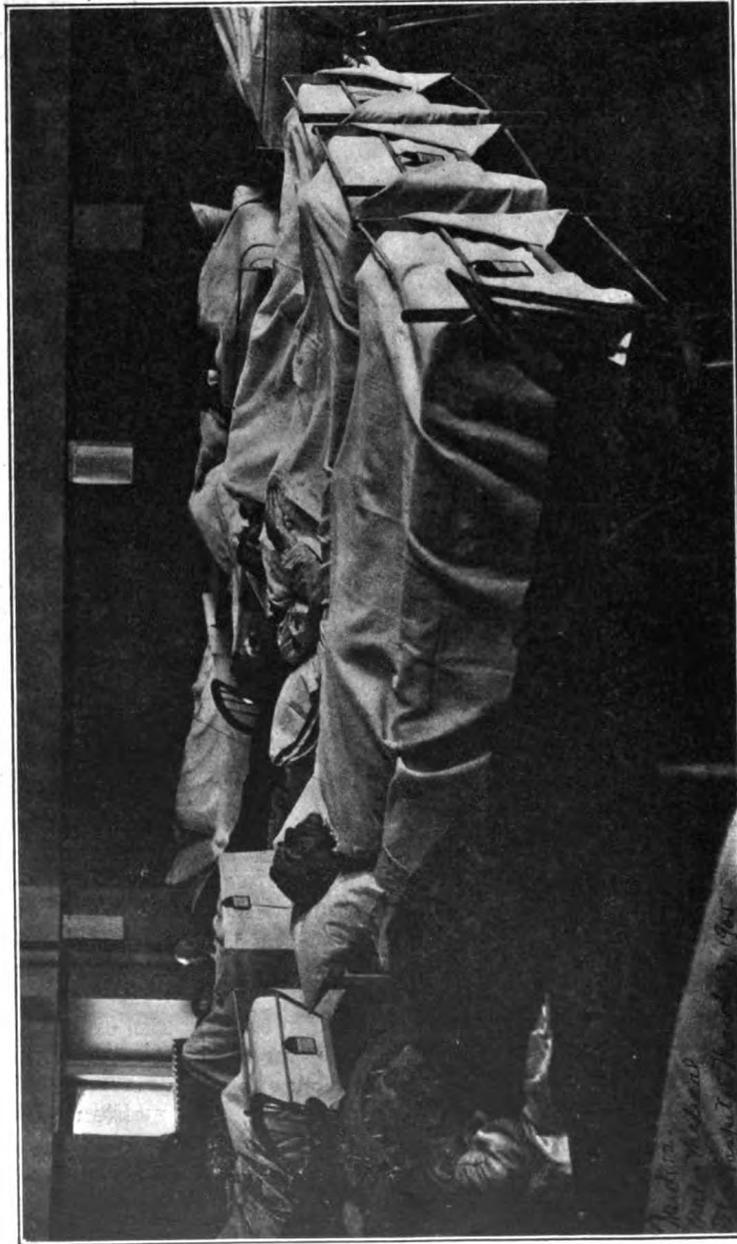
Thus writes James H. Tully, commissioner of the New York Department of Public Charities in a letter to Mayor McClellan, in which he asks for the issuance of corporate stock to the amount of \$1,568,200 "for buildings and additions, alterations and extraordinary repairs which should be provided by the department at the earliest possible date."

Safe provision for the thousands of consumptives in an advanced stage among the 30,000 and more tuberculous cases in the city is indeed a serious problem, but a problem even bigger than this is to be met, that of our new "congested districts"—the city hospitals.

Conditions prevailing at several of the city hospitals on typical dates in the last three weeks will show how immediate their need for relief is. At City Hos-

pital on Blackwell's Island, on March 3, the census showed an excess of 209 over the capacity, but this is far from indicating the discomfort in particular wards; in one female ward the number of patients was very nearly double the number of beds, springs being placed upon chairs and made up as beds and crowded in between the regular beds as shown on the next page in a photograph taken on March 3, in one of the male wards, where much the same conditions prevailed.

At the Metropolitan Hospital, on March 4, the census was 1156, having declined but little since February 24, when it reached 1159, with 175 floor beds in use, these beds consisting in the greater part of springs made up directly on the floor. In some cases beds have been made up of blankets placed directly upon the floors without the use of springs. At the Tuberculosis Infirmary of this hospital on March 4, the census was 496, with one vacant bed for men and two for



CITY HOSPITAL, BLACKWELL'S ISLAND—CLOSELY CROWDED BEDS AND SPRINGS.

women. Both of the women's tents were in use for men on that day, as they had been for some time past, the women being thus deprived of the benefit of this form of treatment.

But it is in the Kings County Hospital that the most serious condition exists. Here, in addition to seventy consumptives in the separate building for the treatment of tuberculosis, eighty-one consumptives remained in the general wards of the hospital on March 2. Seventy consumptives have died in these general wards of the hospital during the months of December, January and February. In Ward Thirteen there were on March 2, eight positive cases and one suspected case of men with tuberculosis. In Wards One to Four, inclusive, on the same day were forty-two positive cases and sixteen suspected cases of men with tuberculosis. In Ward Eighteen on the same day there were fourteen tuberculous women. Some idea of the serious conditions accompanying the presence of these consumptives in general wards may be realized upon consideration of the fact that in one main division of Ward Eighteen, which includes subdivisions (twenty-one and twenty-two) in open communication through a large archway, there were, in addition to the fourteen tuberculous women, three children recovering from whooping cough and one woman with chicken-pox. The other main division of Ward Eighteen, consists of three similar communicating subdivisions (eighteen to twenty) connected further with each other and with other subdivisions (twenty-one and twenty-two) by open corridors, used in common by all the walking patients, women and children, in the daytime. In this main corridor five children with sore eyes were playing on March 2, near the children with whooping cough, and sometimes coming in contact with them. As the corridor was open for the business of the ward the blackened faces of four women with erysipelas in Subdivision Nineteen were for days in full sight of these children and the other patients swarming in the corridor and other subdivisions. Ninety-one children occupied on March 2, a space which should only be used

for sixty, and cribs were used in the connecting corridor for children with meningitis. There were also nine children in other wards.

Waiting maternity patients were in a ward opening on the same corridor as that where the erysipelas patients were, and post partum cases were in a ward just below the erysipelas patients. At this hospital on the night of February 27, there were 115 floor beds in use, of which forty-eight were in Wards One to Four, inclusive, where as already stated, were the forty-two men with positive cases of tuberculosis and sixteen suspects. These four wards held in all 117 patients on March 2.

The overcrowding has continued to be serious at Bellevue and Allied Hospitals and has been greater even than usual by reason of the conditions existing at the hospitals in the Department of Public Charities, as Bellevue and Allied Hospitals have been hampered in their transfers of patients to the department hospitals. Gouverneur, Harlem and Fordham hospitals have been used for some time to their full capacity, and on frequent occasions in excess of their capacity. The extension to Gouverneur hospital, and the new buildings for Harlem and Fordham hospitals are under construction, but most of them will not be available for use until early in 1906, and perhaps not until later.

Adequate wards or hospitals for tuberculous patients would do much, it is plain, toward a solution of this problem of congestion; they would also remove the grave danger connected with the present failure to segregate these cases. Some measure of relief has been given at Bellevue by the building of four Ducker cottages with beds for 112 patients. One of these with a capacity of twenty-eight added to the recently built phthisis pavilion and the tents put up last summer give accommodation for seventy patients, a hospital census in itself of no mean dimensions. The 200 beds which the Department of Health will eventually add to its Riverside sanatorium for consumptives will take away another fraction of these cases which are dangerous when left in general wards. The municipal

country sanatorium having been thus far effectively blocked, the largest plan now in view to prevent a repetition of the present conditions when again hospital crowding will become acute next year is that contained in Commissioner Tully's request for \$500,000 for buildings for the accommodation of between 500 and 600 patients at the department's farm colony of forty acres at Staten Island.

But the Board of Estimate and Apportionment on Thursday last gave Commissioner Tully only \$494,200 for the needs of his entire department, an amount less than one-third of his estimate, and less even than the sum he requested for the consumptives' colony, where early relief could be provided.

The board also acted favorably upon

an appropriation of \$850,000 with which to build the first of the pavilions of the "New Bellevue." As the plans must first be approved, this measure of relief cannot for some time affect the present congestion, either in the tuberculosis or general service.

"What are we going to do about it?" Shall we show some adequate conception of our duty by using a wise foresight or shall we again wait another year to see pictures of still more dreadful crowding and to hear of still greater numbers in general wards who should be segregated? Will we then at last give to those who seek charity of us, their fellow-citizens, a decent bed to die on, or shall we still let them lie like dogs upon the floor?



PATIENTS ON THE FLOOR AT THE METROPOLITAN HOSPITAL.

Southern Colored Girls in the North

THE PROBLEM OF THEIR PROTECTION

Frances A. Kellor

General Director Inter-Municipal Committee on Household Research

The problem of the unemployed negro woman in New York city is probably more serious than that of any other class of worker. She is unquestionably shut out from many lines of occupation, and through her increasing inefficiency and desire to avoid hard work, the best households and hotels and restaurants are gradually supplanting her with whites. This means in many instances that she must rely upon odd jobs and employment in the questionable house. There are many influences which are rapidly in-

creasing these tendencies, but there is one which with proper encouragement may be converted into a helpful educational center—the employment agency. There are in New York and Brooklyn some thirty agencies run by negroes for negroes and of this number there are at least one-third if not quite one-half which are, in the midst of unfair and dishonest competition, trying to do an honest business. The new employment agency law makes it possible to keep these agencies out of living rooms, to prevent frauds and the

sending of women to disreputable places as inmates and workers. But with the enforcement of this law there must go some constructive work. The law alone will not meet the great needs existing for the unemployed women.

Negro women who are led into immoral habits, vice and laziness, have in too many instances received their initiative from questionable employment agencies. Before such agencies have opportunity to lay hold of the worker, some preventive measure must be taken for the colored girl going to work for the first time, and for the green helpless negro woman brought up here from the South—on promises of "easy work, lots of money and good times."

The methods in half or two-thirds of the agencies which must be immediately met are telling with tremendous effect upon the household workers. These green Southern girls are collected in the South by white agents and shipped North, assured that good places exist. They are charged \$19.50 for transportation which costs \$7; they sign a contract to work one or two months without pay; they agree to send their baggage to the employment agency, which can keep it if they do not pay at the end of sixty days; a runner meets them at the docks and often robs them of their small savings; they are taken to a lodging-house—often the agency—where men and women, colored and white, habitués of disorderly houses, intemperate and good are all lodged together. There is no protection at the docks or at the stations. The new arrival does not meet one person outside of those under the influence of this agent. When a girl without control over her person and baggage, \$20 in debt, and a total stranger in the city, is sent to a disorderly place, upon threats or promises, can she be said to be anything but a slave? One woman says: "In the agency where I lodged, rooms were let to a white man or woman or *vice versa*, but never to two people of the same color and the example was so shocking to the young girls brought from the South and country that I threatened to report the place."

As a result of a thorough study in New York and through the co-operation of investigators appointed at Hampton In-

stitute to study the problem at the Southern ports, the New York Association for Household Research makes an earnest plea for co-operation in the saving of these women. From Hampton comes this letter: "When we find a group of colored women coming North can you direct them to good agencies and take care of them?" We must answer "No." At a conference of the association with a dozen of the best colored agencies, it was made clear that there are three pressing needs: First, a practical sympathetic woman at the docks to meet and befriend the women when they arrive. Ellis Island has its missionaries who guide and direct the immigrant women; the stations have agents. but there is no one to extend a helping hand to the country girl from the Southern port. Second, there is the greatest need for a lodging-house where these girls can be taken, where honest employment agents can send the girls at night when they have no employment. "Now," they say, "we must turn them out into the street, send them to places we are not sure about, or to places which if they are all right, charge prices far beyond them." In connection with this lodging-house there should be a modest training school where these women could be made more efficient and friendly relations established. A model employment agency in the neighborhood would do much to give courage to the agencies struggling to do right and would raise the standards and help in the enforcement of the law. This system of missionary, agency and home has been put into operation for Jewish women within the last year and is proving very helpful,—4,500 women have been helped by the missionary; over three hundred women have been housed while waiting for work; and the agency is nearly self-supporting. A few thousand dollars would give to negro women the beginning of a protection which if used in connection with the best agencies and such existing institutions as the Colored Women's Business Club, the Colored Mission, the White Rose Home, would benefit in a large way the negro worker, and the home in which she works. Questions, or suggestions will be received at the office of the Association for Household Research, 111 East Twenty-third street, New York.

The Anti-Tuberculosis Movement in Another Small City

Wm. H. Baldwin

Washington, D. C.

In the northeast corner of Ohio, half way between Cleveland and Pittsburg, is Youngstown, Ohio, a city of nearly 60,000 inhabitants. It was settled a century ago by substantial people from Connecticut. The coal mining which was once, and the iron and steel-making which has long been, its leading industry have brought in a robust and healthy foreign element which has combined with the other to make a vigorous community.

The general death-rate is low, and from consumption the place is usually free—one of the ten lowest in 1900 and 1901 in the list of 135 cities in the United States having a population of 30,000 or over. This absence of tuberculosis is no doubt due to the fact that the nature of their occupation has kept many people in the fresh air, and that there are very few engaged in work which confines them in crowded, ill-ventilated rooms. Until within the last few years there has been practically no overcrowding in the houses.

Tuberculosis nevertheless ranks among the three or four diseases causing the largest number of deaths in the community, and is increasing, the death-rate from it for the last two years being apparently about twenty-five per cent higher than it was ten years ago. Aside from the attention given by a few of the physicians, the first effort to interest the people in the subject was made at the beginning of last year in connection with the passage of the bill for the establishment of a state sanatorium. It happened that one of the leading business men who aided in this movement had traveled with Dr. Flick, and heard much from him of the proposed Henry Phipps Institute. The personal interest he showed led to the sale of a large number of copies of Dr. Flick's book, each of which enlisted the support of one or more persons. Copies of the *New York Handbook on the Prevention of Tuberculosis* were interspersed

with these, and other literature was circulated as opportunity offered. Through a pamphlet on consumption issued by the Ohio Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis many people became members of that society.

The proposal last spring to have the several women's clubs start a visiting nurse-work, which promised to supply one needed element in the solution of the problem, though not then carried out, increased the interest, and in the summer the board of health took up the question of requiring from physicians reports of all cases of tuberculosis. The Visiting Nurse Association was definitely formed in the fall and began work in December, the needed funds being readily secured.

At its first meeting in February the board of health passed an ordinance, modeled on that of New York city, requiring reports of tuberculosis cases, and has not only taken steps to enforce this requirement, but also to disseminate information about the disease by means of circulars and in other ways. This is followed up by proper disinfection when necessary. A proposal to establish a tuberculosis ward in the leading hospital of the city some months since failed for lack of means to care for it, but the board of health has taken this matter up and will probably make provision as there is now no place in the city where a consumptive can be sent for proper care.

At a meeting of the Up-to-Date Club, a representative body which discusses practical as well as general questions, held early in February, a paper on the prevention and cure of tuberculosis was presented by the assistant rector of St. John's church. Dr. John H. Lowman, who has written much on the subject and has taken a leading part in the movement in Cleveland, was present and the discussion resulted in the appointment of a committee to consider the formation of an anti-tuberculosis organization in

Youngstown. Two weeks later the club adopted the report of the committee, appointing sixteen members of such an association to consist of not less than twenty-five, with power to complete the number, and recommending that as soon as possible this body perfect its organization and arrange for a popular meeting, to be addressed by some speaker prominently associated with the movement against tuberculosis. This they are proceeding to do.

The association will be affiliated with the Ohio state society. The movement has the earnest support of the physicians and the newspapers. The city still lacks a charity organization society, and there

is no general agency for supplying the material relief so necessary in the treatment of tuberculosis, the only general provision being the public outdoor relief of the township trustees. But so far the different private agencies have worked well together and the Visiting Nurse Association supplies what material aid is required by the patients which come to its notice.

The idea of a tuberculosis dispensary has not been overlooked but so far the cases not able to employ a physician have been too few to warrant the establishment of one. That and the associated charities will come later when the necessity for them is more clearly seen.

A Split on Sectarianism

OPPOSITION IN ATLANTA TO AN ASSOCIATED CHARITIES SEVERED FROM "SECT. CREED OR POLITICS"

Evelyn Harris

City Editor the *Atlanta Constitution*

As the result of an effort upon the part of a number of well-known citizens to organize a charity association in Atlanta, a remarkable situation has arisen, and the outcome is yet a matter of conjecture.

Because the word "Christian" was not incorporated in the name of the association a number of ministers have declined to lend it their aid and have declared they will not permit the members of their congregations to become members. Because the Evangelical Ministers' Association has indorsed the association's plan, the indications are that a number of ministers will withdraw from that organization and establish a ministers' association of their own. These dissenting ministers are considering the advisability of organizing a "Christian Charity Association." If this is done there will probably be two evangelical ministers' associations and two charity organizations.

The Atlanta Associated Charities is organized after the plan of the New York Charity Organization Society. The need for such an institution was brought out strongly during the recent severe weather. The suffering in Atlanta at that time was greater than ever before in the history of the city and all the charities had more work than they could well attend

to. In many instances the work of various organizations conflicted, and it was found that a number of undeserving persons were taking advantage of the situation to reap a harvest. The plan of organizing the charities was suggested by Dr. T. D. Longino who played an important part in the meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction in Atlanta in 1903. The first bomb was exploded at a meeting held February 25, for the purpose of adopting a constitution. The opening paragraph of the constitution presented by the organizers contained the following statement: "The society is to be severed from sect, creed or politics." There was immediate opposition upon the part of several ministers. Dr. Len G. Broughton, who is at the head of several well-known charitable institutions conducted by the Baptist denomination, and who is known for his strong convictions and a tendency to sensationalism, immediately proposed a substitute. His amendment was in effect to change the name of the society to "Christian Charities of Atlanta." He stated that the organization was in keeping with the commonly accepted Christian religion and that all charity should be done in the name of Christ. He wanted the constitution to be so changed as to be

severed from denominational sectarianism or party politics.

Immediately Dr. Broughton met with strong opposition and a fight was begun which promises to extend throughout the entire city. Well-known Jews who are among the leading charity workers in Atlanta were present by invitation and Dr. Broughton's proposition was considered aimed directly at them. In speaking of the subject in reply to Dr. Broughton, Rabbi Marx, among other things said: "The spirit Dr. Broughton has displayed is, it seems to me, neither in keeping with Jesus of Nazareth, nor with the ancient Jewish spirit, the people from whose loins He sprung; nor with the spirit of the great city of Atlanta. In fact, under the amendment of Dr. Broughton, Jesus Himself, as a Jew, would be ineligible to participation in the work of this organization."

No less emphatic was Dr. H. S. Bradle, pastor of the largest Methodist congregation in Atlanta.

"The greatest difficulty standing in the way of wise and proper charity work is this lachrymose, sniveling spirit which says it never turns anyone away empty-handed. Its followers would like to keep

a great mass of poor people in order that they might indulge themselves in it. I very seriously question the sincerity of motive in offering this resolution. For my part I rejoice that my spirit is catholic enough to take every man by the hand and say to him, 'God bless you, brother; we are working for a common cause.'"

The liberal element won the day and there was no further clash until March 6, when the evangelical ministers of the city held their regular meeting and an effort was made to have this body indorse the charity organization. Immediately there was opposition by those who had stood with Dr. Broughton. The matter was thrashed out and the Associated Charities was indorsed by a vote of eighteen to six.

After the adjournment of the meeting those who opposed indorsing the charity plan held a conference and decided to make an effort to fight the Associated Charities, possibly by a rival organization. In the meantime the earlier movement is progressing in a manner satisfactory to its organizers and there are indications that it will be successfully established.

Mary Hall.

Hartford (Conn.) *Daily Courant*, March 9, 1906.

We have had no expectation that Mary Hall's official head would stay put, and it was no surprise yesterday to have the axe fall—and the head, too. We venture the prediction that she can get along without working officially for the state better than the state can get along without her official services. We qualify all this with the word "official," because in the larger sense she will all her life be working for the state. She is a sort of petticoated Henry L. Goodwin, always battling for what she believes to be right, making herself hated by those who resent her interference, uncomfortable herself at the thought that wrong is going on, and ready any minute to take hold and

¹ Miss Hall had long been a member of the Connecticut State Board of Charities.

try to right it. We venture to say that there is not a mismanaged state-aid institution in Connecticut where her presence isn't hateful, and that all along the line of grafters and shirks Governor Roberts will earn thanks for her decapitation. She is "hard to get along with," cranks devoting themselves to her hobby always are. But, in spite of the knocks she gets (and will get), she belongs among the comparatively few who will leave the world better for what she has done in it. Nobody can measure the good she has done to this community in her work at the Good Will Club—how many wandering boys have been made strong, upright men, how many homes have been brightened, and how much the standard of citizenship has been elevated by her modest, unassuming but persistent efforts to help those for whom at her request the club was started.

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The East Side Loop Hearing. The relative position of things was shifted at a hearing before the New York Rapid Transit Commission last week in the matter of another East Side elevated railway. The Bridge Commissioner had advanced a plan for the connection of the Williamsburg and Brooklyn bridges, on the Manhattan side, by an elevated railroad running the entire length of Delancey street to the Bowery and thence, partly on private property and partly on Baxter street, to the present terminus of the Brooklyn bridge. East Side social workers had been put in the position of combatting this project, as a menace to the light and health of the East Side, and a vigorous fight has indeed been put up by Charles B. Storer, Lillian D. Wald, James H. Hamilton and others. As a result of the hearing, the burden was shifted to the bridge commissioner and other engineers to show cause why some other method of solving the problem of bridge relief could not be worked out. It remained for a committee of a private organization, William C. Redfield, Lawrence Veiller and William A. Clark of the City Club, to put before the board several alternate plans. One of these was for a trolley subway, depressing the Brooklyn Bridge lines of the Manhattan end, and running the tracks underground across the city. This would distribute the crowd from the Manhattan terminal. A second plan was to run Third avenue, New York cars, across the bridge round a Brooklyn loop and back over the bridge, avoiding the break in traffic and taking care of the crowd crossing the Brooklyn bridge from the north. But it is from the south that the greatest number of bridge travelers come. The plan of an elevated loop, such as the bridge commissioner had pro-

posed, in no sense meets the problem of this major crowd. A plan for a trolley subway connecting the Wall street district with the Williamsburg bridge, was argued for by the City Club representatives as a way out of the pocket. Their recommendations have been issued in the form of a special report.

It was contended by those who stood for an elevated loop connecting the bridges, that these alternate suggestions were not pertinent. But suppose the subject under discussion had been the solution of the traffic problem to Staten Island; and suppose that certain wise men of Gotham had advocated a system of bowls of the Mother Goose variety. Would it not then have been pertinent to have argued the merits of a different variety of cockle shell, or even of a modern ferry system?

The Massachusetts Tramp Bill.

A bill for the regulation of the tramp question in Massachusetts, which the Civic League of that state is urging energetically, has been favorably reported by the joint judiciary committee. It is certainly one worthy of all co-operation on the part of citizens of the Bay State.

The bill provides for the appointment of a special agent or officer to enforce the laws in regard to tramps and beggars and it is around this provision, as a nucleus, that there can be built a system for the systematic regulation of the tramp evil in Massachusetts. Effective administration could be looked for from a special officer, unhampered by the restrictions and limitations of petty politics, and a central office from which (after a set of records and carefully compiled histories have been prepared) there should be distributed throughout the state the threads of a web that, as the result of trained manipulation

from the central headquarters, could be drawn tightly around the ramifications of the tramp evil from the initial step of registering the professional, and saving the occasional tramp, to the concluding steps of looking up and prosecuting violations of the tramp laws.

These are the all-important factors upon which hang the successful operation and carrying out of such provisions of the law as Section 1, herewith quoted as proof of the progressive character of the measure:

SEC. 1. The officials having charge of the places provided by cities and towns for lodging tramps and vagrants shall require them to perform labor of some kind in return for their lodging and for any meal furnished to them, and said officials shall keep a record of all such lodgers on blanks to be furnished by the district police; and the places in which such persons are lodged shall be kept in such order and condition as may be described by the State Board of Health; and such places shall at all times be subject to inspection of said board and the district police. The neglect or refusal on the part of any such official to comply with the provisions of this act shall subject such official to a fine of not more than \$100 to be imposed by municipal or district court.

Following out these provisions it is to be hoped that the suppression of indiscriminate arrests of unemployed workmen would cease, that the work-test as indicative of an applicant's willingness to work would be judiciously applied, and that those temporarily among the tramp population be separated from those professionally inclined to idleness.

The laxity of railroad supervision over freight car "jumpers," the inefficiency of local and terminal police in clearing the railroads of the tramps, in gangs or as individuals, who, under existing conditions, find it easy and safe to "jump" from city to city and town to town at their own sweet will, constitute the main difficulty in the way of effectual treatment. This, one of the roots that strikes deepest into the soil of evil produced by the tramp problem, is the most neglected, and could it be uprooted the tramp question would be nearer solution than ever before.

The Delinquent.

*Progressive
Legislation in
Oregon.*

In view of the fact that the next Conference of Charities and Correction is to be held at Portland, it is interesting to find that the legislature of that state has recently adopted measures affecting criminal procedure, which put it in the front rank of progressive states. One of these is an act providing for the establishment of a juvenile court in judicial districts containing one hundred thousand or more inhabitants. The act applies to children under the age of sixteen. The judges of the circuit court in each judicial district containing 100,000 or more inhabitants are to designate one of their number to act as judge in juvenile cases. Trials are to be held at a special session of the court, which for this purpose is to be called the juvenile court. These courts have authority to appoint persons of both sexes to act as probation officers, without compensation from the public treasury. The law forbids children under twelve years of age to be committed to a jail. There is also provision for a board of county visitors of six persons to serve without compensation, to visit institutions, societies and associations receiving children, under the act.

Another law adopted authorizes probation of persons not previously convicted of a felony. It applies both to minors and adults. Persons under probation are to be placed in the custody of the Prisoner's Aid Society, or under such supervision as the court may deem best.

A third measure enacted is an indeterminate sentence law. It may be applied to any person convicted of a felony for which the maximum punishment does not exceed twenty years' imprisonment. The court may sentence such persons to the penitentiary without limitation of time. Instead of a pardon or parole board, the power to parole is placed in the hands of the governor and the person becomes eligible after he has served the minimum period of imprisonment provided by law for the crime. The governor is not to hear petitions or arguments of attorneys for parole of prisoners, but the only ground for the granting of parole is to be the prisoner's general demeanor and

record for good conduct at the penitentiary. The law provides also for the revocation of parole when necessary.

It is somewhat remarkable that Oregon should have succeeded in passing at one session three such progressive laws. They did not go through without some momentum generated by public sentiment and a forceful group of citizens.

*A Woman's
Reformatory in
New Jersey.*

The New Jersey senate has passed the bill for the establishment of a woman's reformatory. The commission appointed by the governor under authority of legislation in 1903, has presented a supplementary report in which additional facts and arguments were urged for the establishment of the institution, the need for which the commission says, "grows more urgent each year." That need has been amply demonstrated by the able report of the commission. It remains for the assembly to respond to this reasonable demand of the philanthropic workers of New Jersey, reinforced by an intelligent public sentiment, kindled not only by the press of New Jersey, but by a campaign carried on by the *New York World*.

*Probation in
Massachusetts.*

The annual report of the Massachusetts Prison Commissioners shows a continuing increase in the use of the probation system. In 1902 there were 7,360 persons taken on probation in the lower courts; in 1904 the number was 8,790. As usual, about seventy per cent of the cases are of persons convicted of drunkenness, but there has also been an increase in cases of assault, larceny, nightwalking, etc. The number of probationers under sixteen years of age has increased considerably.

The results of probation are about the same as they were two years ago. The proportion of failures is only a little above eighteen per cent. These failures are divided into three groups—those who were surrendered to the court for a violation of the terms of probation (about nine per cent), those who disappeared and were defaulted (a little more than seven per cent), and those who were arrested for new offenses during probation (about two per cent). A large proportion of all these

groups consists of men charged with drunkenness. There are fewer failures among the sober probationers.

The courts have been using increasingly the custom of extending the term of probation. At the end of the first period, if the probation officer reports that the probationer has been doing well, the term is extended, it having been found that the restraint of supervision is very salutary and helpful to the probationer. Of the nearly eighty-two per cent whose conduct was satisfactory, about one-eighth had their terms extended.

In the superior court, which has jurisdiction of felonies, there has also been a large increase in the number of probation cases. Two large counties which did not have probation offices in 1902, have them now. This accounts for a part of the increase in the total number of cases, but in the other counties there has been an increased use of probation. Last year 1,402 cases were taken on probation, against 1,058 in 1902, with a growing tendency to use it for serious offences, like burglary, larceny, etc. A few years ago it was doubted if men who had committed grave crimes could be wisely dealt with in this way, but now it is not questioned. In fact, the felons who are taken on probation give far less trouble, and have a smaller proportion of lapses, than the misdemeanants. The judges of the superior court are taking great interest in probation, and it is now one of the recognized methods of dealing with first offenders. The best estimates show that the probation system more than pays its own cost, by the saving on the cost of support of those who otherwise would have been committed to prison.

State Boards and Commissions.

Arkansas.

Governor Davis is said to be anxious to have the state boards in charge of the charitable and penal institutions taken out of politics. He recently made a personal appeal to a committee of the legislature for the passage of a bill providing that the management of the state penitentiary be taken from the hands of the present board of state officers and turned over to a board of his appointment, as in the case

of the State Board of Charitable Institutions. An alternative proposition is that one board be elected by the legislature to have charge of all the state charitable and penal institutions, to consist of a member from each congressional district, to be elected every two years.

California. Some members of the legislature have taken offense at the State Board of Charities and Correction, and apparently would like to terminate its usefulness. On a recent visit to Los Angeles by the assembly committee on state charities and corrections, an investigation of conditions at the Whittier State School being one of the purposes of the trip, the *Los Angeles Express* took occasion to criticize the committee severely. Among other things it intimated that too much time had been spent in the café of one of the fashionable hotels of the city, and, it failed to endorse the habits of traveling legislators generally.

Assemblyman Atkinson of San Francisco rose to the occasion by introducing a resolution looking to the discontinuance of the state board, his impression being that the criticism of the committee came from that source.

Meanwhile the senate committee appointed to inquire into the management of the state institutions, has suggested that the boards of managers of such institutions be kindly advised of their errors and shown how to correct them, and that they not be publicly criticized, as it is alleged has been done by the board's secretary. While this advice is good, and should be followed as far as it is practicable, it is idle to think that only flattering notices of institutions should be published, or that any institution can be found without some defects, minor though they be, susceptible of correction.

Illinois. A civil service reform law covering the employes of the state charitable and reformatory institutions, and the administrative departments of the state government has been favorably reported by the house committee of the legislature. Governor Deneen is believed to favor this measure, and the friends of reform hope for its passage.

Iowa. The State Board of Control is carrying on extensive construction work at some of the state institutions. The foundation for the \$220,000 main building was completed last fall, but the brickwork had to stop with the advent of the cold weather. The board hopes to have the building ready for the opening of the school in the fall.

The hospital at the Council Bluffs institution has been completed at a cost of about \$25,000 and is said to be complete in every detail for the care of the sick at the school for the deaf.

The state architect is preparing plans for new buildings at the institution for the feeble-minded at Glenwood. New buildings are also projected at the Soldiers Orphans' Home at Davenport.

This evidence of progress in construction work at the state institutions sets a desirable example to some of the other and larger states.

Massachusetts. The twenty-sixth annual report of the State Board of Charity has been printed for circulation. The report covers the year 1904, and is divided into three parts. Part one contains a general statement with relation to the work of the board; part two, the reports of certain charitable corporations, and part three, information with relation to certain city and town almshouses, the "pauper abstract," as it is called, of Massachusetts, and statistics showing the finances and population of five state institutions. Among the board's recommendations and suggestions for legislation were the following: Authority for the board to inspect certain private charitable institutions; the establishment of juvenile courts in the larger cities of the state; the probation of minor children in the religious belief of their parents; the enlargement of the board of trustees of the State Sanatorium at Rutland by the addition of two women; the removal of the insane from the State Hospital; and provision for papers relating to the work of the board.

Michigan. The recommendations for appropriations from the seventeenth biennial report of the Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities for the years 1903 and 1904 have

been published. This report contains a statement in detail of the appropriations desired by the several state institutions, with recommendations of the board which state in regard to each item the reasons for approval or disapproval.

Minnesota. The second biennial report of the Board of Control of state institutions, covering the period ending July 31, 1904, has been printed. This report seems to be printed on poorer paper and in poorer form than any other state report that has been received. It contains much interesting information, however, as to the working of the new system in Minnesota. Among the board's recommendations is one that the girls who are now inmates of the State Training School at Red Wing be removed to an institution to be known as "The State Industrial School for Girls." Singularly enough, the board had been about to establish the school, but was prevented from doing so by action taken in the courts by the citizens of Red Wing. The court decided that the act was unconstitutional because of a defect in the title.

A site has been purchased near Walker in Cass County for the "Minnesota Sanatorium for Consumptives," but further means are necessary to construct and equip the institution.

Much useful statistical and other information is to be found in the report.

New York. The State Board of Charities has transmitted its thirty-eighth annual report to the legislature. This report covers the year 1904 except with relation to the statistics, which are for the year ending September 30, 1904. The report of the board has been delayed generally by the failure of the local poor law officers to make their annual reports on time. This year several such officers representing important cities of the state, were delinquent as usual, and in some instances it was necessary to bring their delinquency to the attention of the district attorneys of counties, who are required to take action in such cases within their jurisdiction.

When it is considered that the New York state board is obliged to secure statistical information from nearly two thousand different sources, many of

them, like the overseers of the poor, changing frequently, it will readily be seen that the task is not an easy one. Some years as many as 500 letters have been written to secure needed corrections in the reports, but improvement is continually being shown in this respect, in itself one of the beneficent results of requiring reports. Through this improvement, statistics of greater value and accuracy will be secured as time goes on.

Practically all of the board's general recommendations for legislation, made in recent years, have been adopted. One recommendation that has appeared in the board's reports, without effect, for several years, that all the appropriations for betterments at the state institutions be included in one bill, met with the approval of the governor in his message, and has now been adopted by the present legislature. The State Industrial School, at Rochester, is being removed to a farm site in the country and steps are being taken to remove the House of Refuge to a farm site and to make it a state institution in all that the name implies. The commitment of girls to these institutions has been discontinued. In his message to the legislature the governor recommended that the maintenance appropriation to the House of Refuge be contingent upon its being brought within the rules of the civil service. All these reforms have been consistently urged by the State Board of Charities.

Commission on Construction Work.

An important recommendation in the New York board's report is that a temporary commission be appointed to recommend a definite and comprehensive plan for the construction of state buildings and the laying out of their grounds. Those who are familiar with construction work at the state institutions, know that the board is right when it says that millions of dollars have been expended by the state in construction work in which haphazard methods have been followed to a greater or less extent. Of course the proposed commission could not be expected to do more than outline a quite general plan, but that of itself would be a great advantage. It would be possible, for example,

to suggest the capacity and the arrangement of buildings constructed for epileptics, the feeble-minded, juvenile delinquents, and the various other classes that go to make up the sum total of the state's dependents. The commission might also decide whether two or three-story buildings should be erected, and whether or not cellar-like basements should be provided, as have been proposed in some instances through motives of economy, as living rooms for state dependents.

A graphic chart showing expenditures for construction work at the state institutions would present a serrated appearance, according to the predilection for economy or the reverse on the part of the administration. A commission composed of men of character and ability should be able to recommend any consistent policy that could be followed with advantage for years to come.

A bill has already been introduced in the legislature providing for a commission to recommend the construction of additional prison accommodations.

Nebraska. The legislature of Nebraska has shown economical tendencies in a peculiar fashion. With only eight votes recorded in the negative, it passed Senate Bill No. 59, introduced by Senator Dimery, of Seward County, which consolidates the Home for the Friendless, at Lincoln, with the Home for Fallen Women, at Milford. "If the bill passes the house and becomes a law it will mean that the homeless old women and little children who are now afforded a home by themselves in the Lincoln institution will be taken to the Milford Home and there given quarters with fallen women, many of whom have come from the streets and evil resorts of Omaha and Lincoln. While this may not be exactly pleasant for the friendless and homeless grayhaired women now housed at Lincoln, and may not be for the best interests of the little boys and girls who are also cared for there, it is figured that it will save \$10,000 or more to the state of Nebraska—or about a tenth of the amount required to pay the increased salaries provided for in the salaries appropriation bill introduced in the house."

Charges were recently preferred by J. W.

Robinson, a former accountant at the Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, against Superintendent R. E. Stewart of that institution. The trustees examined the charges and found that the acts complained of had been committed, but that the state was not anything out of pocket. They recommended that the practices complained of be discontinued. The governor, thereupon, reappointed the superintendent for another two years. The charges were mainly to the effect that the superintendent had sold some of his personal effects to the institution, that he changed bids to accommodate favored bidders, and that employes of the institution did work at his house.

Indiana. The fifteenth annual report of the Board of State Charities to the governor of Indiana covering the year from November 1, 1903 to October 31, 1904, has been published. Much attention is given to the Indiana state institutions in the report, and to the county jails and poor asylums.

Interesting graphic maps and statistics are also published showing the distribution of outdoor relief in Indiana, whereby it appears that the granting of such relief has greatly diminished in almost every part of the state since the state board commenced giving attention to the matter.

Tennessee. Governor Frazier of Tennessee has appointed ex-Senator Thomas B. Turley, of Memphis; Samuel W. Hawkins, of Huntingdon; W. R. Cole, of Nashville, and Dr. J. H. Bachman, of Chattanooga, to be members of the Board of Charities.

Wisconsin. A civil service reform bill has been introduced in the Wisconsin legislature. This seems to be patterned largely after the "White Law" of New York state, with the exception that the appointing power is to have a larger number of eligibles to choose from. The Wisconsin Board of Control is showing some anxiety as to the effect of the law upon the state institutions within its jurisdiction.

Wyoming. The biennial report of the State Board of Charities and Reform for the year ending Septem-

ber 30, 1904, has been received. This board has control of the state penitentiary at Rawlins, the State Hospital for the Insane at Evanston, the Wyoming General Hospital, and the Wyoming Soldiers and Sailors' Home at the Fort McKinney Reservation. Juvenile delinquents are sent to Colorado institutions and the deaf and dumb, and the blind, to institutions in various other states. One feeble-minded child is maintained in the South Dakota Children's Home.

The report is given up largely to a discussion of the condition and finances of the state institutions.

Surgical Cures for Economic Ills.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON,
Secretary National Conference of Charities and
Correction.

A bill is now pending before the legislature of Pennsylvania, passed by the senate and reported to the house by a committee, which provides for the assexualization of imbeciles and idiots who are dependent inmates of a state institution. The professed purpose is to prevent such persons from becoming the parents of a new brood of degenerates. It is difficult to see what the promoters of this radical measure expect to gain by it, unless it is only a first step towards still more drastic reversions from the modern civilized view of the sanctity of the individual human being.

What is to become of the victims after the operation, is not made clear. Are they to be turned adrift on the body politic when they are rendered incapable of that natural increase which is so deadly an economic danger? If not, if they are to remain under proper care and control, a care and control which is demanded by the consensus of opinion of civilized mankind, why treat them as we do the domestic animals?

It has been difficult enough to secure for these unhappy beings the modicum of insufficient care they are now receiving. If we take away the element of economic danger that now attends on their neglect, it may be still harder work to get appropriations. Every one who has had to present the case of the idiot before a ways and means committee knows that the danger to the state from their unhindered in-

crease is the most powerful argument he can use. Not sterilization and subsequent neglect but segregation and permanent maternal care is the demand of an enlightened science.

Every one admits there is little danger from the male imbeciles, they will not be the fathers of the next generation of neuropathics.¹ It is the females, often healthy and even physically attractive, whose progeny the state has to fear. What would happen to these poor girls, rendered sterile, if thrown out on the world? They would be in great demand for the white slave market, the "maiden tribute of the modern Babylon." True they could no longer procreate but they could vitiate as much as ever.² Imagine what a center of horrible immorality such a girl turned loose in a comparative ignorant and innocent rural community could become, herself perhaps too ignorant to understand what she was doing. By every reason of decency and morality they would still be objects of custodial care, then where is the profit from their sterilization? What benefit could accrue to the state by this deliberate retreat from the modern to the classic idea of the value and the rights of the individual?

It is true that surgery does, and righteously does, many similar operations, but they are always for the benefit of the patient. The surgery this bill calls for on the other hand is on the same plane as that every cattle owner practices on his male animals. The difference is radical. It requires no new law, at least it introduces no new principle, to operate for his own benefit on an inmate of an institution. There are cases of disease or of the results of vicious habits, that imperatively demand such interference. It is possible that the responsibility of the superintendent of an institution is not clear enough on this point and his power to decide for those incapable of deciding for themselves may need strengthening by law. But the present proposition is an entirely different matter.

It has often been suggested that the

¹The mentally deficient, insane, epileptics and many other classes are grouped as neuropathics. The hereditary taint will certainly appear in every succeeding generation, but may, and often does, appear in a different form from that shown in the parent.

²It is not generally known that the Chinese prostitutes owned by the "Six Companies," of San Francisco, are sterilized to make them more profitable slaves.

crime of rape should be punished by castration, and but for the uncertainty of legal procedure many people would favor so righteous a retribution. People who think heredity is the chief cause of crime, also favor the plan as a certain means of social improvement, with regard to all habitual criminals. But only a narrow and mistaken conception of the awful facts of heredity permits such theories.

What will follow, if this first step be taken, is an interesting subject of conjecture. There are many people besides the idiots, who do not advance the progress of the race when they bequeath their idiosyncrasies. The work of the jury of three, a surgeon, a neurologist and a superintendent of an institution, which the bill provides for, may become varied and heavy. A generation ago there was a cry raised in favor of *euthanasia*, the painless extinction of the incurably diseased or people so old as to be incapable of useful or enjoyable life. Similar plans have had currency from time to time, all having the common feature of ignoring the sanctity of the individual human being, which is the bulwark raised by modern civilization around the weak, the aged, and the poor—plans, all alike, however finely veiled in quasi humane sentiment and economic advantage, based on a gross materialism. The filial son among the Fijians, puts his old father to death before advancing decrepitude makes his condition, which in the next world will be what it was when he left this one, an undesirable one. In Sparta and even in Rome, the superfluous infant was "exposed" if the father so ordered; as to the imperfect one he had no choice but to expose it.

Many good people who would shrink from the least tampering with human life for economical purposes, who recognize the value of the civilized ideal, who would be horrified if feticide for instance should be made legal, even in such a dreadful case as when conception has been the result of rape, will not accept the theory that the assexualization of imbeciles belongs in the same category. They will not see the connection; or if they do see it they will think that this is such a small door to open—surely we can soon close it again. But can such a door, once opened, be closed? Once admit the principle that a human

being may be treated thus and so, not for his own benefit but as an economic measure, and we have taken the first step in a process that must tend downwards.

If there were no other way, if the natural increase of the degenerate could be prevented by nothing else than surgery, the consequences of that increase are so dreadful and far-reaching that almost any risk might be justified, even the greatest of all risks, that of the lowering of the tone of our civilization. In that case every thoughtful person who has had to do with this class of people, would say "In God's name use the knife." But there is another way. The better way is known and as far as practiced is successful. It is the way of segregation. It has far wider possibilities than the way of surgery since it may be applied, as that could not or at present would not be, to the many cases on the border line between imbecility and normality, for it is not necessarily final in any case. And it is precisely the border line cases, as every institution man knows, for whom, if for any, surgery might be desirable. Besides, as shown above, segregation will still be necessary, no matter how much the knife may be used. It is only by the chloroform method that we may escape the burden of the care of these men and women children, the idiotic and the imbecile. To that method would be the next logical step.

Notes of the Week.

Educational Alliance.—A performance of Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett's play will be given in the auditorium of the Educational Alliance Sunday evening, April 9, 1905, under the auspices of the Women's Auxiliary to the Educational Alliance. The entire company giving this play is composed of young men and women and children of the Educational Alliance.

People's Institute, Club A.—The People's Institute, Club A, New York, gave their annual entertainment in Carnegie Lyceum. Saturday evening, March 11. There was a musical program and a two-act comedy "To-morrow at 12" written by Mable Hay Barrows.

International Relief Congress.—M. Casimir-Perier, president, has called a meeting of the International Committee of the Congress of 1905, to convene April 10, at ten o'clock, at 55 rue de Ponthien, to consider various questions relating to the congress at Milan.

Communications to "Charities"

The Phipps Fund: Some Forebodings and Some Possibilities.

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

A philanthropic corporation organized to earn four per cent per annum on a cumulative capital from which neither principal nor earnings may be diverted, except to earn more dividends, would be, I believe, something new in American experience. So startling a proposition it is that I cannot avoid feeling that in this respect Henry Phipps's announced gift of \$1,000,000 for the building of tenement-houses calls for very serious consideration.

Five parties are immediately concerned in the gift—the donor, the public who live in tenements, the public who invest in them, the semi-philanthropic corporations who build "model" houses, and the somewhat self-constituted body of social students who have ideas as to where social needs are greatest, dangers to the state most menacing, proffered relief most likely to bear rich harvest. It is as one of this last group, each of whom speaks as he is moved, and among whom the existence of any pronounced diversity of opinion has come to be taken as a standing invitation to get together and compare notes, that the writer ventures to outline his personal impression of the situation created by the gift.

The Donor. The donor's interest, as announced, is "to make this money do as much good as possible;" and, we may add I think without offence, in so doing to perpetuate a name which shall be significant for generations to come of a vital, growing force in the community.

The Tenement Dwellers. The present attitude of the tenement population toward any effort to superimpose benevolence upon rentals which so far as they can see are at the market rate or higher is not one of appreciation. What it is, is suggested, if we may be blunt, by the male tenants' popular designation of the very efficient agent of such benevolence in a well-known tenement property as "that damned English woman." Appreciation of unusual advantages enjoyed in this and similar properties of course exists, but such appreciation as the shopper has of a good bargain—an attitude of mind diametrically opposed to the conscious gratitude of a beneficiary toward his benefactor. Entirely different from this resentment of benevolence at market rates is the feeling of these same tenement dwellers toward substantially the same group of philanthropists when the latter unite with the people in demanding and securing for every citizen the right to a healthful home at market rates. Equally outspoken is their appreciation of the philanthropic leadership,

the gifts of money, the co-operation which is striving to save rich and poor alike from the plague of tuberculosis.

Offer to a man—an American—as a charity what he can get for himself, and he will despise you; help him where he is helpless and he will remember you, and do for somebody else as you did for him. Particularly is this pertinent to the housing situation now, when under the new law, if enforced, every new tenement must to a degree be a model house. The city is already dotted with them: why should one prefer the "barracks"—that is what fastidious room-hunters dub the model blocks—when the ward politician, or some equally tangible entity, has put up a lovely twenty-family house—under the new law—a few blocks away, and no lady agents? I am conscious that the subjective element enters unavoidably into observation, and we see men what we want them to be, not always what they are. But these tenement dwellers have been my neighbors, employes, friends, for nearly a decade. Making every allowance, I do not think I am very much astray in saying that in establishing model tenements to rent at market rates Mr. Phipps must look for no gratitude so far as his tenants are concerned.

The Tenement Investor. The public which invests in tenements, largely the individual investor whom Mr. Phipps would refrain from discouraging, is in the main a trader on margin. He has limited experience. He has unlimited courage to invest in the congested sections where angels fear to tread. Nothing in particular leads him to buy tenement property other than the prospect of making it pay well. Common sense will take his investment elsewhere, or put his money in the savings-bank at three and one-half or four per cent, care-free, the moment he realizes that there is a substantial movement on foot which will result in limiting his profits in tenement property to four per cent. At present the individual investor bears to the philanthropic corporate investors and the Phipps fund the ratio of perhaps five hundred to one. But his lack of organization, the complete absence of incentive other than to get high returns for his money, his method of investment on margin, all conspire to make him a factor of little persistence, panicky, pre-eminently fitted to yield at the first pressure of formidable competition.

The "Model" Landlord. I have already hinted at the somewhat hesitating part played in the tenement situation by the semi-philanthropic corporations, which for the most part flit around the edge of the problem, fearful to get into congested districts lest the land be too high,

fearful to get out of them lest the houses be not filled. I know it is one thing to sit on the fence and make fun, another to be carrying the actual responsibility of a relatively great experiment dependent for its financial support upon a large body of investors who would withdraw that support and—it doubtless seemed at the time—set back the cause of tenement reform for years if there should be a single mistake. Great credit is due the men and women who have stood behind these corporations. But the fact must not be lost sight of that while in capital invested they are ostensibly on a par with, or greater than the Phipps fund, in real structure they are designed to creep where it will run; to falter where it may risk; crippled, in some cases, with the cost of experiences from which the new fund will profit gratuitously; increasing their resources with effort, in slow arithmetical progression, while the Phipps gift doubles itself six times a century. Four per cent, plus risk, is not an attractive proposition. If these corporations have difficulty in increasing their capital now, with the crying needs of the helpless tenement dweller as their chief claim for recognition, what will be their chance with investors when the leaven of the new tenement law has commenced to raise up model houses in every ward, and the Phipps fund has started in on its portentous mission?

At the proposed rate of cumulative increase, it would be but a very few generations before this fund, as a factor in the tenement situation, will begin to be felt by investors no longer as a stimulus but as competition. Let rents be kept as near the market as you please, a hundred subtle elements would enter in to make this competition, once felt, as real as if the Phipps fund cut market rates fifty per cent. For, all calculations to the contrary notwithstanding, the individual investor in tenements find them profitable, or he would not keep going into them at the rate of two or three thousand a year. And "profitable" to him does not mean four per cent. Eight or ten would be nearer the figure, especially when he is his own janitor and lives in the house rent free. The difference between his eight and the philanthropist's four per cent must appear, if rents are to be nominally equal, in larger ground space, more substantial structures, management of greater intelligence hence more costly, ornamentation, and attention to detail which will, or should, make the Phipps house as much superior a proposition and competitor as if tenants were getting a direct cash rebate from the market rate.

Let the individual investor meet this subtle competition by improving his property as the Phipps houses are improved, and he must perforce cut into his greater profits, and ultimately reach the level of earnings of the Phipps fund, assuming reasonably competent management on both sides. But long before this, investors would

have discovered the tendency of events, and dropped out of the competition, to put their money into something promising better returns. And this would come about much more rapidly than at first thought may be supposed. For as the small investors go in for tenement property in shoals, so they would get out of it and keep out of it in shoals, moving at the first alarm with much of the panicky haste and unreason of the Wall street trader on margin. Long before the Phipps fund, even with its enormous fecundity, was in position to cope with the situation, the tenement market would be deserted, except by those who couldn't get out of it, and there would happen exactly what Mr. Phipps desires to avoid, a cessation of building operations, the raising of rents, and distress for the working people.

*The Issue
Clean Cut.*

The issue raised by the proposed use of the Phipps fund appears to me to be clear cut, inevitable. The fact that the culmination would not come about for many generations does not release us from the responsibility of giving rise to it. It is one of two alternatives: Shall the future housing of the citizens of New York be paternal, that is, ultimately socialistic, or shall it remain democratic? Unquestionably if the construction and administration of all tenement property in the city could be concentrated in one executive, and that executive happened to be both honest and competent, the community would then have the best possible solution of the housing problem so far as its mechanical aspect is concerned. So, I believe it is generally admitted, of all functions of government, mechanically considered: an intelligent, benevolent despotism would run things to perfection. But while concentration of capital and of industry may seem to be pointing toward some such absolutism, or socialism, whichever you please, as our future political goal, a few of us still cling to the old democracy, with its blundering clumsy notion of letting the people manage their affairs for themselves. To-day there is scarcely a tenement block in the city which has not its dozen or more small property owners, each a nucleus of civic stability, conservatism, of appreciation of and support for law and order. Deprive us of these, make the masses wholly propertyless, give them the impression that property rights exist for the benefit of the huge corporation, and how wisely will they use their votes in questions affecting those rights? If there be corruption of public servants now to evade the will of the people, what will then suffice?

I have indicated roughly how the Phipps fund would compete with the individual investor, and how it would paralyze the growth of the semi-philanthropic building corporations. Two still more subtle elements entering into this competition ought not to be overlooked. Being a charitable institution, the fund may be able to secure

exemption from some forms of taxation from which commercial investors would not be exempt. Again, on the ground that its purpose is philanthropic, it is possible to secure for it the gratuitous counsel and direction of men whose services are valued in the business world at rates entirely beyond the command of the average investor. Given such competition, vast capital, self-perpetuating, cumulative in a geometrical progression, persistent to a single end, favored in taxation, directed by picked leaders of the business community—who can stand against it?

Some will say these are abstract propositions, contingent upon conditions which may never arise. I will give a single instance coming a little closer home. For the type of building unit at present preferred by the City and Suburban Homes Company, the large block, there are in the city at any given time few sites which permit of development insuring a prompt, while permanent, four per cent return on the investment. Suppose those directors of the Phipps fund who are also trustees and stockholders of the above-mentioned semi-philanthropic company know of two available sites for such a block, one good and one better, and that both the company and the Phipps fund desire to build on such a site. Which will get the better location? Think over this question for a moment, with some of the unasked questions it may suggest. Then raise the more pertinent query: Is it unavoidable, in the vast field of social need this city presents, that we should tread on one another's heels in our effort to relieve one want, while unsuccored need not less imperative stretches out its arms to us from every quarter?

*Another Field
for Usefulness.*

Clearly Mr. Phipps's primary purpose, "to make this money do as much good as possible," does not limit him to any special field of service. Nor does his particular desire to alleviate the housing conditions of the working people of the city indicate necessarily that he must follow the prevalent policy of putting up and managing large tenement blocks somewhat removed from the present congested sections. Every day, in the most congested parts of the city, where the real tenement problem exists, there are small, tumble-down properties passing into the market. These are now promptly snapped up by the speculative builder remodeled or rebuilt, and sold to prospective small landlords at a good profit. Nobody would grieve over the passing of these speculative tenement builders.

Could not the Phipps fund be devoted to this work, buying whenever the opportunity afforded, in plots even as small as fifty feet, rebuilding in a substantial way, and selling to the thousands of small investors who are to-day looking for a chance to operate such a property? By so doing the fund

would permeate every section of the city; it would force up the standard for tenements as no isolated model block can hope to do for generations to come; it would secure the appreciation of the ultimate tenant and the good will of the prospective landlord, rather than their contempt or hatred; it would, by sharing the burden of building with a host of purchasing landlords, exert its influence over many houses at the critical time when they are being planned and built, instead of over a relatively few such as it could both build and retain administrative control of permanently; by co-operation instead of domination, it would help the people to help themselves.

Accumulating in this way more rapidly than under the four per cent plan, the fund would in a few decades become adequate to keep up with the demand for new tenements. Then it might be possible to devote the annual earnings, in part or entire in the discretion of the trustees, directly to more difficult, more speculative if you please, investments in social welfare, investments which if successful promise richer returns than the already progressing tenement movement can now afford—returns, to be sure, not of dividends to the fund, but of health and life to the people. Many a time has the writer, as every other social worker, felt sick at heart because of the inadequacy of our available resources to halt some fearful, inexcusable drain on the community's life—as tuberculosis, for example, or child labor. And it has been increasingly my conviction that there are resources in the masses themselves ample to meet such needs, could they be rightly drawn out and given proper direction.

Such an opportunity is before the Phipps fund—having received from the people year by year, bit by bit, a share of the money they are glad to pay for good homes, to turn back to them in due time the increase, in organized relief of the needs which singly they are unable to meet. Thus doing would this gift again, bearing good in its principal and good in its increment, help the people to help themselves. And when the distinctive type of house built by the Phipps fund comes to mark every section of the city, the people, knowing the destination of the fund's profits, will be proud to live in these houses, whoever the landlord, conscious that they are in some degree contributing to a fund which is a measure of their own power, under wise direction, to act together for the common welfare.

It is a hardy spirit that dare project its will into the affairs of future generations, with courts to set aside, legislatures to outlaw, faithless administrators to waste, socialism to dissipate. But for him who can forecast the need wisely, there will endure more than the gift, more than a name.

HERBERT S. BROWN.

New York, February 2, 1905.

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

More Needed Than Model Tenements. The crusade for the erection of model tenement houses, overshadowed perhaps by the new tenement-house law, had begun to lag when Mr. Phipps fanned the flames by setting aside \$1,000,000 in the cause. That the many model tenements built in New York city during the last fifteen years have aided directly by giving to workmen better homes than they could otherwise secure and indirectly by raising the standard of all tenements, erected by speculators as well as by philanthropists—this cannot be questioned.

Even the radicals (may their tribe increase), who complacently observe that Mr. Phipps is but giving back to the working people a small part of what he has taken from them, do not deny that the proposed structures will greatly benefit the toilers.

While all are agreed that model tenements are good—is there no more crying need?

All the new law tenements are model tenements. They are a most profitable investment. Some hundreds have already been built, and many more are in process of construction. Whoever on the East Side (rents on the West Side are slightly lower) can pay from \$15 to \$20 for three-room apartments and from \$20 to \$35 for four or five rooms need not lack the three essentials: light, air and sanitary plumbing. But the day laborer who averages eight or nine dollars a week and the mass of our foreign population, huddled in colonies, who have not yet learned the language and customs of the new country and must literally "live off one another"—these two great classes cannot live in the new houses.

In the days preceding the de Forest law it was possible to rent three rooms in a *new* "dumb-bell" tenement for from \$10 to \$18.¹ It is not now profitable to build tenements in which the smallest and meanest apartments rent for less than \$15. As a result those whose earning capacity is below a certain standard are forced into the most ramshackle buildings in the most undesirable neighborhoods. They must put up with common sinks in the halls and with common

¹ Such statistics as are available go to controvert this statement. It is not, however, vital to the writer's contention.—Ed.]

Under-Nourished School Children: Paternalism and the Immigrant: Girls With Nothing to Do.

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

Under-Nourished School Children. A very large number of children undoubtedly go to school without breakfast for many different reasons.

Many mothers leave home to go to work at such hours that they neither prepare breakfasts for the children, nor see them eat it, which is almost as important.

Very many mothers have no skill where-

closets—often in the yards. They must live where tuberculosis is inbred, where everything is tainted with disease, moral as well as physical.

We have then this paradox: the day laborer though he can exist by constant struggle, cannot live in Manhattan and he cannot get away—for his work is there.

For this unfair discrimination against a class there are only two remedies:

I. Subways.

II. Good homes at possible prices.

Relief by subways is of the future, and at the most it is only relief. The need for good and cheap houses in Manhattan will continue always.

If it is the function of the city to care for the destitute, the sick, the vicious, by what school of logic is the city not responsible for the conditions which breed poverty, sickness and crime?

But it is a fact, and we must recognize it as such, that the city will not destroy the disease spots except when the stench becomes unbearable. The city will not "interfere with private rights" and secure to its people wholesome tenements at reasonable rates. It remains for large-hearted men like Mr. Phipps to take up the work. It is for men like Mr. Phipps to consider whether it is not more immediately imperative that those who now live in squalor have good homes than that those who already have good homes have better.

Why use the \$1,000,000 in building model tenements to rent at the market rates? Why not use the \$1,000,000 in buying the worst of the old rookeries in Manhattan?

Tear these down and build in their stead plain, substantial structures, with two and three-room apartments that will rent for from \$8 to \$15. Sell these at once and buy more rookeries. Build, sell and buy.

When this has gone on for ten years the worst of the plague centers will be but memories of the past. The day laborer and the recent immigrant will not be excluded from decencies. The effect on the death-rate, on the spread of tuberculosis, on poverty and crime, would be too indefinite to estimate but not too remote to be seriously considered.

L. H. P.

February 1, 1905.

with to prepare a tempting meal, and are as likely to leave the older children without breakfast as they are to feed infants on coffee and bananas.

Both the foregoing disadvantages of the children are increased by the home circumstances; for instance, it is almost universal to have all windows closed at night. The air is foul and stuffy, the children are often three, four, or five in one bed, or sleep on

the floor. Thus the children arise unrefreshed, without appetite, and need to be induced to eat.

For children in this state of body and nerves, the candy sold near the school (made in some cases of terra albe and glucose, with a smear of chocolate on the outside) serves as a cloying substitute for nourishing food. The money daily spent upon this injurious substitute would, in many cases, pay for a good portion of food (bread and milk, or a cup of chocolate made with milk). Parents very commonly give the children money expressly to be spent for meals which the children, having no judgment, spend for candy.

The experiment made by the Salvation Army cannot be regarded as proving anything decisively either as to the number of underfed children or as to the method of dealing with them; because the stations were not primarily selected with a view to this work; because regard seems not to have been had to the religious and national customs of the children (Jewish children having, perhaps, felt that the food was not prepared according to their ritual; Catholic children being unable to use meat broths on Friday; and Italian children finding the American manner of seasoning flat and tasteless); and finally, many underfed children are in families who are not aware of the fact and have no idea that they need gifts of food.

The Salvation Army has rendered a distinct service to the community by making a concrete experiment, however unsuccessful, and by focussing public attention upon a great and real problem. It is, however, associated in the minds of young and old with the effort to save lost souls; and this is an unfortunate idea to confirm in the minds of school children with regard to themselves. Moreover, many parents fear on the one hand proselyting and on the other the association with the criminal classes.

In the nursing work of the nurses' settlement, it is a regular part of the care of eczema of the head and of other so-called diseases of poverty, to feed up the children. It is also true that many cases of throat troubles and of bronchitis which would be well in two or three days in well-fed children, last two and three weeks, because the patients are habitually underfed. Tuberculosis also finds many victims among young people who might well have escaped infection if they had been properly fed.

The need of the children is that the schools should meet the demand of their bodies as they already meet the demand of the mind. A valuable and suggestive experiment has been made by Miss Mary Farrell, in School No. 1, at Henry and Oliver streets.¹ Miss Farrell encourages the children to bring bread; she gives them a glass of excellent milk, for which they bring a penny; and the food from the cooking class

in the same school is given to the children in Miss Farrell's special class. She reports that the effect of this systematic feeding upon her children is marked and good.

In the schools, the foods used can be selected so as to avoid the forbidden articles, and with skilled discernment of the tastes of the children, who, for instance, have to be distinctly encouraged to drink plain milk, but readily take it with chocolate and sugar. The children can pay in school what they now pay for candy; and those who are unable to pay anything, can be given tickets through the different charitable societies exactly as the same children are now aided by the societies, i. e., through their parents. In some of the kindergartens of the Free Kindergarten Association, this feeding has been found necessary, the children in our own kindergarten receiving every morning, at lunch time, a glass of milk and a cracker. In many cities throughout the country, the high schools furnish a light lunch at cost for the pupils who very generally avail themselves of it. The principle is the same as in the case of the primary children who need the food far more urgently.

Could not the Board of Education serve the children of the primary school by means of a simple and attractive lunch counter, in some one school, by way of an immediate experiment? In working out the details we should be glad to co-operate if our services could be turned to account.

LILLIAN D. WALD.

The Nurses' Settlement.

TO THE EDITOR OF CHARITIES:

In regard to the "plan for *Girls With Nothing To Do.*" girls with nothing to do" concerning which Mrs. Parsons writes so earnestly,¹ I can hardly believe she means it to apply to the really earnest, intelligent, college graduates who wish to take up some definite line of work, even when not obliged to earn a living. To such girls a congenial marriage, one which is right from many points of view, seems an ideal, a rather rare happening, while they can easily see that the world's need for skilled, experienced workers in any line is absolutely certain and the call urgent. These girls will hardly be satisfied with anything less than the best training to be had; they will wish to stand shoulder to shoulder with professional workers and to have their work judged by the highest standards; by them the schools for special training in many lines have already been utilized, and proved satisfactory.

But I can realize that there are also a large number of wealthy girls graduated from fashionable schools, where the courses of study have demanded neither much industry nor devotion, whose parents have tried (unfortunately for the girls) to keep every hard or unpleasant experience out

¹ See CHARITIES, March 11, 1905.

¹ CHARITIES, March 4, 1905.

of their children's lives if possible, who, at the end of the regular (or more often irregular) school attendance, find life hanging heavy on their hands for lack of any vital interest. For these girls Mrs. Parsons proposes a semi-professional training, and after that regular hours of work.

But the unanimous complaint which comes from the churches, settlements, charities which have tried to train and use just such girls is that they lack devotion to a responsibility once undertaken—be it class, club, the collection of savings or the good of an individual family. If this could be counted upon, there are already unnumbered real needs for their services for as many hours a day as they could spare. The Charity Organization Society system of friendly visiting alone could, under expert organization, supply enough training and occupation for all, suited to the powers and tastes of each.

S. W. H.

*To the Editor Jewish Charity:*¹

*Paternalism
and the
Immigrant.*

If one may judge from the article "Paternalism and the Immigrant" in the February number of CHARITIES there are more persons possessing only "fragmentary bits of intimate knowledge" than the writer suspects. There are some misstatements regarding Jews so gross as to call for reply.

There is absolutely no foundation for such statements as the following: "Societies are operating all over the continent to succor Jews bordering over the Russian border and ship them to their already burdened countrymen in the United States." Not for this: "As for the Jew he goes where the charitable society that is getting him out of Europe sends him, and the society is certainly not going to pay fare further than New York."

¹ Reprinted from *Jewish Charity*, February, 1906.

Monthly Charity Conference, New York.—The monthly conference, under the auspices of the New York Charity Organization Society, was given up this week to a discussion of manual training. Dr. James P. Haney, director of manual training in the public schools of Manhattan and the Bronx, described the arts work. Five things he held to be canons: first, that the work should be creative, rather than artistic—that it should express the child in terms of his work; second, that it should be developmental, should recognize the element of growth and changes in a child and meet it squarely; third, that it should be social—connect the child with its environment as no other study in the curriculum can connect it—reach out to the home, to the city, and to the world; fourth, that it should deal with real things—not produce pretty pic-

tures or objects, but work that has reality and significance; fifth, that it must grow out of the needs of the courses of study and relate those needs to the life of a child. Miss Mabel Irving Jones, of the Children's Aid Society, described the educational opportunities and occupations possible to cripple children.

Advances in Indiana.—Commend us to Indiana for a model, hustling legislature. Its biennial sixty-one days session has been full of good works. Many reform laws have been passed, a new hospital for insane (the fifth), a village for epileptics, extensive new locations for the girls' industrial school and the school for the deaf provided for, and the increased facilities at many other institutions. The total appropriations for betterments aggregate \$1,260,000.

These reports have been so often denied that it seems remarkable that they should be repeated by one who claims to speak authoritatively. The Jewish Relief Societies in this country are in close touch with those abroad and know absolutely that there is practically no assisted immigration. The Jews confess that they are burdened—but they assume their burden cheerfully, and it is admitted that they handle their problem well. With the rising industrial prosperity of the comparatively recent immigrant the problem becomes easier to handle, for there are more people able and willing to contribute.

The writer says: "Russia has committed a multitude of murders and worse deeds to make farmers out of the Jews." This is truly a Delphic utterance. Possibly a course in elementary murder and scientific outrage would be a valuable addition to the curriculum of our agricultural schools. Yet the drift of American Jews into farm work, though slow, is encouraging to those who have watched this movement.

No greater misapprehension could exist than that "75,000 who support the mass of the others (in New York city) are engaged in the tailoring trades." While it is true that for well-defined economic reasons the Jews have practically absorbed the needle trades, yet the number of skilled laborers in all branches of industry is considerable. The records of the Industrial Removal Office conclusively prove this. This organization which has during the last year, distributed over six thousand Jews in 300 cities of this country and Canada, is just entering upon an untried field of endeavor. It has been slow in developing its machinery, but experience has now been gained and it is constantly enlarging its sphere of usefulness and promises to become an important factor in the relief of the New York congestion.

MAX SENIOR.

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